The Asian EFL Journal
Second Language Acquisition – Academic Research

TESOL Indonesia International Conference Edition
December 2016
Volume 1

Senior Editors:
Paul Robertson and John Adamson

Production Editor:
Eva Guzman
Table of Contents

1. Dr. Iskandar Abdul Samad / Dr. Zifirdaus Adnan .......................... 05-44
   Generic Structure of an Important, but Neglected, Academic Genre, Undergraduate Thesis Defence Examination, and its Pedagogic Implications. A Collective Case Study at Four Universities in Aceh and North Sumatra Provinces, Indonesia

2. Aco Nasir .......................................................... 45-54
   Implementing SBI (Strategies-Based Instruction) in Teaching Speaking Skills

3. Adinuansah / Furry Agustini .................................................. 55-66
   Analysis of the Factors Influencing Students’ Motivation in Learning English

4. Afdaleni ................................................................. 67-71
   Students’ Interest Level in Learning English Grammar

5. Afif Rofii / Franscy ........................................................ 72-84
   The Development of Contextual-Based Textbook on Morphological Process in Faculty of Teachers Training and Education Batanghari University Jambi

6. Afnesha Noveriana Chang .................................................... 85-89
   Young Learner’s Learning Characteristics: What should the material be?

7. Ahmad Junaidi ............................................................... 90-95
   Evaluating the Relevance Status of Linguistics-Based Courses in English Teacher Education Program in Indonesia: A Case Study at the University of Mataram

8. Amaluddin / Salasiah A / Mardiah ......................................... 96-109
   Developing Teaching Model for Listening Comprehension by using Audio Visual Aids and Metacognitive Strategy

9. Amara Yeoh Jo Ann / Melor Md Yunus / Azlina Abdul Aziz ............. 110-125
   ESL Trainee Teachers’ Approaches and Activities in Teaching Literature: Usage, Factors and Confidence

10. Aminah ................................................................. 126-140
    Student and Teacher Perceptions on the Role of ICTS in Promoting Instruction for Quality Teaching and Learning in Central Sulawesi, Indonesia
11. Amrullah ................................................................. 141-148
   Improving English Speaking Ability through Task-Based Learning Approach
12. Andi Musafir Rusyaidi .............................................. 149-154
   The Effective Use of Error Categorization Matrix in Improving Students Writing Skill
13. Andrea Rakushin Lee .............................................. 155-159
   Korean EFL Students’ Perceptions of Instructor Interaction in a Blended Learning Class
14. Andrew Prosser .......................................................... 160-165
   Extended Metaphors: Educational Hypermedia, Instructional Design and Understanding the Metaphors Learners Use
15. Anna Riana Suryanti Tambunan, S.S., M.Hum ................. 166-177
   Teacher’s Motivation as a Conceptualization of Job Commitment to Predict the Teacher’s Competence of Indonesian EFL Teachers
16. Arif Husein Lubis .......................................................... 178-192
   Literature Circles as a Facilitator to Promote Composition Process: A Voice from Tertiary EFL Students
17. Arjulayana ................................................................. 193-200
   Non-English Learners’ Needs in Learning English as a Foreign Language
18. Aschawir Ali ............................................................... 201-205
   A Rasch Model Analysis to Measure the Students’ Narrative Writing Development
19. Asma Al Auфи ............................................................ 206-212
   Online Exams: Benefits and Challenges Faced by Teachers and Learners
20. Beheshteh Shakhsi Dastgahian / Behzad Ghonsooly ........... 213-234
   Managing Directed Motivational Currents of Religious Texts on English Language Achievement. A Mixed-Methods Study
   Learning Conditions for Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in L1 and L2
Title
Generic Structure of an Important, but Neglected, Academic Genre, Undergraduate Thesis Defence Examination, and its Pedagogic Implications. A Collective Case Study at Four Universities in Aceh and North Sumatra Provinces, Indonesia

Author
Dr. Iskandar Abdul & Dr. Zifirdaus Adnan

Bio-Profiles:
Dr. Iskandar Abdul Samad is a lecturer at Syiah Kuala University in Aceh, Indonesia. He completed his MA at Macquarie University and his PhD at the University of New England, Australia. Email: iskandar.abdul.samad@gmail.com.

Dr. Zifirdaus Adnan is a senior lecturer and researcher in the School of Arts, University of New England, Armidale, NSW, Australia. His research concentrates on genre analysis of academic writing, Second Language Acquisition and in Applied Linguistics generally. He completed MA in Applied Linguistics at the University of Melbourne in 2005, and a PhD at Curtin University of Technology in languages and intercultural education in 2006. He has published books, book chapters and journal articles in a variety of publication outlets. Email: zadnan@une.edu.au.

Abstract
Thesis defence examination (TDE) is an important event for students to complete to pursue their degree in many countries. Following Swales (1990, 2004) TDE can be considered as a class of communicative events, which has its own genre that has elements (or parts). Understanding the genre of an event could help students to perform competently. One major element of the TDE genre is its generic structure. Mastering this structure is important as it can give a frame which can guide learners in preparing for and performing in the TDE. Although a few researchers have argued that the structure could limit the creativity of students, the authors of this article adopt the positive position of other researchers who found that the structure is
beneficial at least for beginners because the structure gives them an idea of the overall form of the TDE, which can provide them with a direction to follow with some degree of creativity to exercise, and when they have acquired the common structure, they can exercise their creativity as they like. Without a common structure as a model, at least some, if not all, students would struggle as found in our interviews with our research participants. As in many other countries, in Indonesia, the TDE is an activity that university students have to pass in order to graduate in all degrees including undergraduate degrees. However, there is no research-based information on the genre has been found. This issue has been questioned by academic communities not only in the country but also overseas. This study, which is part of a broader study, is an attempt to fill the gap. The data for this research were collected using qualitative methods, which include direct and indirect observations, video recordings, note taking, and interviews with students and examiners. The field research was carried out in Aceh and North Sumatera provinces, Indonesia, for eight months. This article reports the results of the study.

Keyword: Undergraduate students, poor performance, genre, genre based approach, genre elements, thesis defence examination.

1. Introduction

Thesis defence examination (TDE) is an important event for students to complete their degree in many countries such as the UK, the USA and Indonesia. It is an opportunity for students to demonstrate their competence in their research project and in presenting its process and results orally before a team of examiners, for the team assess whether they have met the criteria to graduate. Specifically, performance in the TDE plays an important role in determining the grade point average (GPA) at universities in this country. Considering the importance of the TDE, students have to work seriously to understand their research project, including the thesis writing, and perform in a TDE competently. It means that they should have the ability to deliver and defend their arguments verbally. In order to perform competently in a TDE, students’ understanding of the generic structure (GS) of TDE is crucial because it is one of the important elements in the TDE genre because all examinees have to perform competently in the activities outlined in this structure. Unfortunately, there is not much research-based information on the undergraduate-level of TDE to help the students. Although there are many general guides available when searched on the Internet since many universities have their own respective guides, but there is hardly an empirical research report
on it. There has been some limited research on the subject, but so far, it has concentrated on TDE at doctoral levels. For example, the studies conducted by Grimshaw, Feld, and Jenness (1994), Burke (1994), Hasan (1994) and Swales (2004). Other studies investigated the purposes of conducting TDE. Kelly (2010) finds that the TDE held at doctorate level is aimed at testing the knowledge of the students regarding their research project and a chance for the examiners to ask questions and to give feedback to the students. Kiley (2009) argues that the TDE is an opportunity for the students to make arguments and to explain the unclear parts of their thesis verbally. Manigueneau (2002) says that the TDE is a time where the students show their competence in their research field. Tinker and Jackson (2000) add that the TDE is an opportunity to demonstrate an original contribution to knowledge. Accordingly, there is a clear gap of information on undergraduate TED, including its generic structure, awaiting to be filled. Pedagogically, such a research-based structure can help course designers to develop a preparatory course(s) which can adequately prepare their students with knowledge and skills to perform successfully in a TDE.

The research reported in this article is part of a broader research project, and this part of the project was intended to draw a common generic structure(s) (GS or GSs) of the TDE practiced at Indonesian universities, with a case study at four selected universities in Indonesia, pseudonymed Nanggroe University, Negeri Institute, Syiar University and Media University. Therefore, the main research question posed by this study was: What is the GS(s) of the TDE conducted at these universities, and what are their pedagogical implications?

It was hoped that the discovery of the TDE Generic structure(s) would be able not only to fill the information gap in the literature, but also to help lecturers to prepare their students for a TDE, for example, by improving the contents and effectiveness of the current TDE preparation units (courses) at their universities, so that the students can have a clearer understanding of the TDE and acquire the necessary skills to perform successfully in their own TDE. According to interviews with the informants of this research, such a clear understanding is not coherently presented in these units, and therefore, the necessary skills such as public speaking skills, thesis presentation skills, and the skill in answering examiners’ questions are not adequately taught and practiced. Therefore, they were not adequately prepared for their TDE.
1. **Literature Review**

In the literature, a variety of names are used for TDE in different countries. Hasan (1994) has reported that in the USA, the TDE is known as an institutionalized pedagogical activity. In the UK, the TDE is called viva voce, and in other European countries, it is called public defence. In Indonesia alone, the TDE is called differently too, according to its levels: *ujian skripsi* for undergraduate degree, *ujian tesis* for master degree, and *ujian disertasi* for doctorate degree. But its function and significance are the same. It is a vital requirement for the students to graduate. In other words, in order to graduate, the students have to present and defend their thesis in front of a team of examiners. The students are examined by their academic advisors and at least one external examiner to minimise possible biased result (Tinker & Jackson, 2000).

There are four well-known generic structures (GSs) found in the literature. The first three GSs were found by Grimshaw, Feld, and Jenness (1994), Burke (1994) and Hasan (1994). These researchers identified the GSs through analysing the performance of one female doctorate student, named Lee, at a TDE event held at Mid Western State University. The data that these researchers observe and analyse is a one-hour observation, a two-hour audio recording (it is not clear whether this was from presentations of two students), and one copy of the student’s thesis examined at the TDE. Interestingly, from this one source, the three groups of researchers produce three different models. For the purpose of discussing the models, in this article, the three models drawn by these researchers are respectively called as Grimshaw’s model, Burke’s model, and Hasan’s model. The models are described below.

The GSs that they identified consist of some segments and some activities under the segments. Grimshaw’s model consists of four segments: the opening, defence proper, in-camera and closing. In the *opening segment*, the candidate was given an opportunity to inform the examiners about her personal background, which includes some details of her education. The examinee used this opportunity to present her personal details to the examiners. These details may help the examiners to know about the examinee’s identity and professional background. Then, it was followed by a summary of the examinee’s thesis, including the design of the research project and the major findings. The examinee spent more time on this part to convince the examiners that she is highly competent in conducting research. The examinee being observed by Grimshaw et al. (1994) clearly informed the examiners of the procedures she followed during the process of data collection and analysis and results. Through this information, the examiners judged whether the result was valid and reliable or otherwise.
In the *defence proper segment*, the examiners were free to interrupt the examinee by asking questions. The questions were related to the theoretical conceptualisation, research design, data, analysis, findings, interpretations and implications. There were also questions related to the examinee’s future plans upon the completion of the study. The examiners asked questions freely about any unclear information in the topic. In other words, each of the examiners was not restricted by a specific section(s) allocated to him/her by the department or the panel.

In the *in-camera segment*, the examinee was asked to leave the room for approximately ten minutes. During this time the examiners evaluated both the written and oral performances of the examinee. In this segment, the examiners decided the final outcome.

The last activity is the *closing segment*. In this segment, the chair announced the result and congratulated the examinee, who was declared successful in the examination, was congratulated by the committee members. The examinee also completed the necessary documentation such as signing the forms, and left the room.

The generic structure proposed by Burke (1994) has some similarities to and differences when compared with the Grimshaw’s model. The similarities are found in some activities, for example, in the *introductory background* (the *opening segment*), the examinee presented her personal information and conducted the thesis presentation. Then, in the *wrap-up* (closing segment), the examinee signed the necessary documents. These activities can be found in both models. The differences are also found in relation to the number of and the terms used for the segments and the detail of activities. The Burke’s model consists of five segments, while the Grimshaw’s model has four segments. The terms used for an individual segment are different. In the Burke’s model, for example, the first segment is called *introductory background*, while in the Grimshaw’s model, it is called *the opening segment*. The *question and answer segment* in the Burke’s model is called *defence proper* in the Grimshaw’s model. The *interlude* and *assessment* in the Burke’s model is called *in-camera segment* in the Grimshaw’s model. The *wrap-up* segment in the Burke’s model is the same as *closing segment* in the Grimshaw’s model. In terms of activities in each segment, the Grimshaw’s model provides the details of the activities of the examiners and the examinee, while the Burke’s model focused on the number of questions asked by the examiners and the examinee, as can be seen in the *questions and answers segments*. The possible reason for these differences is that the researchers use their own interpretation based on their knowledge and experience when involved in TDE research.
The Hasan’s model shows some similarities and differences when compared to the other two models previously discussed. The similarities concern the number of segments and activities, between the Grimshaw’s and this model. The Hasan’s model uses the same number and name of segments as the Grimshaw’s model. The activities in the segment are also similar to the activities in the Grimshaw’s model. However, the terms used for the activities are different. Hasan’s model provides more detail information about the activities in each segment.

In terms of activities, there are similarities amongst the three models. In the *opening segment*, for example, the three models have the examinee introduces her-self before the examiners. However, some differences among the models are also found, for example in the Hasan’s model, the presentation occurs in the *defence segment*, while in the Grimshaw’s and Burke’s, this activity occurs in the *opening segment* and the *introductory background segment*, respectively. Then, ‘asking the examinee to return to the room’ occurs in the *in-camera segment* in the Hasan’s model, but it occurs in the *closing segment* in the Grimshaw’s model and in the *interlude segment* of the Burke’s model.

The Hasan’s model categorises the activities into ‘obligatory’ and ‘optional’. However, it is unclear how she found the two categories since they must be based on many presentations, while her analysis was only based on an observation of one presentation, a two hour presentation recording. Although it is not clear whether she had two presentations in the recording or not, but even if it had two presentations, still she used a very small number of instances to make such a category. Moreover, it was likely that the data was collected only from one university.

Nevertheless, these categories are not found in the other two models, making this model different from the other two. ‘Obligatory’ is given when the activity must occur in every TDE event (100%). Meanwhile, the label ‘optional’ is given when an activity occurs but they do not present in every move or step, for example, the personal introduction (PI). According to this analyst, the PI is optional because this activity need not occur if the examinee is known to the examiners. The PI is only conducted when interaction between the examinee and the committee members has been minimal. The second optional activity is advice to the candidate (AC), this activity is also optional because this activity only happens to examinees who is less competent in presenting and defending their respective thesis, so, there is room to give a further advice. In contrast, this activity does not occur with an examinee who performs excellently, and who needs no further advice. The third optional activity is the verdict affect (VA), congratulation from examiners. The VA is optional because
this activity does not inherently belong to the TDE, which means that the TDE can still reach the end whether or not the examinee receives congratulation from his colleagues or committee members. Again, the question is how such a generalization could be made if the data source is so small.

Despite the differences discussed above, the above researchers (Grimshaw, Feld & Jenness, 1994; Burke, 1994; and Hasan, 1994) include very similar elements in their models. The Grimshaw’s and Hasan’s models have four segments in a TDE. Burke (1994) added one more segment called *interlude*, which appears between the *opening* and the *assessment* segments. The *interlude segment* in Burke’s model is included in closing segment of the Grimshaw’s model, and in the *in-camera segment* of Hasan’s model. Only the terms used for the segments and activities are different. Each researcher used their own terms for the segments and activities even though the meanings are basically the same.

The fourth model found in the literature is created by Swales (2004). For this study, this model is called the Swales’ model. The Swales’ model seems to be based on a wider spectrum of data than the other three models in that it is from several observations of four different fields of study at the University of Michigan, the USA; these are social psychology, musicology, electrical engineering and computer science, and biology. Similar to the previous three models discussed above, Swales’ model is also taken from doctoral students. Being different from the other three models, Swales (2004) uses the term *the preliminaries segment* for the *opening segments* found in Grimshaw’s and Hasan’s models or the *introductory background segment* of the Burke’s model. Like Grimshaw’s and Hasan’s models, Swales’ model, has four segments. In each of these four segments, there are some activities too. Like the Hasan’s Model, optional and obligatory are also used, but named differently.

The first segment is the *preliminaries*. Within this segment, four activities are included. First, the candidate was asked to introduce him/herself. The candidate might state his/her name and student number. In the second activity, the chair asked the candidate and the audience to leave the room. In the third activity, the committee reviewed the evaluation criteria and the TDE procedures, and agreed on each. In the fourth activity, a member (one of committee members) recalled the candidate and the audience. This means that all the parties are ready for the examination. In this segment, a personal introduction is considered optional. This activity is not necessary in this segment because it may not happen if the examiners or panel members know the examinee well.

The second segment is the *defence proper*. In this segment, there are several activities. Firstly, the chair summarised the agreed procedures. This optional activity was to ensure that
the candidate knows what she/he had to do during the examination. Secondly, the candidate was invited to conduct his/her presentation. In the presentation, the candidate could provide a summary of the research project. The third activity was asking questions to the examinee in the round. This activity was conducted to provide an opportunity for the examiners to ask questions about aspects in the thesis, such as the introduction, literature reviews, methodology, and findings. The candidate was expected to answer the questions appropriately to obtain a good result in order to graduate. Lastly, the candidate and the audience were given an opportunity to ask questions of the examiners. This last activity is optional, because it was not commonly found in the TDEs of the four fields of study that Swales observed. After this segment was completed, the examinee was asked to leave the room, but this activity is not included in Swales’ model.

The third segment is the in-camera session. During this segment, the panel members discussed the result of the presentation and decided whether the candidate was to be given a pass or fail mark or pass mark with minor revision. During this in-camera segment, the candidate remained outside until a committee member recalled the candidate for the next segment.

The last segment is the closing segment. In this segment, four activities were found. Firstly, the members announced their agreed result in front of the candidate and audience. The candidate with a good result was congratulated by the committee and audience. Secondly, for those who passed with minor revision, there was a discussion of what more needed to be done by the candidate. This activity is optional because most of candidates passed. The third one was the documentation, where the candidate signed the required forms. Then, the final activity was the leave-taking, including photos and other social activities.

Generally, these models can be categorized into two based on the authors’ respective definitions of ‘thesis defence’. On the one hand, Grimshaw at.al. and Burke seems to define thesis defence strictly as the ability of the examinee to answer questions, so ‘thesis summary presentation’ is separated from ‘the Defence proper segment’ and included in the ‘Opening segment’. On the other hand, Hasan and Swales consider it as part of the ‘defence proper’, so put it in Segment 2 (Defence Proper).

The four GSs of TDE discussed above are the result of the previous researchers’ observations of students’s examinations at Doctorate level only. So, there is still lack of investigation about the GSs of the TDE at undergraduate level, particularly in Indonesian universities. Moreover, Grimshaw et al. (1994), Burke (1994) and Hasan (1994) used only one source of information to propose their respective GS models i.e. from one university and one student, named Lee,
and 2 hour of recording. It is unclear how many student presentations were in the recording and from how many universities. But, it is likely that it is from the same university as the data was obtained from there. Nevertheless, this number of sources is considered weak to make a generalisation because the sample is very small, since it could be the idiosyncratic features of that particular university or students. Swales’ model use more varied data sources involving several different disciplines, but they all represent only one university. To address this deficiency of data source, this study used a much larger number universities (4 universities) and larger number of students in order to draw the data from and ensure a stronger validity.

For this study, the reason for discussing the four Doctorate level models is that these models were taken as a framework to analyse the data and identify TDE generic structure (GS) models practiced in these Indonesian universities. These four models are called in this article as the ‘four well-known GSs’.

3. Theoretical framework

The fact that the three researchers could propose the three different well-known models using the same data, indicates that human beings are creative. Their creativity may be influenced by their experiences, expertise, or the ways they look at the data. Some researchers have proposed the theory of discipline variation and cultural variation. Discipline variation assumes that each discipline has different models due to a variety of cultural elements such as daily practices, the environment, values, norms, emphases and the like (Yakonthova, 2006). The facts that the Swales’ Model was developed based on a range of different disciplines, which gave rise to his model which differs from the other three models may suggest the influence of different disciplines. Cultures may also influence people’s ideas, practices and thus produces variations (Adnan, 2010; Safnil 2001; Miller, 1984). People who live in a democratic society may come up with different creations when compared to people in an authoritarian society. It is interesting to find out whether the different cultural environments, where the TDEs examined in this study, would also produce variations. If so, it is also intriguing to find out what gives rise to the variations.

4. Methodology

As mentioned earlier, the study reported in this article is a part of a broader study which employed a collective case study method (Stake 1995, cited in Zucker, 2009). Yin (2009) and Nunan (1992) define a case study as an investigation of a case or multiple cases to obtain in-depth information in the context in which the case occurs. A collective case study as
defined by Stake (1995) is a “…study of a number of cases in order to inquire into a particular phenomenon.” (cited in Zucker 2009, n.p.). The study reported in this article looked as cases at 4 universities, focusing on one phenomenon that is their ‘thesis defence examinations’ (TDEs), particularly their ‘generic structure’ (GS). Further, this study also had one main research design, one main purpose and one central research question, namely what is the common generic structure of the TDEs practiced at those 4 universities? ‘Common’ is defined as ‘Occurring, found, or done often’ (http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/common). The word of ‘often’ is relative to the entire occurrences, the higher the percentage of occurrences, the more common it is. Since there are only 4 cases (4 universities), occurrences of a segment in 3 universities is considered common, and occurrence in 4 universities is considered more common. Conversely, the occurrences of a segment in two universities is considered as less common and in one university is considered the least common. Thus, the purpose is not to compare individual examinees’ performance.

Therefore, the number of individual examinees in each university is not considered as part of a determining factor because it is assumed that they would follow the same rule issued by the same department, perhaps with very minor variations. The researchers of this project observed a higher but unequal number of students for each university for pragmatic reason, i.e. the availability of examinees to observe and to ensure they do follow the same rule including the order or sequence of activities applied by their respective university.

The four universities consist of Islamic and secular universities from 2 different provinces. These universities were selected for 2 reasons. The first reason was they were the major public universities in the provinces. Secondly, two of them are Islamic tertiary education institutions, so it would be interesting to find out if they represent culturally distinctive generic structure compared to the two secular universities.

The investigation was conducted in the English Education Departments (EEDs) of the selected universities. The data for this study were collected through direct and indirect observations, interviews, note-taking, photo-taking, and video recording. Direct observation means the researchers sat in the TDE room to observe the TDE, and the indirect observation means observing the TDE sessions through video recordings.
### Table 1

Summary of data collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Data collection</th>
<th>Data analysis</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Sites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the common GS of the TDE of the four Indonesian universities?</td>
<td>Sixteen direct and indirect observations (videoing and taking pictures), in-depth interviews.</td>
<td>Based on four GSs of TDE in literature.</td>
<td>Sixteen examinees</td>
<td>2 universities at the Provinces Aceh and North Sumatera</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What are their pedagogical implications?

### 4.1. Participants

The participants of this research were sixteen examinees from four selected universities (Nanggroe University, Negeri Institute, Media University and Syiar University) in Indonesia. These examinees were students who were conducting the thesis defence examination (TDE) process as a final step to complete their degree. They were observed when presenting their thesis in the real TDE at their respective English Education Departments (EEDs) of the four selected universities.

Ten examinees are from Aceh and six are from North Sumatera. The fact that these numbers are not equal was not an issue in this study because, as stated earlier, the number of examinees was not considered a determining factor influencing the finding of this study since the main purpose of the study was to find out the generic structure of TDE practiced at 4 universities, and the examinees of each university followed the same rule. In other words, the study did not compare individual students, but the TDE generic structure as practiced by the individual universities.

### 4.2. Data Analysis
The data from observations were analysed using the four US generic structures, drawn by Grimshaw et al. (1994), Burke (1994), Hasan (1994) and Swales (2004) already discussed earlier as a starting point. These GSs are used as frameworks to draw a generic structure of the TDE at undergraduate level at each of the four universities, and a common structure of all of them. However, in our analysis and developing our models we adopt Hasan’s and Swales’ broader definition of ‘thesis defence’ to include the thesis summary presentation because it is part of the assessment. We also included another segment called ‘Preliminary’ before the ‘Opening’ segment to capture important different pieces of background information, especially the composition of the parties who were present in the TDE. Further analysis, to explain the multiple variations found at each of the institutions, was conducted using principles of cultural theory.

5. Findings and Discussion

As shown in Table 2 four generic structures (GSs) were found at the four institutions.

Table 2

Summary of the generic structures found at the 4 institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Preliminary segment</td>
<td>a. The examiners, examinees, a secretary, an official (Head of the English Education Department), and audience settled in.</td>
<td>a. The examiners, examinees, an official (Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs), and the audience settled in.</td>
<td>a. The examiners, examinees, an official (Head of the English Education Department) settled in.</td>
<td>a. The examiners, examinees, a secretary (called note taker), an official (Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs), a witness, settled in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The Opening</td>
<td>a. The Head of the English Education Department greeted</td>
<td>a. The Head of the English Education Department greeted</td>
<td>a. The Head of the English Education Department</td>
<td>a. The Head of the English Education Department</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segment</th>
<th>and welcomed the audience.</th>
<th>and welcomed the audience.</th>
<th>greeted and welcomed the audience.</th>
<th>Department greeted and welcomed the audience.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. The chair asked for the examinee’s ID card.</td>
<td></td>
<td>c. All the examinees were asked to leave the room.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3. The Defence Proper Segment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. The Panel Chair greeted everyone in the room, introduced him/herself and the other examiners and the examinee’s thesis title.</th>
<th>a. The examiner greeted the examinee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. The Panel Chair asked the examinee to read a number of verses from the holy book Al Quran</td>
<td>b. Each examiner asked questions on the sections already allocated to him/her for assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. The Panel Chair asked the examinee to conduct a thesis presentation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Each examiner asked questions about the sections already allocated to him/her for assessment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4. The In-camera Segment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. The examinee was asked to leave the room.</th>
<th>a. The examinee was asked to leave the room;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b. The secretary collected the scores from the examiners and calculated them.</td>
<td>b. The secretary collected and calculated the examinees’ scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. The examinee was asked to leave the room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. The secretary calculated the examinee’s scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The Closing segment</td>
<td>c. The examinee was called back into the room after a ten-minute wait.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. The examiners put on their formal gowns.</td>
<td>a. The secretary announced the results of the examinees’ performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. The secretary announced the result of the examinee’s performance.</td>
<td>b. The Head of the English Education Department congratulated all the examinees, gave final advice, and closed the TDE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. The Panel Chair knocked on the table three times as a closing signal.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. The Panel Chair thanked the examiners and the audience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. The examinee was invited to make a short speech.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. The Panel Chair gave final advice and suggestions to the examinee.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. The examinee shook hands with the examiners.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. The examinee signed the examination documents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.1. The Generic Structure Found at Nanggroe University

The TDE observed at this university was conducted by the English Education Department (EED). It was officially opened by the Head of the Department. The description of a GS of Nanggroe University is based on the observations of five examinees who are identified using the codes NUE1, NUE2, NUE3, NUE4 and NUE5 in order to keep the real names confidential. These students were examined on different days.

The generic structure of the TDE found at this university consists of five segments and several activities. The segments are ‘the preliminary’, ‘the opening’, ‘the defence proper’, ‘the in-camera’, and ‘the closing’.

5.1.1. The preliminary segment

The preliminary segment was the first segment of the TDE at this university. This preliminary segment was a segment of preparation for the TDE, and it occurred prior to the opening segment. It had one obligatory activity, that is:

5.1.1.a. The examiners, examinees, a secretary, an official (Head of the English Education Department), and audience settled in.

In this activity, the examiners, secretary, examinees and audience entered the classroom where the event was to be conducted and then they sat at their allocated chairs. Their attendances indicated that the TDE was about to commence.

5.1.2. The Opening segment

The second segment was the opening. In this segment, three activities were found, two of which are obligatory and the other one is optional.

5.1.2.a. The Head of the English Education Department greeted and welcomed the audience.

At the beginning of this segment, the Head of the English Education Department, who will also play a role as the Chair of the Examination Panel, greeted and welcomed the members of the Examination Panel, the secretary, the examinees and the audience. The secretary was the administration officer from the relevant department of this university who observed the TDE process, took notes and announced the results. The audience consisted of undergraduate students, who were in the process of writing their own theses and would undertake the TDE in the following semester or year, so they came to observe the real TDE, and guests e.g. parents and relatives of the examinee.

This greeting segment is also found in the Hasan’s and Swales’ models. However, in these two generic structures, the examinee greets the examiners, while at Nanggroe University, it was the reverse. This may be influenced by cultural issues. At this university, it is common
for the examiners to greet the examinees first because, in a formal event, the people with superior status, in this case the examiners and other committee members, always greet the subordinate person, the examinee. However, on a less formal occasion, such as on the street, the person with inferior status should always greet the superior. This is the way these two groups show their politeness based on the culture where the TDE is conducted. Another possible reason is that in the TDE, the examinee is being evaluated by the examiners. Thus, if the examinee greets the examiners, there might be a presumption from the examiners that this examinee wishes to attract attention and favour, e.g. be given a high mark, by showing a ‘special’ gesture of politeness. On the other hand, if the examiners greet the examinee, this presumption will not occur.

5.1.2.b. The opening ceremony

After greetings and welcoming all the attendees, the Head of the Department officially opened the TDE by saying ‘Bismillahirrahmanirrahim’ (In the name of Allah the most merciful and the most beneficent’), a common saying a Muslim says when starting a good conduct.

5.1.2.c. The chair asked for the examinee’s ID

Checking ID card is considered essential by this university because examinees are not allowed to undertake this final examination if they are unable to show a valid ID card, or if their ID is problematic. The ID is required to ensure that the examinee’s identity matches the information in the university records. ID checking did not always occur in the opening segment but it might occur in the closing segment; however, it was always checked. This made this activity compulsory at this university. It is also unique to this university as it is not found in the rest of the institutions under investigation, nor in the ‘Well-known Models’.

5.1.2.d. The chair of the panel introduced him/herself and the other examiners and the examinee’s thesis title.

This activity was optional at this university. Only a few chairs in the TDE introduced themselves, introduced the other examiners, and introduced the examinee’s thesis title. A possible reason was that the chair assumed that all of the audience in the room knew the examiners, since they were also lecturers at this university. In addition, the title of the thesis had also been written on the whiteboard in the TDE room. Hence, self-introduction and stating the thesis title was optional at this university, which is similar to Hasan’s model, but it is in contrast to Swales’ model.
5.1.3. The Defence proper segment

The defence proper segment is the segment where the examinee presented their thesis and answered questions, and the examiners evaluated the performance of the examinee. Three obligatory activities were found in this segment. These activities were:

5.1.3.a. The Panel Chair asked the examinee to read a number of verses from the holy book Al Quran

At the beginning of the defence proper segment, the examinee had to show his/her ability to read the Islamic holy book Al Qur’an. This activity seems to be unrelated to the TDE assessment, but it does because it affects the outcomes of the TDE. The examinee had to show that he/she is able to read any verses of the holy book selected by the examiners with a proper pronunciation, intonation and without making too many mistakes since reading the Al Qur’an is different from reading a book, because it should be read carefully with correct pronunciation and intonation. As in English, the pronunciation and intonation determine the meaning. If the examinee makes a mistake in pronouncing a letter, the meaning will change. Thus, the examinee had to read the Al Qur’an correctly. This university obliged all examinees, including those in the English department, to be able to read the Qur’an perfectly, because it is an Islamic university. If the students cannot do this, they are automatically disqualified and cannot continue the TDE. This activity seems to be unique to this university since is not found in any of the other 3 universities, nor in the US generic structures.

5.1.3.b. The Panel Chair asked the examinee to present his/her thesis summary.

In the presentation, the examinees were required to state the title of their thesis, the research problems, the reasons for choosing a particular research topic and the questions or hypotheses that they decided to address. They were also asked to review previous research, a summary of the research methodology, as well as the research results. This activity is the same as those found by Swales (2004) and Hasan (1994) in the same segment (defence proper segment), but Grimshaw (1994) and Burke (1994) found it in the ‘opening segment’. In other words, the activities in the defence proper segment of TDE at this university were in close alignment with only two models found in the literature.

5.1.3.c. Each examiner asks questions on the sections already allocated to him/her for assessment

Unlike the practice found in the 4 well-known models, at this university the Department allocated a few sections of the examinee’s thesis to each examiner to be scrutinised. Thus, each examiner asked various questions to the examinees about the sections that had been allocated to him/her to examine. For example, the first examiner (The Chair)
was required to ask questions about any unclear parts of the background of the research, such as the reason for conducting the research, definition of the research title, and any practical research results for the institution where the research was conducted. The second examiner had another role: he or she was given an opportunity to ask questions about the literature review; for example, whether a similar research topic had been studied in the literature, whether or not the topic was still debatable and current, etc. The third examiner was required to ask questions related to the research methodology, such as the data collection procedure, samples of the research and the results. This allocation of duties had been agreed by the examiners at this university for many years.

This practice is different from the ‘Well-known generic structures’, where the examiners did not ask questions based on allocated thesis sections, but they took turns in asking questions ‘freely’ to the examinees. There may be reasons for this different way of asking questions. Asking questions ‘freely’ may be used to test the examinees’ knowledge of their research as a whole, while asking questions based on the allocated sections may be used to avoid overlapping questions, as each examiner was restricted to the allocated sections.

5.1.4. The in-camera segment

The in-camera segment was a segment where the examinees were asked to leave the room for approximately ten minutes, and then called back in. In this segment, three obligatory activities were found:

5.1.4.a. The examinee was asked to leave the room

After the examiners had completed the question and answer interaction, the examinee was asked to leave the room and wait to be recalled.

5.1.4.b. The secretary collected the scores from the examiners and calculated them

The secretary collected the assessment scores provided by each examiner and calculated them to form the overall result. Unlike in the four Well-known models, there was no overt discussion among the examiners regarding the scores; this means that each examiner assessed the examinees’ performance independently. Calculation of the scores by the secretary while the examinees are outside is an obligatory activity at this university.

5.1.4.c. The examinee was called back into the room after a ten-minute wait

The examinees were called back into the TDE room where they were asked to sit and relax and to listen to the announcement to be made by the secretary in the next segment, which is the closing segment. This activity is also found in Hasan’s generic structure.
5.1.5. The closing segment

Eight obligatory activities were found in this segment. These are outlined below.

5.1.5.a. The examiners put on their formal gowns

The three examiners and the secretary put on gowns to indicate that the TDE for that examinee has finished. The examiners sat in a relaxed manner, ready to hear the final results, which would be announced orally by the secretary.

5.1.5.b. The secretary announced the result of the examinee’s performance

The secretary stood up and the examinee was also asked to do likewise by the chair. The examinee listened carefully to the announcement of the result, because this result determines whether the candidate passes with a high mark and without revision, passes with revision, or fails.

5.1.5.c. The Panel Chair knocked on the table three times as a closing signal.

After the announcement, the chair of the TDE knocked on the table three times to indicate that the process of the TDE was finished and the result of the examinee’s performance was valid. Knocking on the table was conducted using their knuckles, not with a special gavel, as in a court. All members understood that this knocking was sufficient to indicate that the TDE had finished.

5.1.5.d. The Panel Chair thanked the examiners and the audience

The chair thanked all the examiners, the secretary and the audience for their presence at the TDE. This formed an expression of appreciation from the chair to the other members and the audience for their participation in the TDE.

5.1.5.e. The examinee was invited to make a short speech

The chair also gave the examinee an opportunity to make a short speech. In the speech, the examinee thanked all members of the panel, especially their two supervisors, for assisting them in developing their knowledge to complete their thesis and the TDE. The examinee appreciated all the contributions given by their supervisors, and both the supervisors and the examinee were glad because they had achieved the desired results of their previous intensive communication about their research. This process had brought them very close to each other. When this TDE is finished, it means the examinee has finished his/her university study and he/she will say farewell. This activity is similar to that of the Swales’ model.

5.1.5.f. The Panel Chair gave final advice and suggestions to the examinee

As a farewell message, the examiners gave some advice and suggestions to the examinees. These included a range of topic; for example, some examiners gave advice about some improvements for the content of the thesis to make the meaning of the thesis clearer. Others
gave advice regarding the examinee’s future career, such as motivating the examinee to pursue further studies in English-speaking countries.

5.1.5.g. The examinee shook hands with the examiners
The examinees shook hands with all the examiners and as a courtesy to show their appreciation and gratitude for assessing their performance during the TDE. All members were smiling at each other as an indication that they were satisfied.

5.1.5.h. The examinee signed the examination documents
The examinees were asked to sign some examination documents provided by the English department. These were official documents to be archived as evidence that the examinees had been assessed by the examiners through the TDE.

5.2. The TDE of the Negeri Institute
The GS of the TDE conducted at the Negeri Institute was identified from the observation of four examinees’ performances. The examinees are coded as NIE1, NIE2, NIE3 and NIE4. Each of these examinees was tested by four examiners. The researchers observed their entire TDE, and found the following information.

The practice of TDE at this university is somewhat different from the practice at the Nanggroe University, although there are similarities too. The first difference is that it is a faculty affair. Thus it was officially opened by an important person at the faculty level, it was the Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs. This suggests that this institute gave more weight to the TDE than at the Nanggroe University.

However, similar to the TDE practice at the Nanggroe University, the Department also allocated a few sections of the examinee’s thesis to each examiner to be examined. The purpose was to prevent examiners from asking overlapping questions, and thus, save time. Nevertheless, there are more differences. First, at the Negeri Institute each of the examiners sat at a separate table. Thus, each of the examinees was requested to move from one examiner to the other to answer different questions. During the observation, four examiners were in the room, each examining an examinee at the same time. Thus, the room was noisy as four pairs were talking at the same time (See Appendix B for a picture of the seating).

The second difference is that, while at Nanggroe University only one student was examined in a day, at this institute, many examinees were examined on the day, and all of them were gathered in the same room. Only those who had completed their turn were asked to wait outside for the announcement of results until all the examinees have completed their turns.

24
Similar to the TDE of the Nanggroe University, the GS of the TDE at this institute also consists of five segments. These segments are ‘the preliminary’, ‘the opening’, ‘the defence proper’, ‘the in-camera’ and ‘the closing’ segments.

5.2.1. The preliminary segment

In this preliminary segment, only one activity was found, that is an obligatory activity, that is:

5.2.1.a. The examiners, examinees, a secretary, an official (Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs), and audience settled in.

In this preliminary segment, all the attendees were seated in their respective seats. The examiners and a secretary were seated on a stage. The examinees and audience were seated on chairs facing the examiners.

This segment is similar to the GSs found by Grimshaw et al. (1994), Burke (1994), Hasan (1994), and Swales (2004), in which everyone is settled in the same room. But, in this Institute, the number of the attendees were much larger, consisting of the examiners, a secretary, the examinees, the Deputy Dean and the audience. Members of the audience included undergraduate students, guests including parents and relatives of the examinees.

5.2.2. The opening segment

Similar to the second segment at the Nanggroe University, three activities were found in this segment, two of which are obligatory and the other one is optional. They are as below.

5.2.2.a. The Head of the Department greeted and welcomed the audience.

As the host of the TDE, the Head of the Department greeted the audience, making special reference to the Deputy Dean, the examiners, the examinees, and the rest of the audience. He also gives a brief background regarding the TDEs, e.g. the number of examinees, and the like. Finally, he invited the Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs to officially open the TDE.

5.2.2.b. The opening ceremony

The Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs came to the stage. He also greeted and welcomed everyone. He also encouraged the examinees to perform competently, and wished them success. He, then, officially opened the TDE, and closed his speech.

5.2.3. The defence proper segment

This segment was significantly different from the corresponding segment at the Nanggroe University TDE as only two activities were found in this segment. They are as follows.
5.2.3.a. The examiner greeted the examinee

As mentioned earlier, each examinee had to move from one examiner to another as they sat at separate tables, so he/she was examined by one examiner at a time, not by a panel of examiners. In this segment, this study found that only a few examiners greeted their examinees, but the majority of them did not greet their examinees. Maybe, this is a way to maintain the power gap between the examiners and their examinees during this formal event. Consequently, this activity is considered as optional for this segment.

An important difference between the TDE of this Institute and that of the Nanggroe University is that, at this Institute, the examinees were not required to make a research presentation. Ideally, such a presentation should be conducted in this segment to assess the examinees’ competence in their research. According to the TDE secretary, the reason for this was that prior to having the TDEs, the examinees had already conducted their research presentations in front of their respective supervisors to see if they could pass. If they passed, then, the respective supervisors would grant an approval to undertake a TDE. With the approval of the supervisors, the examinees could sit a proper TDE.

This procedure is also different from the four ‘well-known GSs’ where thesis oral presentation is obligatory in the TDE, even though the activity is included in different segments, for example, one researcher includes it in the ‘opening segment’ and the others in the ‘defence proper’ segment.

5.2.3.b. The examiners asked questions according to the thesis sections assigned to them

Since no presentation was required in this defence proper segment, each examiner immediately asked questions to the examinees about the thesis sections already allocated to him/her. Examiner One asked about the discussion in the background of the study. Examiner Two asked about the literature review and commented on the grammar of the sentences and the quotation included in the writing. Examiner Three was asking about research methodology and results. An interesting phenomenon is Examiner Four tested the examinees about their understanding of their thesis content in relation to the Islamic teaching. For example, if the examinee states that education is important, then s/he has to find evidence in the Qur’an which supports or justifies this statement. This requirement to relate the subject matter with Al Quranic verses for support seems to be a unique feature of the TDE of this Institute. This feature is different from the other Islamic University, i.e. Nanggroe University, which requires its students to recite the Holy Al Quran as its unique feature.

5.2.4. The In-camera segment
Three obligatory activities were found in this segment.

5.2.4.a. *The examinee was asked to leave the room*

This activity is not exactly the same as the corresponding activity found in the Nanggroe University (NU) TDE since at the Negeri Institute the waiting time could be much longer than 10 minutes for many examinees, until all other students have completed their TDE, which could be in late afternoon depending on the total number of the examinees for the day.

5.2.4.b. *The secretary collected and calculated the examinees’ scores from the examiners*

This activity is the same as the corresponding activity of the NU TDE, except that the secretary calculated the marks of all the examinees first, and announced them all at once after all of them completed their TDE (See the closing segment below). Another difference is that the secretary calculated the scores away from the TDE room, in her own office before calling the examinees back in.

5.2.4.c. *The examinees were called back in.*

This activity occurred after the last examinee completed the TDE and the secretary were ready to announce the results for the entire examinees. Thus, this activity is the same as the corresponding activity in the Nanggroe University TDE and in the TDE generic structures found in the literature, except that at the Negeri Institute, the waiting time is longer for most of the examinees as they have to wait until all the examinees to complete their TDE.

5.2.5. *Closing segment*

In this segment, two activities were found. They are as follows.

5.2.5.a. *The secretary announced the results of the examinees’ performances.*

This activity is similar to the corresponding activity in the Nanggroe University TDE with an exception that the secretary announced the results of all the examinees at once.

5.2.5.b. *The Head of the English Education Department congratulated all the examinees, gave final advice, and closed the TDE.*

This activity is similar to the corresponding activity in the Nanggroe University TDE except that at this Institute it is much simpler with much less activities. This may be due to the much higher number of examinees taking the TDE on the day, while at Nanggroe University, only one examinee for the day.
5.3. **The TDE of Syiar University**

The GS of the TDE of this university is identified from the observations and analysis of five examinees’ performances. The identities of these examinees are encoded as SUE1, SUE2, SUE3, SUE4 and SUE5. Similar to the TDE at the Negeri Institute (NI), each examinee was examined by 4 examiners, hence the examinee had to move from Examiner 1 to Examiner 4. Each examinee had been informed who their examiners would be prior to the TDE day.

In the TDE of this University, only three segments were found: the preliminary segment, the opening segment and the defence proper segment.

5.3.1. Preliminary segment

The preliminary segment was the first segment of the TDE. In this segment, all members prepared themselves for the TDE. Only one activity was found in this segment and it was obligatory.

5.3.1.a. The examiners, examinees, an official (Head of the English Department) settled in.

This activity is the same as the corresponding activity in the NI. The difference is that at Syiar University only the participants were present. They were the official, the examiners, and the examinees. There was no secretary nor non-participatory audience such as parents and relatives. So, it is a close TDE.

5.3.2. The Opening segment

Unlike the other two TDEs discussed thus far, only three obligatory activities were found in this segment. They are as follows.

5.3.2.a. The opening ceremony

This activity is similar with the corresponding opening ceremony in the other two institutions. It is the same in that it is the official opening of the event. It is the same as the one at Nanggrooe University (NU) in terms of the level of the official who opened it, and the essence of their speeches. In both universities, it was opened by the Head of the English Education Department, and he began with greetings, motivational messages to the examinees, and the declaration that the event was officially opened, and finally he closed his speech.

But, there are four differences between the two TDE practices. The first is unlike the Nanggrooe TDE, there is no ID check at Syiar University. The second difference is at Nanggrooe University only one examinee was examined in one day, while at Syiar University, many students were examined in one day. In terms of the number of examinees examined at a time,
this practice is the same as the corresponding activity in the Negeri Institute i.e. many students were examined at the same time by different examiners. But at this Institute all the examinees remained in the TDE room waiting for their turn, while at Syiar University all students were told to go out to wait for their turn, except the students who were being examined.

Another similarity between Syiar University and the Negeri Institute is that each examiner sat at a separate table, and he/she examined one student at the same time as the other examiners did, creating a very noisy situation (See Appendix D for a map of the seating).

5.3.2.b. *The examinees were asked to leave the room.*

After the TDE is officially opened, all the examinees were asked to leave the room, and each examiner took their respective table, and waited for his/her examinee. This activity seems to be the same as the corresponding activity at the other two universities discussed so far, but there is a difference. It is different from the NU TDE in terms of the purpose; that is the purpose of leaving the room at Syiar University (SU) was to get the examinees to wait for their turn for the TDE, while at NU it was to wait for the result. Another difference was the waiting time. At NU was much shorter (about 10 minutes), at SU, it could be much longer for many students. But, this waiting time was similar to that of the TDE at the Negeri Institute since in both cases the examinees had to wait until all the other examinees have completed their turns.

5.3.2.c. *The examinees were called back in one by one*

The examinees were called back in by an administrative assistant, one by one according to the availability of the examiners, for their respective turn to undertake the TDE. In terms of the purpose, this practice is different from the corresponding ‘call-back in’ in the TDEs of the other two institutions, and in 3 of the 4 ‘Well-known models’, which is to listen to the announcement of the results.

5.3.3. *The Defence proper segment*

Three obligatory activities were found in this segment.

5.3.3.a. *The examiner greeted the examinee*

This segment is the same as the corresponding segment in the NU TDE in that one examinee was examined by one examiner at a time (See Appendix D for the seating layout). In the majority of cases, the examiner greeted the examinee. In this greeting, he/she included some calming words to reduce anxiety in the examinee. For example, the examiners asked about the feelings of the examinees, whether or not they were happy having this examination. This is essentially the same as what the Panel Chair said to the examinees at NU. Similarly, the norm, that it was very rare for the examinees to greet the examiners, was also found at SU.
5.3.3.b. *The examiner asked the examinee to conduct a thesis presentation.*

This activity is similar to the corresponding presentation in the TDE of NU, in that the examinee was asked to give a thesis presentation, including to state the background of the research, the research problems, and the findings, but it was very rare for examinees to mention the procedures used in their research. The difference is at NU the presentation was conducted in front of a panel of examiners, while at SU it was in front of Examiner One only. The rest of the examiners only asked questions.

This activity is also similar to the ‘Well-known’ models, except that at SU it was done in front of one examiner only.

5.3.3.c. *The examiners are free to ask about any part of the thesis.*

Unlike the corresponding activity in the TDE of NU and the NI discussed earlier, the examiners at SU were not restricted to any part of the thesis about which to ask questions. They were free to pick any part(s), which they wished to focus their question(s) on. The questions were commonly related to research problems, the research content/literature review and the research methodology. Basically, the examinee was tested on their knowledge of his/her research topic and research process. The significance of the research was rarely asked.

Since each of the examiners sat at a separate table, some questions asked by different examiners were overlapping. This issue is not found in any of the other three universities. It did not happen at NU and Media University (5.4 below) because the Panel of Examiners sat at the same table, and similarly, it did not happen at the Negeri Institute (NI) because each examiner was restricted to ask questions only about the thesis sections already allocated to him/her. It did not happened in the corresponding activity in the ‘Well-known’ models for the same reason.

5.3.3.d. *The fourth examiner ended the examination.*

One important difference between the TDE practiced at this university and the other two universities discussed earlier is that the result was not announced on the same day, but approximately one month later on the English Education Department’s notice board. This was announced prior to the TDE day and repeated in the opening ceremony. Thus, the ‘in-camera’ and the ‘closing segments’ found in the other three universities and in the ‘Well-known’ model, did not exist at this university. Therefore, only the fourth examiner told the examinee that the examination was finished. The examinee then left the room and could go home. The reason given for this practice was the extremely large number of examinees undertaking the TDE, thus, they needed much more time to decide on the results of all the examinees before announcing them.
5.4. The TDE of Media University

There are also similarities and differences between the TDE practiced at this university and those of the other three institutions discussed earlier, and the four ‘Well-known’ models. One similarity concerns the practice of TDE at NI, but different from those of NU and SU, was this university also gave more weight to the status of TDE, evident by the presence of the Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs to officially open the event. More similarities and differences will be discussed below.

Due to limited opportunity available, only two examinees’ performances in the TDEs could be observed. These examinees are coded as UME1 and UME2. Like the TDE practice at the other institutions, except SU, five segments were found at Media University (MU). They are the preliminary segment, the opening segment, the defence proper segment, the in-camera and, finally, the closing segments.

5.4.1. The preliminary segment

In this preliminary segment, one obligatory activity was found.

5.4.1.a. The examiners, vice dean for academic affairs, a witness, a secretary and examinees settled in.

This activity was similar to the corresponding activity in the TDE of the other three universities. The difference concerns only the composition of the people who were present. The composition is the similar to that of the SU in that both had no non-participant audience (no guests). So, it is also a close TDE. The differences are at MU there were only two examiners, while at NU there were three; however, in the MU TDE there was a witness, who is absent in NU TDE Panel and at the other two institutions (See Appendix C for seating layout of the panel). The witness observed the process of the TDE from the beginning until the end of the event. The importance of this witness is to solve possible problems that may arise after the TDE, for example, if there are complaints among examinees or panel members about the final score.

5.4.2. The opening segment

This segment is generally the same as the corresponding segment in the Negeri Institute (NI), below are the activities.

5.4.2.a. Introductory speech from the head of English Education Department

This activity is the same as the corresponding activity in the NI in that the Head of the English Education Department began with a short speech with greetings, making special reference to the Deputy Dean, and motivation messages for the examinees, and ended his speech with an invitation for the Deputy Dean to officially open the TDE.
5.4.2.b. The Opening ceremony

The opening ceremony is in a form of a speech by the designated official; that is the Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs. In his speech, the Vice Dean greeted all members in the room and welcomed them. Then, he continued with reading the research thesis titles of the examinees. Finally, he officially opened the TDE for the day, wished them success, and closed his speech.

This ceremonial event is not found in the four well-known GSs. For Media University, this ceremony is very important and it is obligatory. This is similar to the corresponding activity in the TDE of the NI.

5.4.3. The Defence proper segment

There are two activities found in this segment, one was obligatory and the other was optional.

5.4.3.a. The examinee is asked to conduct a research presentation

In this defence proper, conducting a research presentation is optional. From the observation, this study found that between two examinees undertaking the TDE event, one of them was asked to do a research presentation, while the other one was not. This makes the difference between the MU TDE and the TDEs of NU and SU, and between it and the four well-known GSs.

5.4.3.b. The examiners ask questions from any parts of the thesis

Examiners at this university asked the examinee questions regarding any part of the thesis content. This rule of asking questions also occurs at the four well-known GSs, where the examiners can ask questions as they wish. The examiners were not given certain allocated thesis sections to ask the examinees as in the TDE of the Negeri Institute and Nanggroe University.

5.4.4. The in-camera segment

There were three obligatory activities found in this segment, while optional activities were not found.

5.4.4. a. The examinee was asked to leave the room

The first obligatory activity of this segment was asking the examinee to leave the TDE room after his/her TDE. When the examinee was outside, it does not mean that the examination has been completed, but he/she was waiting for the results of the TDE to be announced after all the examinees have completed their TDE.
5.4.4. b. The secretary collected the examinee’s score from the examiners and calculated them

The second activity in this segment is calculating scores. The secretary/note taker collected the scores from examiners and calculated them. The total number of the scores is then determined as the examinees’ final score. So, like in the NU and NI TDEs, there was not deliberation to decide the final score, which is different from the practice in the four ‘Well-known models’.

5.4.4.c. The examinees were called back in

Like the practice in the NI TDE, all the examinees were called back in after all the examinees had completed their turns.

5.4.5. Closing segment

Closing segment was the last segment of the TDE at this university. In this segment, the examinees listened to their results announced by The secretary. One obligatory activity was found in this segment.

5.4.5.a. The secretary announced the results of the examinees’ performances

This activity is the same as the corresponding activity in the TDE of the Negeri Institute, where after the examinees had been called back in, the secretary announced the results of all the examinees.

5.4.5.b. The TDE is closed by the Panel Chair.

After the announcement of the results, the Chair congratulated the examinees dan closed the TDE.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

The research problem for this part of the research was to address the scarcity of empirically based information regarding an important academic genre, i.e. TDE at undergraduate level in the literature. To address the problem, this study explored TDE practices at 4 different tertiary institutions in Aceh and North Sumatera Provinces, Indonesia. The question was, “What was the common segments and activities conducted at these universities? Are there similarities and differences? If so, why? Is it possible to draw a common generic structure from the four institutions?”

The findings presented earlier suggest that there are some similarities but more variations are found within the segments. The five basic segments are shared by the three institutions-the Nanggroei University (NU), the Negeri Institute (NI), and the Media University
(MU), while the fourth institution, the Syiar University (SU) only shares the first three of the segments. The similarities and variations are discussed in details below.

6.1 The similarities and variation in Segment 1: The Preliminary

There is one common feature shared by the four institutions. The first common segment was ‘The preliminary segment’. All the TDEs of the four institutions had this segment. All the participants and audience are invited into a room designated for the TDE. But, there are many more variations, than similarity. The first variation concerns the nature of the TDE. Two of the institutions, the NI and SU, adopts a close TDE, which means that only the participants are allowed into the TDE room. The other two, the NU and the MU adopt an open TDE, which means non-participants are allowed into the room as an observing audience. They are lower level undergraduate students and parents or relatives of the examinees.

The second variation the structure and composition of the participants. Two institutions, NU and MU adopt a panel system, and the other two, the NI and the SU adopt non-panel system, where many examiners examine many students at the same times. Even, the institutions which adopt the panel system, have variations too, i.e. different composes of the panels. The NU has three examiners, and one secretary, while the MU has two examiners, one secretary or note taker, and one witness. Apparently they have different emphasis of needs. The NU emphasizes on the need to have three examiners to ensure moderation, while the MU emphasise on the need to have an independent witness in case of a dispute.

The overall purpose seems to be the same, that is to the presence of someone to act as an arbitrator, although the NU focuses on a possible dispute between two examiners, while the other on a possible dispute between the examinees and examiner(s). The other two institutions, the NI and the SU have four different examiners for each examinee, but each examines each examinee separately. Each gives a score, and the scores are calculated by a secretary. Perhaps, having more examiners and making them assess each examinee separately and independently is their way of avoiding a dispute, and ensuring objectivity. The last difference is the presence of a faculty-level official. Two of the institutions, the NI and MU invite Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs, while the other two do not.

6.2 The similarities and variation in Segment 2: The Opening

One common activity which all the institutions share is the opening ceremony. Each university has an official opening, but there are also more variations, than this similarity. The first variation is that in two of the institutions, the opening ceremony was conducted by the Deputy Dean for Academic Affairs, suggesting that these two institutions put more
significance on the TDE compared to the other two, the NU and the SU, where it was opened only by the Head of the English Education Department.

The second variation is after the opening ceremony, two institutions, the NU and the SU TDEs have two different activities. The NU has the checking of ID cards, which is not shared by any of the other institutions. Similarly, the SU also has an activity not shared by any of the other three institutions; that is asking the entire examinees to leave the room and wait for their turns outside. The other two institutions, the NI and the MU, have no activities after the opening ceremony (in this segment).

6.3 The similarities and variation in Segment 3: The Defence Proper

This segment has the highest number of variations, with only one almost complete similarity. The first variation concerns the number of activities. All of the institutions are different: the SU has the highest number of activities namely five, followed by the NU with four, the MU with three, and finally the NI with two activities. The second variation concerns the Islamic specific activity, that is each examinee has to do namely the reciting of some verses of the holy Al Quran, required by the NU, which is not practiced by any of the other institutions. The other Islamic institution, the NI, also has an Islamic specific activity, but it is also not shared by any of the other institutions, that is the requirement to support points of argument with verses of the Al Quran.

The third variation concerns the ways the examination is conducted. There are three variations. Firstly, two institutions, the NI and SU, require the examinees to move from one examiner to another until each of them is examined by four examiners already assigned to him/her, while the other two institutions do not. Secondly, three of the institutions, the NU, the SU, and the MU, require the examinee to present a summary of his/her thesis, while the NI does not. Thirdly, at two of the institutions, the NU and NI, each of the examiners ask questions restricted to part of the thesis already allocated to him/her, while at the other two, the SU and the MU, there is no such restriction.

The fourth variation concerns the ways the announcement of results are made. At the three institutions, the NU, NI, and the MU, the results are announced on the same day, while at the SU, it is made one month later and on the Department’s notice board.

6.4 The similarities and variation in Segment 4: The in-Camera

The literature defines the in-camera segment as the segment when an examinee is asked to leave the examining room after his/her performance, while the team of examiners discuss and decide the outcome of his/her TDE. After a short period of time the examinee is called back in to listen to the outcome. In essence, the practice is found in the four university,
but there many variations too. Firstly, two of the institutions, the NI and the MU, conduct this after calling the examinees back in only after all the examinees have been examined, so the waiting time varies depending on the number of examinees after a student performs. The student who performs at the beginning would have to wait much longer than the student who is examined last. Only one university, the NU, which conducts this segment in the same way as the in the four ‘Well-known model’, where the waiting time is only about 10 minutes. One university, the SU, takes much longer time to announce the results, approximately one month, and there is no call back in as the announcement is posted on the department’s notice board. Thus, there is actually no in-camera segment at this university.

6.5 The similarities and variation in Segment 5: The Closure

Every beginning has an ending, so does essentially the practice of TDE at all of the four institutions. However, there are many variations too. Firstly, the number of activities varies from zero to eight. The SU has no official closure as such since each examinee can go home after he/she being examined by his/her fourth examiner. The NI and the MU have only two activities each, the announcement of the results and the official closure. The NU, however, has eight activities. Secondly, the announcement of the results. At three of the institutions, the NU, NI and MU, the results were announced on the same day, while at the SU they were announced approximately one month later. Similarly, the method of closing the TDE also show variations.

6.6 A common generic structure

Due to the overwhelming number of variations, it is difficult to propose a common generic pattern of the four institutions. To address such difficulty, the level of common practice should be reduced to 75%, which means it is practiced by at least three of the English Education Department of the four institutions. Even so, some non-essential variations have to excluded. The common generic pattern can be proposed as shown in Table 3.

Table 3.
The common generic structure of Thesis Defence Examination in Indonesian Tertiary Institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Segments</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1: The Preliminary Segment</td>
<td>a. The examiners, examinees, an official settle in.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2: The Opening Segment</td>
<td>a. The Head of the English Education Department greets and welcomes the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3: The Defence proper segment

- **a.** The examiner or Panel Chair greets the examinee.
- **b.** The examiner Panel Chair asks the examinee to conduct a thesis presentation.
- **c.** The examiners ask questions.

### 4: The In-camera Segment

- **a.** The examinee(s) is asked to leave the room.
- **b.** The secretary collects the scores from the examiners and calculates them.
- **c.** The examinees are called back in.

### 5: The Closing Segment

- **a.** The secretary announces the result of the examinee’s performance.
- **b.** The Chair of the Panel or the Head of the Department congratulates all the examinees, gives final advice, thanks the examiners and closes the TDE.

### 6.7 Explanation for the variations

Although the TDE practiced at all the institutions do what it is supposed to do according to its name, that is to defend one’s thesis, and the overall segmentation of the activity is similar, there are overwhelming variations within the segments. This suggests the richness of interesting TDE practices in the four institutions. These variations can be explained with the theoretical framework stated earlier, that people of different culture create different formulations of generic patterns. This can be explained further with the definition of culture proposed by Lederach (1995), “… the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them” (p. 9). There are two key elements in this definition namely that ‘shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of people’, and these shared knowledge are the result of the people’s perception, interpretation and in response to realities around them. This means that any set of
people can create knowledge and schemes specific to themselves. The TDE pattern of practice at each institution can be seen as knowledge and schemes created by the ‘set of people’ at that particular university as a result of their perception, interpretation, expression and response to the idea of thesis defence found in the literature and other cultural elements found around them. For example, the NU people perceive and interpret a TDE like what is practiced at the Doctoral level reported in the ‘Well-known models’, therefore they practice the undergraduate TDE very similar to those models, although they still show their own specific local creative elements such as the opening ceremony, asking the examinee to give a speech. On the other hand, each of the other institutions shows more of local creative elements, which lead a TDE practice not only more different from those models, but also different from one another. For example, the two Islamic institutions’ sets of people, interpret their Islamic component differently, one (the NU) by requiring the examinees to show their skills in reciting the Al Quran, while the other (the NI) by requiring them to justify their points of argument with a verse or verses in the Islamic Holy Book. The secular institutions do not practice such activity.

7. Pedagogical implications

The generic structure found at each institution can help its teachers and students understand how TDE is practiced at their respective universities. For its teachers, it can help them design their course contents and objectives so that they can develop the appropriate knowledge and skills necessary to adequately prepare their students to perform well in the TDE. The teachers can also learn from the practices at the other institutions to improve the TDE of their home institution. For students, they should concentrate on the GS of their home university to practice well accordingly, and adequately prepare for their TDE.

The common generic structure proposed above is useful for further research and as a guide for a course designer. For researchers, it gives them an essential framework to design their research project. For a course designer, it gives them the essential elements to develop their own TDE. However, it might not be a fully appropriate guide for students due to the variations found at each institution. This means that the students of each institution should look closely into the TDE practice of their own university.

8. Conclusions

In conclusion, despite the basic similarities, the study shows the richness of variations of the same academic genre largely influenced by local culture. These variations have been unknown in the literature. This study, therefore, has filled the important knowledge and cultural gap. However, as TDE could be found in other universities in Indonesia which have
different sets of people, there may be many other culturally influenced variations awaiting to be discovered before we could call an ‘Indonesian’ generic structure because culturally, Indonesia is one of the most diverse countries in the world. More broadly, there are many countries which also practice TDE around the world, each with a number of universities. Hence, there may be many more important and interesting variations of TDE practices awaiting to be discovered. Thus, undoubtedly more studies are recommended in other universities in Indonesia as well as around the world. Nevertheless, the findings of this study have offered a crucial direction for such a wide research gap. Pedagogically, the study has also provided a useful guide for teachers and students.

Acknowledgement:

The authors would like to thank Kiyomi Yamada and Ruth Nicholls for their support in completing this research, and Sarah Fitriani for providing some input after reading the manuscript. The authors would also like to thank officials from the four selected universities and the examinees who had participated in this research.

References


Appendix A
Activities and Room Layout of the Thesis Defence Examination (TDE) of Nanggroe University
Appendix B

Activities and Room Layout of the Thesis Defence Examination (TDE) of Negeri Institute
Appendix C

Activities and Room Layout of the Thesis Defence Examination (TDE) of Media University
Appendix D
Activities and Room Layout of the Thesis Defence Examination (TDE) of Syiar University
Implementing SBI (Strategies-Based Instruction) in Teaching Speaking Skills

Aco Nasir
Graduate Program in ELT, state University of Malang, East java
haconasir@yahoo.com

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

Keywords: Implementing, SBI, Teaching, Speaking

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

English language is one international language which is taught widely at many countries in the world. There are many residents at various state use English language as communication device in various essential appointments on level international. The data shows about 7,102 languages which is used in the world and English language is one of most widely used in the world after Mandarin and Spanish. (Online) Adopted from Ethnologic, 2014 as (Kosar & Bedir 2014:2) stated that ‘English has become the lingua franca all over the world even though it is not the most spoken language concerning the number of its native speakers. The economic and cultural impact of the USA has paved the way toward the prevailed use of English in various areas of the globe. It has become the medium of technology, and commerce etc., which has channeled lots of people in almost all parts of the world toward engaging into attempts to learn English as a foreign/second language.’”

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

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

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

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

2. Objective of the study

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

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

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

3. Speaking Skill

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

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

4. Strategies-based instruction (SBI)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Procedures

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

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

a. Opening

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

b. Main activity

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

c. Closing

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

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

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

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


6. Conclusion

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

References


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

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

Title

Analysis of the Factors Influencing Students’ Motivation in Learning English

Author

Adinuansah

State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Furry Agustini

State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Adinuansah graduated in 2016 at English Education Department of State University of Makassar, Indonesia. He was general secretary in Student Research Institute of State University of Makassar. He is interested with students’ motivation, teaching method, approaches, and educational research. He can be reached at adnadinuansah24@gmail.com.

Furry Agustini is a student in State University of Makassar. She joins in Research and Community Development of UNM. She has contributed to national and international conference proceedings and published articles in academic journals. Her research interest focuses on language, learning, and teaching. She can be reached at furryharju@gmail.com.

Abstract

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

**Keywords:** *Students’ Motivation, parental encouragement, group dynamics, Teacher.*

**Introduction**

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

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

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

School is one the place that facilitate student to learn English. English is one of the primary subject at senior high school. However, the students of each school needs motivation for increase their ability and skills in English. Based on previous research, students’ at SMAN 8 Makassar have high motivation (Taiyeb, 2012). In other that, the previous observation of the researcher showed that students in SMAN 8 Makassar have a good motivation in learning English, SMAN 8 Makassar have six classes at the second grade with the highest motivation. The external factors that influence students’ motivation in English learning are teacher, parental encouragement, and group dynamics. Students of SMAN 8 Makassar are suitable as the object of this research.
Some of previous research only showed the relation and effect of factors towards the students’ motivation. So that, the researcher was interesting to analyze the most important factors that influence students’ motivation. Educators facilitating English language learning should identify the most important factors that influence students’ motivation then deal with them by developing suitable strategies of English instruction that motivate and can foster favorable attitudes towards learning English as second language. The result of this research will help the others school as the facilitator of English language learning to increase their student motivation.

**Objectives of the Study**

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

**Literature review**

Homola (1972) proposes a definition that: “The word motivation is the common name for all impulses that lead to behaviour, or as the case may be, to certain behaviour.” According to that definition motivation is something that prompts or incites the action. Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2009). Gardner (2010), for instance, reports that joined ability and motivation form a large portion of the discrepancy of success in language learning. Motivation is the most important part in learning process, student needs motivation to lead their behavior in learning process, we can conclude that motivation is supporting factors in student learning process. Another research also found that motivation greatly influence student attitudes towards the learning and language achievement. Attitude has been defined as is the way student think and feel about somebody or something, and the way that student behave towards somebody or something, it can be positive or negative. Similarly, motivation is the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action (MouiliFatiha, 2014).
Griffing (2006) explored motivation in connection with student-teacher relationships, introduces further factors that can influence the students’ motivation. She suggests that high teacher expectations positively influence the students’ motivation as teachers with high expectations have students who are motivated and perform well academically. The students’ perceptions that their teachers care about them also have an effect on their level of academic motivation. Svobodová (2015) find the more specific factors that influence student motivation, there are three external factors that affects the student motivation in learning English. The factors are teacher, parental encouragement, and group dynamics.

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

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

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

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

**Methodology**

*Research Design*

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

*Research Variables*

1. Independent Variables
   a. Teacher
   b. Parental Encouragement
   c. Group Dynamics
2. Dependent variable: Students’ motivation

*Population and Sample*

1. Population

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

2. Sample

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

*Technique of Data Analysis*

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

1. Data description

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

   a) Teacher effects

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

      | Interval      | Frequency | Percentage | Category |
      |---------------|-----------|------------|----------|
      | 36.6 ≤ X      | 27        | 90%        | High     |
      | 23.4 ≤ X < 36.6| 3         | 10%        | Average  |
      | < 68          | 0         | 0          | Low      |
      | Total         | 30        | 100%       |          |

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

   b) Parental encouragement effects

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

**Categorization of parental encouragement effects**

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

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

c) **Group dynamic effect**

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

### Table 4.3

**Categorization of group dynamics effects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$18.3 \leq X$</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$11.7 \leq X &lt; 18.3$</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&lt; 11.7$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data of the table show that 3 students who have group dynamic effects in high category with percentage 10%, 27 students have group dynamics effects in average category with percentage 90%, and no student has parental encouragement effects in low category. Most of the students in SMAN 8 Makassar have group dynamics effects in average category.
Students’ motivation

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

Table 4.4
Categorization of students’ motivation

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

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

2. Analysis of the data

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

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

The researcher has already stated in the previous chapter that this research aims to analyze the influence of the teacher towards the student motivation in learning English process. The researcher used linear regression test to analyze the influence of the teacher towards the student motivation. The results of the test were presented in the following table:
Hypothesis:
H0 = Teacher does not affect student motivation in learning English
H1 = Teacher affect student motivation in learning English

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

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

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

Table 4.7
ANOVA test on regression analysis

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

a. Predictors: (Constant), Parents

b. Dependent Variable: Motivation

Hypothesis:
H0 = Parental encouragement does not affect student motivation in
learning English

H1 = Parental encouragement affect student motivation in learning English

The result of calculation show that the proportion of F count is 1.225 with significance 0.272 > 0.05. It means that H0 is accepted and H1 is rejected. It can be concluded that Parental encouragement does not affect student motivation in learning English.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Conclusion**

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

1. Teacher significantly affects the motivation of the students of SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language.
2. Parental encouragement does not significantly affect the motivation of the students of SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language.
3. Group dynamics does not significantly affect the motivation of the students of SMAN 8 Makassar to learn English language.

4. Teacher is the most important factor that affects the student motivation to learn English language at SMAN 8 Makassar.

References


Title
Students’ Interest Level in Learning English Grammar

Author
Afdaleni
School for Foreign Languages Haji Agus Salim Bukittinggi, West Sumatera
afdaleni_09@yahoo.com

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

Keywords: student, interest level, learning, English grammar

Introduction
English as a foreign language in Indonesia has been learnt by students from elementary school up to university level. The students who want to succeed in learning language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing must study the language components such as vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar as one of the language components. It means that learning English grammar is a must in relation to the success of mastering language skills. In
other words, if the students want to get success in mastering English, they have to be successful in mastering English grammar.

Based on one of the phenomena, it was found that some students got problems in learning English grammar or in other words, some students were not successful in their English grammar. The success of learners in learning language of English is influenced by some factors as stated by Harmer (1991:3) that students who are successful at language learning and others who are not were caused by some psychological factors. One of them is about interest. Without interest, it is assumed that the students will not have motivation in learning grammar and as a result the objective of learning language cannot be obtained successfully. In order that the students can get successful in learning grammar, it is considered that knowing the students’ level of interest in grammar is important. This research is about measuring the level of students’ interest in grammar. After knowing the students’ level of interest in learning grammar, the teacher can do many things to the students related to their interest level to help them successful in their grammar.

Review of Related Theories

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

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

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

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

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

Results and Discussion

In order to know the students’ interest level in learning English grammar, a descriptive research was conducted which was of cross-sectional design. The researcher collected data by using questionnaire on interest in relation to their learning English grammar. Then the analysis of data was descriptive statistics by counting the percentage of the students’ level of interest. The population was the students of English Department at School for Foreign Language whose English Grammar as their compulsory subjects in their curriculum and they have studied the subjects of Grammar I and Grammar II. There were 76 students as the sample size.
The questionnaire was set to know the students’ interest level in learning English grammar. There were five interest levels categorized as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Students’ interest level category

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

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

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

**Conclusion**

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

**Bibliography**


Title
The Development of Contextual-Based Textbook on Morphological Process in Faculty of Teachers Training and Education Batanghari University Jambi

Author
Afif Rofii, Franscy
Students, Language Education Program
Doctorate Program Jakarta State University

Bio-Profile:
Afif Rofii is an education lecturer of Indonesian Language and Literature Faculty of Teachers Training and Education Batanghari University Jambi, and Franscy is an education lecturer of English Language of Teachers Training and Education STKIP PANCA SAKTI Bekasi, Indonesia. They are students of Language Education Program, Doctorate Program, Jakarta State University. They can be reached at afif_rofii@yahoo.com and franscy91@gmail.com

Abstract
The purpose of this research is to describe the development process of contextual-based learning textbook on the subject of morphological process that is valid, practical, and effective in achieving the learning goal of students of Faculty of Teachers Training and Education of Batanghari University. The type of the research is Research and Development/R&D with 4-D research model that starts with defining, designing, and then developing. This research uses quantitative approach. The data type of this research is quantitative data that consist of three types of data which are then validated by expert, data from practitioner’s assessments, and effectiveness data in form of learning results and student’s activities. Research result shows that contextual-based textbook on morphology subject for third semester class C students of Faculty of Teachers Training and Education Batanghari University Jambi that is being developed is valid, practical, and effective. This could be seen in the validity of the textbook with a score of 91,95 which falls into very valid criteria. The practicality of lecturer’s textbook is very practical with a score of 95 and the practicality of student’s textbook is 80,53 which fall into the criteria
of very practical. The effectiveness of the textbook, which consists of student’s learning results have classical average of 75.42 which is qualified as Good (B) and the activities of students got a score of 89.52 with classification very active.

**Affiliation address:** Jl. Rawamangun Muka, Rawamangun, Jakarta Timur, Daerah Khusus Ibukota Jakarta 13220 Indonesia

**Keywords:** learning textbook, contextual-based, morphological process

**Introduction**

An understanding of morphological process is the key factor in the study of linguistics in greater level. Students are expected to master the process of morphology well. This is because in the process of morphology, the process of word formation, word forming tools, classification of words, meanings of words, as well as changes in the sound produced by the morphological process are described. However, this expectation often fall short to the reality in the field. Students often make mistakes in understanding the material of morphological process. This error will not occur if the students are familiar with the proper morphological process. Thus, the material on morphological process should be well understood by the students. It is also expressed by Santoso and Rahayu (2006: 13) who state that the mastery of the students in understanding the changes of word sounds depends on the students' understanding of morphological process.

Based on observations made on one of the tasks given to students in Language Study Program FKIP Unbani Jambi, it is known that the level of understanding of the students in the subject of morphology, particularly regarding morphological process subject, is still relatively low. In other words, the students are mostly not skilled enough in understanding the concept of morphological process. Students often make mistakes in applying the rules of phonemes omission and sound changes. Phonemes which should be omitted and turned into another phoneme, are not omitted and modified by the students. This has a negative impact on the grades obtained by the students in the subject of morphology. Out of the 32 students, only 28% or 9 people met the predetermined KKM FKIP Batanghari University Jambi, with the value of 60.

Based on the result of interviews with faculty lecturers and students, it can be concluded that one of the important issues that occur in the lecturing process of Language Study Program FKIP Unbani Jambi is the limited availability of morphology learning
textbook, especially textbooks that support the learning material of morphological process. Students rely only on handouts and explanations given by lecturers in doing their tasks and exercises. Handout used by the students is unable to motivate them to learn because it does not correspond to their characteristics.

**Literature review**

One step that can be done to solve this learning problem is by providing a textbook that can be used in the lectures. This textbook must be designed according to the characteristics of students in Language Study Program FKIP Unbari. According to Prastowo (2012: 167), textbook is teaching materials made by certain author or team of authors in accordance to a curriculum or an interpretation of a curriculum and use an approach to implement that curriculum. In line with that opinion, Muslich (2010: 50) says that textbook is a book that contains a description of a subject or a field of study, prepared systematically and have been selected based on specific objectives, learning orientation and development of students who are going to be assimilated. Tarin (2009: 13) says that textbook is a textbook of a particular field of study which is the standard book compiled by experts in that particular field for instructional purposes, equipped with well-suited means of teaching which can be easily understood by its users in schools and colleges so that it can support a teaching program.

In connection with this matter, to stimulate the process of engagement and encourage students’ proactivity in the learning process, a textbook that can be used independently by students must be made. Textbooks are expected to facilitate students in understanding the lecture material. Therefore, the presentation of a learning textbook should involve examples that are pretty close to daily life in order to stimulate learners’ will to try or to apply the knowledge they have gained in their real lives. Through that presentation, it is expected for the learners to form the transfer of learning from everything that is learned from the textbook into their real daily life, this means that the learning textbook should be made based on the specific learning approach.

One form of approach that can help students’ understanding is by implementing contextual approach (Contextual Teaching and Learning / CTL) on learning textbook. Johnson (2007: 58) argues that CTL is a teaching system that matches the brain and produces meaning by linking the academic content to the context of the daily life of students. According to Nurhadi (2004: 4), contextual approach is a unit of learning concept, in which the lecturers bring real world situations into the classroom and encourage students to make connections between the knowledge that they possessed and the applications of those knowledge in their
lives as a member of a family and society. The learning process takes place naturally in the form of work and experienced activities, not simply a transfer of knowledge from lecturer to student. Rusman (2012: 103) argues that the Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL) is a concept of learning that helps lecturers create connection between learning material and the real world situation of students and encourage students to create a synergy between the knowledge they possessed and its applications in daily life. Furthermore, Sanjaya (2008: 253) states that contextual learning is a strategy that emphasizes the full involvement of students to enable them to understand their learning material and link these learning materials to their real life situations. This will encourage students to apply those learning materials in their lives.

Thus, it can be said that the contextual learning is a concept that helps lecturers to associate the content of subjects/courses to real world situations and motivate students to make connections between their knowledge and its application in daily life. In application, this approach involves several components of contextual learning. Trianto (2007: 107) puts forward seven CTL components, namely constructivism (constructivism, building, and shaping), inquiry (investigating, finding), questioning, community learning, modelling, reflection (reflection or feedback), authentic assessment.

To implement these seven components, the class needs to have real life situation. This can be realized in several ways, for example, linking the learning material directly with factual condition; giving illustrations or examples; and using media or learning resources that are related to real life experiences, whether directly or indirectly. By presenting real-world situations in learning, students are expected to actively trying to complete their task rather than just waiting for an explanation from their lecturer. Exercises in the learning textbook are expected to train and improve the skill and knowledge of students in the process of grasping the material of morphological process. The stages of discovering the concept do not require them to memorize all of lecture materials, more emphasis are applied on their understanding and discovery of new concepts in their linguistic studies. Based on those descriptions, it can be said that this study is pretty important to do. This study is aimed to describe the development process of contextual-based learning textbook on the subject of morphological process that are valid, practical, and effective to be used in higher educations, especially for students of Language Study Program FKIP Unbari.

Methodology

The type of this research is the development research (Research and Development / R & D). Research and Development is a research method that is used to produce a specific
product and test the effectiveness of that product (Sugiyono, 2012: 407). In this study, the
development was conducted using 4-D model of development (four-D models) proposed by
Thiagarajan et al. (In Trianto, 2010: 93). 4-D model of development consists of four stages:
(1) define, (2) design, (3) develop, and (4) disseminate. In this study, the research is only
conducted up to the develop stage. At the define stage, some requirements are defined and
selected before the learning textbook are developed. Define phase is conducted through three
steps, which are (a) analysis of the curriculum, (b) analysis of the concept, and (c) analysis of
learners. The design phase (design) is aimed to create a learning textbook with contextual-
based approach. Textbooks are prepared in accordance to core competencies, supporting
competencies, and learning indicators. At this design stage, textbook is started to be
designed/developed in accordance to the structure of that textbook, from cover to the list of
reference. The development phase (develop) is aimed to produce language learning textbooks
that can be used in a trial stage. This phase consists of the following. First, the textbook
validation test. Validation is intended to examine the feasibility of the content, language,
presentation, and graphic of the textbooks. Validation of textbooks are conducted by experts of
the field of study that is discussed in that textbook. Suggestions from validators are then used
to correct textbooks that are being developed. Second, textbook practicality test. Once the
book is validated by the textbook validations and declared valid, the next step is to test the
practicality of the textbook. This activity is conducted to determine the ease of use of the
textbook and the efficiency of time when the textbook is being used by lecturers along with
students. Third, textbook effectiveness test. Learning textbook effectiveness can be seen from
the result objective test that is conducted on students. In addition, observation sheets are used
to present the data concerning the learning process and students’ activities. These observation
sheets serve as supporting instrument in the process of gathering data.

The subject of field trials in this study is limited to the third semester students of class
C in Language Study Program FKIP Unbari Jambi. There are 21 students in the class,
consisting of 7 men and 14 women. The resultant data of this study is a quantitative data. The
data is obtained from the result of sheet validation by experts and practicality sheets of
contextual-based learning textbook given to practitioners, lecturers and trial students. In
addition, quantitative data also comes from the results of objective test that is given to the
students on the subject of morphological process and other student observation sheets.

Once the data is collected, the data were analyzed using descriptive statistical analysis
to find out more detailed information from a set of data. Group data in this study can be
divided into validation data sheets, practicality sheets, result of students learning process, and
students activity observation sheet from their use of contextual-based learning textbook. In this study, data analysis is divided into three, namely as follows. First, the analysis of the validity and practicality of the product. The analysis is conducted by analyzing the data from validation sheet questionnaire and practicality sheet. These validation and practicality sheets questionnaire were then analyzed by using Likert scale. The Likert scale requires the respondents to answer a statement with these following answers, Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree. Each answer is associated with a number or score, i.e. SS = 5, S = 4, N = 3, TS = 2, and STS = 1. The analysis of validation and practicality sheets questionnaire are conducted using these following steps: (1) collecting the total score from each validator and practitioner for all indicators; (2) calculating validation score using validity formula proposed by Purwanto (2011: 207), by dividing the obtained score with maximum score multiplied by 100%; and (3) qualifying the validity and practicality score that have been obtained in accordance with criteria that are used to determine the validity and practicality of learning textbook. Second, analysis of product effectiveness data. Students’ result data that are obtained through objective test are then analyzed using these following steps, (1) examining the results of objective tests on the subject of morphological processes that are obtained by students; (2) giving a score based on the number of correct answers obtained by the students; (3) processing the scores obtained by using a formula that is proposed by Purwanto (2011: 207), by dividing the obtained score with maximum score multiplied by 100%; (4) qualifying the data by classifying the data of students’ capabilities using a standard norm Benchmark Reference Rate (PAP) in the form of a scale 5; and (5) calculating the average, this is conducted by using the average formula proposed by Nurgiyantoro (2001: 301), by adding up the scores of all students divided by the total number of students.

In addition, the data obtained by using supporting instrument in form of observation sheets are analyzed with the following steps. First, the calculation of the average frequency of activity observed. This calculation is conducted by dividing the number of activities that were observed with the number of meetings. Second, the calculation of the percentage of students’ activity on each of the aspects that were observed using the activity percentage formula stated by Sudijono (2005: 43), by dividing the frequency of activity with the number of students. Third, the calculation of the average. Calculating the average is conducted by adding percentages of all activities from every aspects divided by the number of aspects observed. Third, the qualification of the average percentage that has been obtained in accordance with the criteria level is used. This is used to determine the success level of students’ learning activities.
Result and Discussion

1. Define Phase

The first phase of this research is the defining stage. At the define stage, the analysis of curriculum, analysis of concept, and analysis of learners are conducted. The following will explain the three stages of the analysis.

a. Curriculum Analysis

In this study, the curriculum that is used as the reference is the curriculum used by Language Study Program Faculty of Teaching and Education Batanghari University Jambi which is Curriculum 2013. Curriculum in Language Study Program FKIP Batanghari University consists of eight semesters, from the first semester to the eighth semester. Subjects contained in this curriculum consist of 59 courses with the total of 150 credits. These courses are divided into two, core courses and institution course. From of those 59 courses, there are 46 core courses and 13 institution courses. Each course in the curriculum also has its own code. The code in question is MKU (general courses), MKDK (basic educational courses), MKBK (expertise courses), MKKPP (learning skill courses), and MKPP (education development courses).

From the analysis has been conducted, it can be seen that the morphology course is located in the third semester with MKBK course code of 11311, with the weight of 3 credits and is a core course in the study program. The purpose of morphology course is to make the students have good understanding of the system and the basic rules of word formation, various classes of words, morphological processes, and problems on the formation of words, as a basis to develop their proficiency. The materials covered in this course include: (a) morpheme definition, morph, allomorph, and morpheme determination procedure; (B) the concepts of basic shapes, basic words, monomorphemic, polymorphemic; (C) categories of words; (D) morphological process; (E) the formation of words outside of morphological process; (F) Morphophonemic; (G) the morphological form and component relationships compounding of nouns and various types of morphological analysis.

b. Concept Analysis

Analysis of the concept is aimed to identify, specify, and formulate the main concepts that will be presented as the material of morphological processes in the textbook. Based on the indicators and learning objectives that have been developed, the main concepts of morphological processes can be determined.

c. Students Analysis
Analysis of learners is aimed to investigate the characteristics of students who are the subject of this study. Analysis of the students also serve as the basis for developing instructional textbooks in accordance with the conditions and characteristics of the students. Students who become the subjects of this study are students in the third semester of Language Study Program Faculty of Teaching and Education Batanghari University Jambi class C.

Student in the third semester of Language Study Program Faculty of Teaching and Education Batanghari University Jambi class C have an age range between 19 to 21 years of age. John (2008: 245) argues that adulthood usually begins at the age of 18 years of age to around 40 years of age and is usually marked by the completion of puberty growth and the maturity of the genitals of the children that enable them to reproduce. Based on these opinions, it can be seen that the third semester students of the Faculty of Education Batanghari University, who have an age range between 19 and 21 years of age, are defined as adults.

Anderson (in Mappiare, 1983: 17), suggests the characteristics of adults as follows. First, adults are task-oriented, not to self or ego. Second, adults have clear objectives with efficient work habits. Third, adults can control personal feelings. Third, adults have an objective nature. Fifth, adults can accept criticism and suggestions. Sixth, adults have the realistic willingness. Seventh, adults will be responsible to their personal tasks. Eighth, adults have a realistic adjustment to new situations.

Furthermore, Pannen and Sadjati (2008: 15) points out the characteristics of adult learning as follows. First, students as an adult can be self-directed in learning. Second, students as an adult have a very rich life experience which is a valuable learning resource. Third, students as an adult tend to be more interested in teaching and learning processes related to the problem-solving and completion of tasks that they faced.

Students of class C, which are the subject of this study, are relatively smart. It can be seen from the average grade obtained by this class. When compared to other classes of the same level, namely class A and B, this class got the highest average score. In addition, the students in this class also have high motivation to learn. Students in this class tend to look happier and more excited when they are given group tasks compared to when they are given individual tasks. Houle (in Pannen and Sadjati: 2005 14) suggests that the motivation of adult learners can be divided into three groups: (a) those who are goal-oriented (goal oriented), they are more concerned with the implementation and utilization of lessons as a mean to achieve certain goals; (B) those who are social activities oriented, they concern more with the
interaction among fellow participants and processes as their learning objectives; (C) those who are more oriented on the learning process itself because they enjoy learning.

All the things that have been described are in accordance with the characteristics of a contextual approach that accommodates the duties of students and involve students in group work to achieve a goal. Besides, contextual approach also needs objective attitude, responsibility, high motivation to learn, openness to criticism and suggestions, utilizations of real experience, and the ability to place or direct their own self in a new situation realistically to solve a problem.

2. Design Stage

The second phase of this study is the design phase of this contextual-based learning textbook. At this stage, compilation process is conducted from the beginning to the end of the learning textbook. The draft of the contextual-based learning textbook in this study consists of, (a) textbook covers, (b) Preview page, (c) foreword, (d) book chart (e) table of contents, (d) textbook usage instructions , (e) Main Competencies (KU), Supporting Competencies (KP), and indicators, (f) learning materials (including: introductory materials, core materials, summaries, exercises, group assignments and additional informations), (g) evaluation, (h) Exercises answer keys and scoring guidelines, (i) bibliography and (j) glossary.

3. Develop Phase

a. Validation of Learning Textbook

In this study, textbooks have been designed are then validated by three experts, two of them are language education lecturers and one is a lecturer of education technology. In this study, the number of aspects that are validated are 4 pieces of aspects, which are the feasibility of the content, language, presentation, and graphic of the textbook. Each aspect is validated by every validator respectively. From the analysis that has been conducted on the expert validation questionnaire, it can be seen that the textbook validation as a whole got an average score of 91.95 which falls into very valid category. The description of the aspects that are validated can be seen in Table 1 below.
Table 1. Validation Results of the Expert Validation Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aspects that are observed</th>
<th>Average Percentage</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Feasibility of content</td>
<td>92,5</td>
<td>Very valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Feasibility of the linguistic</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Very valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Feasibility of the presentation</td>
<td>93,9</td>
<td>Very valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Feasibility of the publishing quality</td>
<td>81,4</td>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The overall validity of the textbook</td>
<td>91,95</td>
<td>Very valid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table 1 above, it can be concluded that this learning textbook that has been developed is categorized as very valid.

b. Learning Textbook Practicality

The trial was conducted on the 7th to 28th of April 2014, with the third semester students of class C from Language Study Program Faculty of Teaching and Education Batanghari University Jambi as the test subjects. Implementation of this trial lasted for three weeks or six sessions. This trial was conducted to determine the practicality and effectiveness of textbooks that has been developed. Practicality test is divided into two, which are practicality for the lecturers and the practicality for the students. The analysis results of the textbook practicality sheets for lecturers can be seen in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Analysis Result of Textbook Practicality for Lecturers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aspect that are assessed</th>
<th>Practicality Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ease of use aspect</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Very Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Time suitability aspect</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Very Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall score</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>Very Practical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table, it can be concluded that the practicality score of this textbook for a lecturer is equal to 95 which falls into very practical category. The analysis results of the textbook practicality sheets for students can be seen in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Analysis Result of Textbook Practicality for Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aspect that are assessed</th>
<th>Practicality Score</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ease of use aspect</td>
<td>83, 09</td>
<td>Very Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Time suitability aspect</td>
<td>77,61</td>
<td>Practical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall score</td>
<td>80,35</td>
<td>Very Practical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the table 3 above, it can be said that the practicality score of this textbook for a student is equal to 80.35 which falls into very practical category. Thus, it can be concluded that the textbook that has been developed can be categorized as very practical.

c. Effectiveness of Learning Textbook

1) Student Learning Results

Based on the analysis of student results, which is an analysis on the objective test scores on the subject of morphological process, some points can be concluded. First, from 21 of the students that were the subject of this study, 13 students got scores which are qualified as Good (B); and 8 students got scores which are qualified as Sufficient (C). Second, the average score that is obtained by 21 students who are the subject of this study is 75.42 which is qualified as Good (B) and is above the KKM that is set by FKIP Unbari which is equal to 60. Thus, it can be said that the percentage of students who managed to complete the subject is 100%. Third, based on the average score that is obtained using classical method, it can be said that the class that is used as the subject of this study managed to complete the subject both in classical style and individually.

2) Student Activity

Activities of students during the study were observed using the observation sheet. In this part of study, there are two observers. One of them is the researcher themselves who are aided by a professor of Linguistics at the Faculty of Education University of Batanghari, Nurul Fitri, SS, M. Hum. In this study, the technique that is used to monitor students’ activity is by dividing the students into two groups. There are 11 students in the first group who were observed by the first observer and the second groups totaling 10 students were observed by the second observer. Observations were conducted at each meeting, starting from the first meeting until the sixth meeting. The observed activity amounted to 12 activities. Based on the analysis of student learning activity observation sheets that last for six sessions, the average value of student activity as a whole is at 98.52 which falls into very active category.

Conclusions

Based on discussions above, some conclusions can be drawn. First, the learning textbook that has been developed is proven to be valid. The development process of contextual-based learning textbook on the subject of morphological process that is valid to be used by lecturers and students is conducted by analysis of the validity data sheets by experts. Based on the analysis result of the validity sheets by experts, it can be concluded that the
validity of the textbook that has been developed is at 91.95, which falls into very valid
category.

Secondly, the textbook that has been developed is proven to be practical. The
development process of contextual-based learning textbook on the subject of morphological
process is practical for use by both lecturers and students. This conclusion is drawn from the
result of analysis that is conducted on the data of practicality sheets for lecturers and students.
The analysis result shows that the practicality scores for the textbook are 95 and 80.35 for
lecturers and students respectively. Both scores fall into very practical category.

Third, the learning textbook that has been developed is proven to be effective. The
development process of contextual-based learning textbook on the subject of morphological
process that is effective for both lecturers and students to use is by conducting analysis on the
learning results and activities data of the students. Based on the analysis on students’ learning
results in Language Study Program FKIP Batanghari University, which is the result of an
objective test on the subject of morphological process, it can be concluded that in the classical
style, the average score of students is 75.14 which is qualified as Good (B). Based on the
analysis of the student activity observation sheets, the value of the activeness is shown to be
89.52 which falls into very active category. Thus, the textbook has been classified as very
effective. This means that the textbook that has been developed can be regarded as a valid
textbook which are both practical and effective and can be used in the morphology course,
especially on the subject of morphological process.

In this study, there are some suggestions that can be expressed. First, the textbook
that has been developed in this study has been proven to be both practical, and effective. Therefore,
it is recommended for the lecturers who are going to teach morphological process subject to
use this textbook in their lectures. Second, a contextual approach is a timely and appropriate
approach to be used in developing textbooks for college learning. It is because this approach is
in accordance with the characteristics of college students who are usually already an adult.
Students in adulthood usually like to work in a team, responsible, open, objective, and
realistic. Therefore, the lecturers who are planning to develop teaching materials, be it
textbooks, modules, worksheet, and others, it is advisable to use contextual approach. Third, to
the students, it is advisable to use the textbook that has been developed in the morphology
lectures. This textbook can be studied independently by following the steps presented in it.
References


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

Author
Afnesha Noveriana Chang
University of Leeds, United Kingdom

Bio-Profile:
Afnesha Noveriana Chang is a master student at the University of Leeds, United Kingdom. She is currently doing her dissertation on Communicative Language Teaching but she is also interested in young learner’s issue. She can be reached at neshachang@yahoo.co.id

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

Keywords: Young learners, learning characteristics, teaching material

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

**Literature Review**

1. **The use of LKS as the main teaching material in primary schools in Indonesia**

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

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

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

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

   a. **The child as active learner**

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

b. The world as offering opportunities for learning

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

c. The child as a social

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

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

e. The learning as chance to explore new things

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

3. What the material should be?

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

Conclusion

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

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

Author
Ahmad Junaidi
The University of Mataram

Bio-Profile:
Ahmad Junaidi is a lecturer at The University of Mataram, Indonesia. His research focus is on English teacher education curriculum development and critical English pedagogy. He is also the founder and director at the Jage Kastare Foundation, a community learning center in Lombok, Indonesia. He can be reached at junayd_ahmad@yahoo.com

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

Gap and Doubts; Relevant Studies

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

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

Findings and Discussions

1. Teaching Staff on the Relevance of the Linguistics-based Courses
According to internal faculty members, this curriculum component is considered to be a significant part of the programme. Theories and principles of linguistics are claimed to be crucial for English teachers’ teaching repertoire.

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

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

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

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

Table 1. Current Trainees and alumni perceptions on the Linguistics-based Course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Courses</th>
<th>Students Perception</th>
<th>Alumni Perception</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction to Linguistics</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Phonology</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Morphology</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Semantics</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>70.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sociolinguistics</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Psycholinguistics</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Second Language Acquisition</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>52.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Discourse Analysis</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>68.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

References
Berry, Roger. 1990. The Role of Language Improvement In service Teacher Training : Killing Two Birds With One Stone. System. 18. 97- 110
Edge, Julian. 1988. Applying Linguistics in English Language Teacher Training for Speakers of Other Language. ELT Journal 42, 3. 9-13
Freeman, D. 1989. Teacher Training, Development, and Decision Making; A Model of Teaching and Related Strategies for Language Teacher Education. TESOL Quarterly. 13 (1). 27-45
Ellis, E. M. 2012. Language awareness and its relevance to TESOL. University of Sydney Papers in TESOL. 5 (7) 1-23.


Title
Developing Teaching Model for Listening Comprehension by using Audio Visual Aids and Metacognitive Strategy

Author
Amaluddin
*Muhammadiyah University of Parepare*

Salasiah A
*Muhammadiyah University of Parepare*

Mardiah
*SMA Negeri 2 Parepare*

Bio-Profiles:

Amaluddin is a senior lecturer at Teacher Training and Education faculty at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. He got his bachelor degree at IKIP Ujungpandang and his master degree at Hasanuddin University. He graduated from University of Malang for his doctorate degree. His research interest is classroom Action Research and teaching media. He can be contacted at amaluddin1965@gmail.com

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

Mardiah is a teacher of English Subject at SMA Negeri 2 Parepare, Indonesia. She got her bachelor degree at English education at Makassar State University in 2001. Now she is a master student of English Education at Muhammadiyah University of Parepare. Her research interests are listening, teaching instruction. She can be contacted at mydsyt@gmail.com
Abstract

Metacognitive strategy has been used in teaching learning process lately including in learning a language. In this study, the modification of metacognitive strategy combined with audio-visual aids was applied in empowering the listening comprehension of the Senior High School students in Parepare, South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. The study focused on developing the model of teaching by expanding the metacognitive strategy with audio-visual aid for listening comprehension. The research method applied was descriptive quantitative design. The population of the research was the tenth year students of SMAN 2 Parepare consisted of 13 classes and 416 students and only one class take as a sample using cluster sampling technique. The data was collected by using questionnaire and analyzed quantitatively. The data result of the study showed significance change of the students’ development in listening comprehension by using audio-visual aids through metacognitive strategy. Besides, the students were interested in learning listening by using this strategy.

Keywords: audio-visual aids, listening comprehension ability, metacognitive strategy, student’s response, teaching model

Introduction

Metacognitive strategy has been applied for teaching in some areas of knowledge including for English language teaching. Some research on the application of this strategy for teaching reading and listening were done as well, such as Holden (2004), Yang (2009), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010), Coskun (2010). These researchers focused their research interest on the application of metecognitive strategy in listening skill. In this study, the changing modification was taken by using audio visual as the tool for teaching listening combined with metacognitive strategy. The basic consideration on taking metacognitive strategy for listening comprehension using audiovisual aids in this study is based on preliminary data taken from informal interview with the teachers of English in SMA 2 Parepare, South Sulawesi, Indonesia who said that their students face problems in listening and comprehending the text via audio aids with general strategy in teaching that is teacher centered. Here, listening as one of important skills in learning a language cannot be taken
aside with other skills as it is mandated to be in for national exam in Indonesia. In listening, students are not only expected to be able to identify main idea, listening for detailed information, predicting and guessing words, but also they are expected to be able to be accustomed to pay attention to the text. However, the above ideal condition is too far from the reality. There is a gap between what the curriculum expects and the real condition. The listening score of the students is still need to be improved as more than 50% of them got score below the government minimal requirement standard.

Facing this problem, the teacher of English must be able to improve students’ motivation to study English better by creating an interesting situation that could make the students actively involved in learning. Several strategies in teaching listening are provided to develop the students’ motivation to pay attention to the items being taught and one of them is metacognitive strategy. In this study metacognitive strategy using audio-visual aids were used to improve the listening comprehension of the students.

According to Brown and Palinear quoted in Wenden and Rubin (1990) metacognitive learning strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of learning while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning after the learning activity. In addition, Oxford (1990) says that metacognitive learning strategies used by the learners to control their own cognition, to coordinate the learning process by using functions such as centering, arranging, planning and evaluating.

**Literature review**

**Previous Research on Metacognitive Strategy and Audio Visual Aids**

Several studies have been carried out in terms of the use of audio-visual aids and the use of metacognitive strategy in teaching listening, e.g. Rammal (2005) who did a research on the use of videotaped material in listening for teaching learning process. He concluded that videotaped material can be a very useful source and asset for the language teaching-learning process because it combines both fun and pedagogic instructions in authentic material that reflect real interaction. By employing videotaped material, teachers can always create an indefinite number of language teaching activities.

Other research on using audio visual aids in listening was also conducted by Fitria (2005) who summarized that the teachers can be easily to reach the teaching goal and deliver the material effectively and efficiently in teaching English using video because they can teach writing, listening, and reading at the same time.
Dealing to the study on metacognitive strategy toward English Language Teaching settings, several researchers such as Holden (2004), Yang (2009), Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010), Coskun (2010) focused their research core on this strategy. The study conducted in 2004 by Holden shows ways in which listeners can use cognitive and metacognitive strategies to facilitate their listening process. In this study, metacognitive awareness was being the basis for a cyclical approach to listening as pre-listening, on-task listening, and post-listening strategies were adopted. The result on the study showed the learners engaged more deeply in the tasks of listening.

Another study conducted by Yang (2009) who found that successful and unsuccessful listeners use different metacognitive strategies. The findings showed successful listeners frequently used direct attention, functional planning, self-management, selective attention, and evaluation. In contrast, unsuccessful listeners regularly applied selective attention and direct attention. The study ended up by recommending the promotion of metacognitive awareness and strategy instruction in the teaching of listening.

Similarly, a study linked to this research was carried out by Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010). This research applied quasi-experimental design with two research groups; an experimental and a control group. The experimental group students listened to texts using a methodology that included metacognitive process such planning, monitoring, evaluating, and problem solving while in the control group, learners were taught the same texts by the same teacher but without any guided attention process. The findings illustrated the significance difference result as the experimental group showed better performance in listening than the control group.

Coskun (2010) did his research on metacognitive strategy application with an experimental and a control group whose participants were beginner level students. After the implementation, the learners took a listening test and revealed that the experimental group did better performance statistically. Therefore, using this strategy should be incorporated into regular listening teaching programs to help learners become more effective listeners.

Based on the previous studies above, it can be concluded that study on audio visual aids for listening and the study on the use of metacognitive strategies have been pioneered by some researchers. In line to my study, the use of metacognitive strategy for listening modified with the use audio visual aids by developing the teaching model. In this study, the basic steps of metacognitive strategy; planning, monitoring, evaluating, and problem solving were modified.
Metacognitive Strategy in Listening

Metacognitive refers to the knowledge we have in our cognitive process. It involves the awareness of having control toward our cognitive process we have that we can explore to improve our knowledge. Metacognitive strategy focuses on establishing one’s metacognition on learning. The definition of metacognition relates to an individual’s awareness, knowledge, and use of the monitoring process of cognitive goals for the purpose of increasing understanding and retention of learning material. In other words, metacognition is the cognition about monitoring and regulating cognitive process.

Metacognition involves “thinking about thinking” such as deciding how to approach a task. Metacognitive strategies engage executive management processes such as planning, monitoring and evaluating. O’Malley and Chamot (1990:137) categorized metacognitive strategy to be: planning, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self-monitoring, problem identification, and self-evaluation. The use of metacognitive strategy in the classroom can change the ways teacher assume and learn that make them become more reflective, independent, practical, and optimistic (Manning, 2008). For general assumption, metacognitive refers to the awareness and control of planning, monitoring, repairing, revising, summarizing, and evaluation.

Even though there is not any specific model of strategy instruction using metacognitive strategy in learning, the model proposed by Vandergrift (2004) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) can be considered to be used. This model has been adopted in this study for teaching listening with little motivation. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) explain about stages of strategy instruction in this model:

Prelistening: Planning/predicting stage

After students have been informed of the topic and text type, they predict the types of information and possible words they may hear materials through the audio-visual aids.

First listen from audio-visual: First verification stage

1) Students verify their initial hypotheses, correct as required, and note additional information understood.
2) Students compare what they have understood/written with peers, modify as required, establish what still needs resolution, and decide on the important details that still require special attention.

Second listen from audio-visual: Second verification stage

1) Students verify points of earlier disagreement, make corrections, and write down additional details understood.
2) Class discussion in which all class members contribute to the reconstruction of the text main points and most pertinent details, interspersed with reflections on how students arrived at the meaning of certain words or parts of the text.

**Third listen from audio-visual: Final verification stage**

6. Students listen specifically for the information revealed in the class discussion which they were not able to decipher earlier.

**Reflection stage**

7. Based on the earlier discussion of strategies used to compensate for what was not understood, students write goals for the next listening activity.

The use of metacognitive strategy in listening is beneficial for teachers as well since the strategy allows them to develop their own particular teaching style and may impact their professional development as stated by Haw-Jew (2014:97). In this study, the teaching instruction for listening was adopted from Vandergrift (2004) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) as shown above, but it was modified to make it fit to the study. The design of teaching model development using metacognitive strategy and audiovisuals can be seen below.

**Teaching model development design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEPS</th>
<th>Time Allocation (minutes)</th>
<th>Vander-Grift Theory</th>
<th>Theory Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Preparation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Teacher searches audio visual material based on curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The material is selected in accordance with the level of knowledge of students, for example, the material was taken from problems related to everyday life.</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Materials are not long and interesting for students.</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Teachers create lesson plan includes: competency standard/ basic competence, indicators, learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
objectives, methods, materials, determine the allocation of time at each stage and assessment.

5. **Pre-listening: Planning/predicting stage (exploration)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity Description</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Completion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teachers mention competency standard, basic competence, and learning objectives.</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher gives apperception by asking questions quiz on the material to be studied. For example, when the theme is about short functional text in the form of advertisements, the students were asked to convey their knowledge / experience of the ads and the types. The initial question was to explore the knowledge that they have, then continued with follow-up questions to discuss the material to be studied.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher gives motivation about the importance of knowing the type of functional text</td>
<td>2’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Learners read and understand written questions about the material to be studied.</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Learners predict as many vocabulary that is likely to arise associated with the material by writing on a worksheet.</td>
<td>10’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Learners predict the information which is likely to arise associated with the material by writing on a worksheet, for example, by writing a sentence or phrase on a worksheet.</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. **First listen from audio-visual: First verification stage (elaboration)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity Description</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Completion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Learners listen to audio-visual display</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Learners check himself vocabulary that has been predicted in accordance with the material. They gave a check mark (V) on the correct vocabulary.</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Learners fix errors and make notes if necessary</td>
<td>2’</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Learners compare the answer with a partner. 5’ √
5. Learners revise if necessary 2’ √
6. Learners determine important matters that still need to get attention. 2’ √

8. Second listen from audio-visual: Second verification stage (elaboration)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learners listen back to the audio-visual display</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learners verify the mismatch of information that appears in the text, improve and add if it is necessary</td>
<td>2’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Third listen from audio-visual: Final verification stage (confirmation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learners listen back a third time audio-visual display</td>
<td>5’’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learners listen carefully to the information that appears on the class discussion that they could not understand before.</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Learners arrive at a final conclusion by making a mutual agreement on the text</td>
<td>2’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Reflection stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>After listening for the third time, each student writes his experiences about what they have learned in connection with the process of listening</td>
<td>5’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learners determine what strategies they might use in the future to improve listening skills</td>
<td>2’</td>
<td>√</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Method of the research**

In this study, the method used was descriptive quantitative study. The study was applied to describe the application of audio visual aids through metacognitive strategy for listening comprehension. In conducting the data, the population taken is the tenth year students of SMA Negeri 2 in academic year 2016/2017, thus cluster random sampling technique was.
applied to take one class to be the sample of the study. The total sample in this study was 34 students.

The research instrument was questionnaire as it is one of the popular instruments for collecting data in education and social research. Questionnaire was applied to see the students’ response on the teaching model and to check the effectiveness of the study toward listening comprehension. The questionnaire contained 20 items dealing to the use of metacognitive strategy and audio visual aids with optional answer are: (1) Strongly agree, (2) Agree, (3) Undecided, (4) Disagree, (5) Strongly disagree. The researcher itemized ten positive statements and ten negative statements. The data collected thus analyzed quantitatively.

Findings and Discussion

The findings were gathered from the questionnaire given at the last meeting of the research. The students were asked to fill the questionnaire based on their experiment during the application of metacognitive strategy with audio visual aids in listening class. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items with 10 positive items and 10 negative items. The themes for the questionnaire were students’ response on the application of metacognitive strategy, the application of audiovisual aids, and the application of metacognitive strategy with audiovisual aids.

The first theme in the questionnaire is about the use of metacognitive strategy for learning listening. The students’ response covered positive and negative response on it. Table 1 as seen below showed kinds of students’ positive response toward the strategy. The total sample (100%) agreed on the first statement that metacognitive strategy provides them more courage to learn listening. The strategy is also make the students more knowledgeable as voiced by 34 students (97.05%). The students felt happy in class of learning with the strategy applied as chosen by 33 out of 34 students (97.05%). Another positive response from the students was they get fun in class of listening when metacognitive strategy applied (97.05%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Positive response</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>More courage to learn</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>More knowledgeable</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>97.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Despite the positive response on the application of metacognitive strategy in listening class showed high percentage, the negative response still occurred with small number as shown in table 2. The variant negative response is lazy, bored, nt brave enough, doubt and unfit. The first negative response is the students get lazy to learn listening using metacognitive strategy (8.82%). Getting bored in learning listening using this strategy is stated by only 3 out of 34 students (8.82%). Another negative response is not brave to express their opinion as stated by 19 students (55.88%). Being doubt on their own weakness in listening is other negative response chosen by students (73.52%) and the strategy is not fit to be applied in learning listening is stated by 3 out of 34 students (8.82%).

Table 2. Students’ negative response on the use of metacognitive strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Negative response</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Getting lazy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Get bored</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Not brave</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>55.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Doubt on own weakness</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>73.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Not fit to listening</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students’ response on the audio visual application for listening is also being the part of questionnaire themes. It covers positive and negative statements about its’ application in the study. The positive response of it can be seen at table 3 below. As seen at the table, the positive response covers the words fun, diligent to learn and be brave. All respondents, 34 students (100%) totally agree on the statement that using audio visual aids for listening make them really fun in learning. Besides, the students become diligent to learn listening (100%) and be brave or be more confident in listening (100%).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Positive response</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Really fun</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Diligent to learn</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Be brave (be confident)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ negative responses on the use of audio visual aids can be seen at table 4 with vary responses. The first negative response is the use of audio visual aids makes them less knowledge as stated by 1 out of 34 students (2.94%). In addition, this audiovisual aids for listening is not fun for 4 respondents (11.76%). Learning listening using audio visual aids make 3 students get bored (8.82%). The last negative response about the use of audio visual aids in listening for students was it is not useful for them (20.5 %).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Negative response</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Less knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Not fun</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Not useful for learning</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last table is the outline of students’ response toward the application of metacognitive strategy using audio visual aids. The students’ response covers positive and negative response as seen in table 5. The positive responses about the use of metacognitive strategy with audio visual aids were more courage to learn, more confident, more knowledgeable, more fun and more enjoyable. Even though students gave affirmative reaction in this strategy, the negative side cannot be aside. Small number of students expressed their reaction in several expressions such as getting lazy to learn, boring, not confident, doubt on their own weakness and the strategy is not fit to be used for listening.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Negative response</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Getting lazy to learn</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Not confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Doubt on their own weakness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The strategy is not fit to be used for listening</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Positive response</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>More courage to learn</td>
<td>Getting lazy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>More confident</td>
<td>Boring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>More knowledgeable</td>
<td>Not confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>More fun</td>
<td>Doubt on weakness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>More enjoyable</td>
<td>Unfit to listening</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

The result of the findings above showed that the tenth year students of SMA Negeri 2 Parepare were mostly interested in learning listening comprehension process by using audio-visual aids through metacognitive strategies. They expressed their interest by giving positive response during the study conducted. There is a small number of students who give negative reaction but most disagree with them as seen at the table in findings.

Furthermore, the strategy used affects the teachers in terms of benefit as the strategy allows them to develop their own particular teaching style and may impact their professional development (Haw-Jew, 2014:97). Other support for teachers deals on the use of metacognitive strategy come from Manning (2008) who stresses the use of metacognitive strategy in the classroom can adjust the ways teacher think and learn that make them being more reflective, independent, practical, and optimistic.

In addition, the listening achievement and students’ interest in learning listening by using audio-visual aids through metacognitive strategies showed that the teaching listening comprehension using the strategy was more effective and useful to develop the students’ achievement as well as the students’ interest. It is in line to the statement by Nurhayati (2006) that interest influences the process and the achievement of the students. If somebody does not have any interest to learn something, then it cannot be expected that he/she will be successful in learning it. On the contrary, if somebody learns something with full interest, then he/she can be expected to get a better result.
Conclusion

Based on the findings and discussion, the researcher puts forward conclusion as follows:

1. The use of audio-visual aids through metacognitive strategies can improve the students’ listening comprehension ability as showed during the study conducted.

2. The use of audio-visual aids through metacognitive strategies in learning English process particularly in listening comprehension was interesting and effective. It was proved by the findings from students answer in questionnaire that the students were categorized as interested.

References


Title

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

Author

Amara Yeoh Jo Ann, Melor Md Yunus & Azlina Abdul Aziz

Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Bioprofiles:

Amara Yeoh Jo Ann is an English teacher in a secondary school in Pahang, Malaysia. She obtained her B.Ed (TESL) from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, (UKM). She can be reached at amarayja27@gmail.com

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

Azlina Abdul Aziz is a lecturer at the Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She received her B.Ed (Hons) in TESOL from Chichester Institute Of Higher Education, UK, her MA in English Linguistics from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia and Ph.D in Teaching of English from Columbia University. Her areas of expertise are TESL, linguistics and teaching of literature. She can be reached at azlina1@ukm.edu.my

Abstract

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

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

**Introduction**

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

Although the integration of the literature component is aimed at improving students’ language proficiency, literature has often been regarded as complex to teach due to challenges like students’ language proficiency and texts readability. Less proficient students tend to give up on the component because the texts are perceived as difficult due to implicit messages and its foreignness against the students’ cultural and geographical background (Rashid, Vethamani, & Rahman, 2010; Rezan, 2005; Subramaniam, Hamdan, & Koo, 2003).
The table below shows the current literature component taught in ESL classrooms across grades. There is no local literature text. The texts are from the UK, US, Africa and Singapore.

Table 1: *The current cycle of the literature component in the English language syllabus*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genres/Grades</th>
<th>Form 1</th>
<th>Form 2</th>
<th>Form 3</th>
<th>Form 4</th>
<th>Form 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Millum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short story</td>
<td>Fair’s Fair - Narinder</td>
<td>Cheat! - Allan Baille</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Leaving - M.G. Vassanji</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dhami</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Tanjung Rhu - MinFong Ho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama</td>
<td></td>
<td>A Night Out - O. Henry</td>
<td></td>
<td>The Right Thing to Do - Martyn Ford</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graphic Novel/Novel</td>
<td>King Arthur - Family</td>
<td>1. Moby Dick - Herman</td>
<td></td>
<td>1. Captain Nobody - Dean Pitchfork</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Swiss Robinson - Johann</td>
<td>Melville - Man</td>
<td>2. The Elephant Man</td>
<td>2. To Sing to the Dawn - Minfong Ho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>David Wyss</td>
<td>- Tim Vicary.</td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Dear Mr Kilmer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20,000 Leagues Under the Sea - Jules Verne</td>
<td>3. We Didn’t Mean to go to Sea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Anna Schraff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Subramaniam et al., (2003) reported that only a small percentage of teachers were confident in teaching the component. Most teachers felt that they needed help in terms of teacher-support and teaching materials. Although experienced teachers were more confident, willing to encourage, challenge and involve students in lessons, many teachers may lack training in teaching literature as many believed in a lack of a standardized methodology for literary interpretation (Abdullah, Zakaria, Ismail, Mansor, & Aziz, 2007; Chakravarthy, Kaur, & A.Pandian, 2009). Ling and Chen, (2016) stated that teachers lack exposure to literature teaching approaches that are student-centred. If trained teachers faced problems teaching literature, trainee teachers may fare even worse as they are new and may lack the proper approaches in teaching literature. Therefore, this paper seeks to examine ESL trainee teachers’:

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

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

**Literature Review**

**Approaches and Activities in Teaching Literature**

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

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

**The Cultural Model**

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

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

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

The Language Model

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

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

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

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

**The Personal Growth Model**

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

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

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

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

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

**Previous Researches**

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

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

Method

Research design

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

Participants

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

Research Instrument

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

Preferable Approaches used in teaching literature

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

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

(Madam Elena)

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

*I used all the three approaches.*

(Mr Saifuddin, Miss Katherine, & Miss Vela)

*I don’t use any specific one because I think I used a mixture of the three approaches*

(Madam Elena)

*I think I used the Language-based Approach.

(Mr Anton)

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

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

*Even though I tend to use one approach, I believe that it is best to combine all the three approaches together because it is important for students to learn content, the language and also have the chance to voice out their own opinion on the literature text. In that way, they can learn more and not only on one aspect...* (Miss Katherine)
Regarding the order in the approaches utilised, Mr Saifuddin answered that his usage of the approaches is ‘random’, while both Miss Vela and Mr Anton mentioned that they ‘mixed’ their approaches.

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

**Preferable Activities used in teaching literature**

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

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

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

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

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

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

*Usually I will use... cue cards, model, and act it out.* (Mr Anton)

Three participants (Miss Vela, Madam Elena and Mr Saifuddin) believed that student-centred activities were better because of active learner engagement, more ‘hands on’, relatable to life experiences and aids memory retention.
...when the activities are student-centred, they can relate it to their experiences... So, it’s like hands on learning. They learn more than you explaining to them. (Madam Elena)

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Factors Influencing Selection of Approaches and Activities**

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

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

...I think the major factor here is the students’ command of English. (Mr Saifuddin)

The first (factor) is student’s proficiency level... (Madam Elena)

...I will look at the students’ level of understanding in English... whether they are beginner, intermediate or advanced. (Mr Anton)
Two participants mentioned ‘lack of ICT facilities’ as a major factor (Miss Vela and Miss Katherine).

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

Another factor is time allocation:

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

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

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

**Confidence Level in Teaching Literature**

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

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

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

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

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

*Not really. Especially for teaching weak students. I will learn along the way.* (Mr Anton)

*Well-trained using the old syllabus but not for the new one* (Miss Vela)

**Discussion**

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

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

Table 2.0 Activities employed by participants and their corresponding approaches

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

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

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

Factors influencing the selection of approaches or activities

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

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

The findings in this research differ from Ling and Chen, (2016) who found that teachers selected their approaches to ensure students’ understand the literary texts and for exam purposes. The reason why preparation for examination was not a factor in this study could be because the participants have only taught for a few months during the teaching practice and was not under pressure to ensure students perform in examinations.
ICT is also one important finding and this could be because the participants are the Y-Generation where ICT is very important and have been pedagogically trained to teach using ICT in the 21st century. Thus, they may find the sudden lack of ICT facilities in schools shocking, causing them to fall back on more traditional methods that utilise pen and paper for teaching. Likewise, Yunus and Suliman, (2014) noted that teachers possess positive attitudes towards the use of ICT in teaching literature but real usage of ICT in classroom did not match the positive attitudes.

Confidence level in teaching literature

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

Implications and Conclusion

Some findings from this research have contradicted the literature reviewed especially in terms of the approaches and activities used in teaching literature. While both in-service and trainee teachers displayed a preference for content-based approaches, trainee teachers utilised a combination of approaches including the language based approach which was often less employed by in-service teachers. The trainee teachers also displayed a preference for student-centred activities in teaching literature while most in-service teachers generally employed teacher-centred activities. Although these comparisons were made, this study is limited.

From this research, it can be identified that ESL trainees possess optimism and the desire to move towards 21st century learning where active learning and student centred activities, facilitated by ICT are very much emphasized. However, as the trainees lack pedagogical training for teaching weak students and require more training for the new literature component, existing Malaysian TESL courses need to be fine-tuned to cater to these two critical needs. In addition, because there is a mismatch between pedagogical training using ICT and the reality of ICT challenges in schools, teacher training should encompass pedagogical training sans ICT or ICT facilities should be improved in Malaysian schools.
As proficiency level is one of most common problems, policy makers should select more local texts to arouse students’ interest and bridge their cultural background to the texts. After all, Malaysia is rich in folklores. As this study is limited, further research may be carried out to glean more information about the differences in ESL trainees’ and teachers’ teaching approaches and cover the gaps between them so that the teaching of literature can be made more effective in the 21st century.

References


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

Author
Aminah
Tadulako University, Central Sulawesi, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Aminah is currently a Ph.D student in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at State University of Makassar, Indonesia. Her main research interests include Developing English Instructional Materials based technology. She can be contacted at amisuriaman@gmail.com.

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

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

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

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

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

Similar research conducted by Lai and Pratt between 2001 and 2004. Their study aimed at investigating teachers’ perceptions of the teaching and learning effects of ICT use in 26 secondary schools. The study results indicated that the integration of ICT in educational practice had a number of positive social and motivational effects on the learners, including increased interest and engagement, and that the social and motivational effects were more frequently observed than cognitive and learning effects. Teachers reported an improvement in the presentation of work, an increased sharing of resources, greater collaboration between students and an increased motivation for learning as a result of greater student engagement. However, the study also revealed a number of negative consequences such as increased
plagiarism and a higher level of distraction (Lai & Pratt, 2007).

The growing use of ICT in foreign language learning has changed the face of language teaching and learning in a beneficial way and will continue to do so along with future technological innovations. ICT and the internet in particular provide language learners with the opportunity to use the language that they are learning in meaningful ways in authentic contexts. The internet provides easy and fast access to current and authentic materials in the target language, which is extremely motivating for the language learner (Kumar & Tammelin, 2008; Erben et al., 2009).

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

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

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

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

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

**Methodology**

**Participant**

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

**Data Collection**

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

Findings and Discussion

Questionnaire for Students:

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

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

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

Table 1, ICT usage was rated higher than textbooks by the students as a source for teaching and learning. This shows that students mostly prefer use ICT than textbooks as a source of information for teaching and learning, though ICT was found costlier than books to get information. This finding is supported by the fact that 81% student response high cost of computer and related ICT information bearing sources are costly. Nonetheless,
students more likely to use ICT (over 80%) since they can search and obtain information quicker, easier, and more convenience. However, dealing with the available source provided by institution, 54% students respond that textbooks are more available than ICT devices. This is reasonable, in fact, only language laboratory provided computers, while non of regular classes have computer provided, lecturers and students have to bring their personal laptop if they required to use in the process of instruction. Similarly, when students are asked which one they enjoy consulting more, textbooks or ICT, majority of the respondents rated textbooks are more enjoyable than ICT. It is understandable based on the reason that access of ICT in classroom is still unavailable.

Table 2 Frequency use of ICT by students.

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

The table above shows that non of students use CD-ROM during a week, only 3% students use it occasionally. It seems that CD-ROM no longer became a favor device for students. Mobile phone, computers and internet access are the highest rate use mostly every day. It is acceptable because having and access those devices become affordable and easier. However, these devices are not provided by institution and internet access is not reachable in classroom. Those signified that students use ICT devices were the highest with a total of 100% which shows that ICT use daily.

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

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

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

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

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

**Questionnaire for Lecturers:**

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Lecturers’ Perception</th>
<th>No. Participant</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I am proficient in the use of common input and output devices</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I can use content-specific tools (e.g., software, simulation, environmental probes, graphing)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This appropriate perception by teachers might be due to the fact that technology integration in classrooms is still only for supporting the instruction, grasps students’ attention, and makes

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I can use technology tools to process data and report results.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I have a strong understanding of the nature and operation of technology systems.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I can choose learning and technology resources</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I can use technology resources to facilitate higher order and complex thinking skills, including problem solving, critical thinking, informed decision-making, knowledge construction, and creativity</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I can troubleshoot common computer problems.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I can use technology in the development of strategies for solving problems in the real world.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I can use technology tools and resources for managing and communicating information (e.g., finances, schedules, addresses, purchases, correspondence).</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I can evaluate and select new information resources and technological innovations based on their appropriateness to specific tasks</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>I can use a variety of media and formats, including telecommunications, to collaborate, publish, and interact with peers, experts, and other audiences.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 6: Teachers’ Perceptions of Obstacles Related to Successful Technology Integration in classroom

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

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

Table 7: Teachers’ Perceptions of their Students’ Usage of Technology in classroom
How do teachers perceive their students’ usage of technology in the classroom?” The results showed that teachers had high perception of students’ usage of technology. They reported high usage of technology for interaction and communication, independent learning, engagement in learning, and understanding of academic subjects. Nevertheless, the high of teachers’ perception on the usage of technology in classroom and language laboratory that
conducted are occasionally. In fact, Tadulako University has not equipped with ICT in every classroom. Regular classroom is only equipped with white board, OHP if required, and personal notebook that brought by students and teachers. It can be concluded that ICTs are not sufficient provided by institution which is controversial with the willingness of students’ usage of technology.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>No. Participants</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Over Head Projector</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Tape Recorder</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Mobile Phone</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Posters</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Printer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Scanner</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To what extent do teachers perceive their usage of technology tools in the classroom?”, Results indicated that teachers use a number of technologies in their classrooms such as computer that using for power point presentation equipped with OHP, tape recorder is used for practice listening skill, and internet used in classroom is only 57%. This is due to unavailable internet access in classroom.

**Conclusion**

Based on the study result shown above, it can be concluded that student and teachers have positive perception towards the integration of ICT in the instructional process. The results revealed that among the basic computer competency sub-divisions, student and teachers indicated competency in general computer operation, word processing, downloading and using basic internet resources.
Some problems facing the development of ICT in Tadulako University include the fact that there is limited infrastructural facilities particularly in EFL classroom, and difficulties in infusing Internet access into the instructional process. The findings underscore the need to provide student-teachers on ICT training with needed hand-on experiences so as to promote effective integration of ICT throughout the curriculum by students and teachers.

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

Acknowledgement

Thanks to The Directorate General of Resources for Science, Technology and Higher Education which has provided the funding in conducting this study. Thank you is addressed to Prof. H. Muh. Asfah Rahman, M.Ed., Ph.D. and Dr. Noni Nurdin, M.Hum. for all effort and guidance and thank you very much for the contribution and supervision of Dr. Jessamine Cooke-Plagwitz as a mentor during attended Sandwich-like or PKPI Program at Northern Illinois University (NIU), USA.

References
technology. UK: Routledge.


Thapaliya, M.P. (2014). English Teachers’ perceptions and practices of Information and


Title
Improving English Speaking Ability through Task-Based Learning Approach

Author
Amrullah
University of Mataram

Bio-Profile:
Amrullah is an English lecture at University of Mataram, Lombok, Indonesia. His research interest includes teaching and learning language. He’s got his Dr. from State University of Jakarta in Language Education. He can be reached at amdahena99@yahoo.com.

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

Keywords: Improving, Speaking, Task Based Learning Approach

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

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

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

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

In related to this study, the writer conducted a study on such approach that is task-based learning approach. This approach is a practical approach in learning that have variety of activities and challenges students to think independently and improve their capabilities. Muller (2006) asserts that teachers are implementing task-based learning approach have increased their confidence because they feel applying this method in a faculty meeting and facilitate a more natural communication to develop the skills of the target language is being learned by the students.
Meanwhile, Nunan (2004) said that there are at least two advantages of task-based learning approach in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). First, this approach provides language learning experience in the classroom, and the second task-based approaches focus on learning to use the language naturally with the task at hand together - in pairs (pair work) and groups (group work).

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

**Methodology**

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

**Findings and Discussion**

The results of student activities during the pre-test can be seen from the results of the analysis as follows. On the number of students counted 30 students in the pre-test: no one student (0.00%) was very good, 2 students (6.66%) were good, 3 students (10.00%) were enough, 2 students (6.66%) were less, and 23 students (76.66%) were very less. As it can be seen in the following chart.
In the following chart below shows that students’ completed score in the pre-test: there were 5 students (16.00%) have been completed and 25 students (83.33%) who have not completed. Students completed score can be seen in the following chart.

The result of students observation activities of the cycle 1 can be seen from the results of the analysis as follows: 3 students (10.00%) were very good, 1 student (3.33%) was good, 2 students (6.66%) were enough, 5 students 16.66%) were less, and 19 students(63.33%)were very less. As it can be seen in the following chart.
In the chart below shows that students completed score in the first cycle: 3 students (10.00%) have been completed and 27 students (90.00%) who have not completed. Students’ completed score can be seen in the following chart.

![Chart 4](chart4.png)

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

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

![Chart 5](chart5.png)

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

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

![Chart 6](chart6.png)

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

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

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

**Discussion**

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

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

References


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

Author
Andi Musafir Rusyaidi
State Islamic Institute of Palopo, South Sulawesi-Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Andi Musafir Rusyaidi is a tenured lecturer at the English Language Teaching Department, Education and Teaching Faculty, State Islamic Institute of Palopo, South Sulawesi. He can be reached at: amrusyaidi@gmail.com

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

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

Introduction
The study aims at developing feedback strategies by incorporating Error Categorization Matrix (ECM) to improve students’ writing skill, help learners to evaluate their
language performances, and to foster their language skills improvement (Underwood & Tredigdo, 2006).

However, scholars still discuss the level of feedbacks suitable to develop writing. Some scholars believe that focusing on content will be much effective to improve students’ writing while others argue feedback on form will contribute more to the writing development (Hyland, 2010).

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

**Error Analysis and Students’ Writing**

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

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

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

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

Findings and Discussions

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

Table 1: Students’ Pre-Test Score

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

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

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

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

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

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

In addition, the post-test average score of 83.63 depicts the positive trend of students’ writing. It means that students learned and acquired knowledge from teaching-learning that applying ECM, especially in recognizing and reducing grammatical errors. The difference between students’ grammatical erroneous in the pre-test and the post-test is substantially large, 161 and 116 respectively. Moreover, although sequences, analysis, and error classification of this study focus on ECM, its findings are in line with other studies on analyzing learners’ writing (for example Chen, 2006; Heydari and Bagheri, 2012).

**Conclusions**

The study examined the effective use of Error Categorization Matrix (ECM) as systematic writing treatments. Based on the finding the researcher concludes that: (1) Errors in
ESL/EFL contexts are unavoidable in learning. (2) The EFL/ESL students’ showed similar error patterns in their writing, especially errors of omission and addition. (3) The use of the Error Analysis method, in this case ECM as a feedback technique effectively contributed to learners’ writing improvement.

References

Book


Journal Article


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

Author
Andrea Rakushin Lee
Konkuk University Glocal Campus, South Korea

Bio-Profile:
Andrea Rakushin Lee is an assistant professor in the International Business Department at Konkuk University Glocal Campus in South Korea. Her research interests include refugee education, interaction in online classes, and the effectiveness of blended learning programs. She can be contacted at andrea1216@kku.ac.kr.

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

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

**Literature review**

**Instructor interaction**

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

**Social constructivism**

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

**Methodology**

**Research questions**

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

Findings and discussion

The instructor is actively involved

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

The instructor is friendly and communication is personalized

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

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

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

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

**Conclusions**

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

Andrew Prosser
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, South Korea

Bio-Profile:
Andrew Prosser is an assistant professor at Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Korea. He has a Master’s degree in Educational Technology and TESOL. His research interests include the formative evaluation of educational hypermedia.

Abstract
The objectives of this research were 1) to identify the metaphors learners independently apply when using educational hypermedia; and 2) identify how consequent expectations affect the learners’ use of these materials. The paper gives an example of a learner whose expectations based on a ‘test’ metaphor appeared to influence their use of specific educational hypermedia. This paper concludes that interface design needs to address metaphors learners employ and associated expectations, so that they exploit such learning resources more fully.

Keywords: metaphors, hypermedia, user-interface design

Introduction
Metaphor has long been a part of user-interface design, a well-known example being the ‘desktop’. That users independently employ metaphors in order to make sense of unfamiliar
computer programs and to grasp the functionality of a program is a phenomenon also long recognised. A disadvantage, though, with this strategy is that such analogies can cause users to make misleading assumptions about content and functionality. In educational technology design, it seems critical to understand this issue if learners are to fully exploit a program for the specific support and functionality it offers. This research involved identifying the metaphors and consequent expectations that Korean university students employed when accessing a hypermedia resource. Connections were drawn between these expectations, identified in a questionnaire, post-task, and learners’ behaviour while using the program. An example of how one learner’s expectations, based upon the metaphor of a ‘test’, seem to have affected their use of the program is given. The paper then offers an example of how interface design may seek to address this issue.

**Literature Review**

Carroll and Rosson (1987, p. 1) see the use of metaphor as a necessary and unavoidable feature of learning, particularly when making sense of unfamiliar computer environments. This tendency, ‘assimilation bias’ (Marra, 1996, p. 124), however, brings with it issues deleterious to new learning. Madsen points out (1994, p. 60) that a metaphor hides as well as reveals, arguing that some program functionality may be by-passed by users. Experienced users of computer programs, moreover, are prone to rely on prior learning, so may miss the different functionality of supposedly ‘known’ features of a new interface (Carroll and Rosson, 1987, p. 10). Moreover, Marra contends (1996, pp. 124-125) that users can adhere to familiar methods, and may be reluctant to integrate new approaches. ‘Assimilation bias’ can thus have an impact on the effectiveness of educational technology, restricting learner patterns of behaviour and determining awareness of functionality.

**Methodology**

The hypermedia developed for this research consisted of a set of videos created with ‘Klynt’ interactive video software. The program interface was new to the learners in this research project, as potentially was its high level of interactivity. The program included video with pop up listening ‘tasks’ (e.g., cloze activities). The user also had the choice to access advice on listening skills, via ‘tip’ activities, encouraging learners to develop existing metacognitive strategies.

Next, possible metaphors a learner might employ to make sense of the program were identified. These were: a video; a test; a lesson; a story; a webpage. The metaphorical
entailments (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, Chapter 2) of each metaphor were brainstormed, and these were divided into entailments that were either relevant or not relevant to recognizing the functionality and content of the program. Entailments were developed into a consequent set of expectations that the learner might have about the program, and sets of predicted behaviour and awareness of program functionality that might follow. Behaviour was categorized as ‘optimal’ or ‘non-optimal’ as it was precipitated by either relevant or non-relevant metaphorical entailments and might negatively or positively affect full exploitation of functionality and content of the hypermedia environment. Finally, the learning implications of each kind of behaviour were predicted. An example of this procedure for the metaphor ‘test’ is given in table 1.

Table 1: Sample of entailments of ‘Test’ metaphor, including predictions of consequent expectations, function awareness, behaviour and associated learning implications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entailment</th>
<th>Consequent User Expectation</th>
<th>Consequent Functionality Awareness</th>
<th>Consequent Behaviour</th>
<th>Learning Implications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relevant</td>
<td>Relevant</td>
<td>‘Task’ pop ups</td>
<td>Optimal</td>
<td>Optimal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Involves tasks.</td>
<td>• Tasks to test listening comprehension.</td>
<td>• Will complete ‘tasks’.</td>
<td>• Will be motivated if successful in ‘tasks’.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-relevant</td>
<td>Non-relevant</td>
<td>Non-awareness</td>
<td>Non-optimal</td>
<td>Non-optimal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Focus on product not process.</td>
<td>• Materials will not include advice.</td>
<td>• ‘Tip’ activities</td>
<td>• Will focus on ‘tasks’ and not ‘tips’.</td>
<td>• Will focus on current ability not improvement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following on from this process, the expectations were developed into statements as part of a five point Likert-scale questionnaire (e.g., ‘I expected to get tasks to test my understanding’) for each metaphor. In the research, participants were given ten minutes with the hypermedia (recorded as screen-capture video). Immediately afterwards, they chose the
metaphor they mainly associated with the program and were given the relevant questionnaire. Subsequently, each of the user’s expectations which were consistent with the metaphor’s possible entailments was isolated. Analysis of the screen capture of learner interaction with the program was then cross-referenced with researcher’s predictions about user behaviour and functional awareness based on these expectations.

The research question was: ‘Is learner behaviour and use of functionality consistent with his/her expectations of the hypermedia based on the particular metaphor he/she employs?’

Participants

Participants were 16 Korean undergraduate students taking a course in English listening and speaking.

Findings

The following analysis of one learner’s interaction begins with a listing of their self-reported expectations consistent with their self-reported metaphor (‘Test’), and a visual representation of that interaction.

Self-Reported Expectations: graded tasks to test listening comprehension, only replay a video to improve score on task, main focus to complete tasks, getting good score in tasks gives sense of achievement.

![Diagram of learner interaction](image)

**Figure 1: Visual representation of example user’s full interaction with program**

A number of this learner’s expectations of this hypermedia are consistent with the metaphor of a ‘test’ and such expectations appear to influence the learner’s behaviour. They prioritise tasks above tip activities, and when a tip page is accessed it is quickly abandoned. Meanwhile, the user makes efforts to complete tasks to improve their grade, involving replaying videos. The prioritisation of task completion also involves them exploiting play button functionality to replay videos.
Discussion

A metaphor may hide as much as highlight certain program functionality and can encourage the learner/user to persist with routines and be resistant to new methods. As in the example analysed, a learner’s apparent focus on ‘testing’ their current skills potentially has the learning implication that they may not seek methods to improve. Moreover, they may be motivated only by ‘test’-like formats, and not by content focussing on study skills.

Carroll and Rosson (1987, pp. 11-14) propose strategies for approaching ‘assimilation bias’, including ‘designing for assimilation’. This involves using interface design to “stimulate direct comparisons between the current situation … and whatever prior knowledge is engaged by the current situation, thereby highlighting key similarities and differences” (1987, p. 13). Such comparisons may lead to enhanced understanding of the program (Carroll & Rosson, 1987, p. 14). To stimulate this process, modifications were made to the interface.

A menu page was added requiring a user who wanted to do a ‘task’ to choose its form (figure 2). This allowed the learner to still follow their preferred method of task taking, while making them aware of the interactivity and choice made available by the program and implicitly giving them training in planning skills, in terms of setting their own objectives. Another modification was to feedback, suggesting the learner access a ‘tip’ activity after completing a ‘task’ activity, and thus making them consider whether they are testing, not improving, current abilities (figure 3).

Figure 2: Task menu
Conclusions

Educational hypermedia should be designed according to the latest principles of good teaching practice. However, it is likely that the expectations of learners, based on analogies derived from previous experiences and uses of technology, mean that they do not always use educational hypermedia in ways that fully exploit the resource’s functionality. Through a process of formative evaluation, the metaphors learners use can be understood, which can then form the basis for redesigning a program interface to start addressing this issue.

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

Author
Anna Riana Suryanti Tambunan, S.S., M.Hum
Universitas Negeri Medan, Indonesia
A Doctorate Student at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Anna Riana Suryanti Tambunan is an English lecturer at Universitas Negeri Medan, Sumatera Utara, Indonesia and is currently a Doctorate student at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia in Bandung, Indonesia. The current research interest is the EFL teachers’ motivation, especially in Indonesian context. She can be reached at ant76tbnn@gmail.com. This research paper was produced with the help of Prof. H. Dr. Fuad Abdul Hamied, MA, Ph.D. and Dr. Wachyu Sundayana (Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia).

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

**Keywords:** teachers’ competence, teachers’ job commitment, teacher’s motivation

**Introduction**

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

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

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

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

**Motivation**

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

**Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory**

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

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

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

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

**Teachers’ Motivation and Job Commitment**

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

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

Thus, individuals in their professions need commitment as a strong foundation in doing their work. It is most agreeable by many authors and researchers that being committed to a job is vital, as it will lead to productive and satisfying work performances.

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

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

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

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

**Methodology**

For research purpose, a sample of 42 teachers was selected from seven public schools and sixteen private schools. The convenience sample was occupied in this study to meet the researcher’s convenient to reach the participants easily.
A quantitative research design was employed in the present study as this approach, by employing a questionnaire survey, as an effective way to determine the relationship between variables (Punch 2007; Bryman 2012). To ensure the anonymity of the informants was also the reason to use this design (Gillham 2000; Johnson & Turner 2003; Neuman 2006).

A Likert-scale questionnaire was employed to measure the participants’ attitudes (Johnson & Turner 2003; Denscombe, 2010). The questionnaire was composed of two sections. The first section included background information about teachers asking respondents about their gender, race, type of school, age, educational background, present assignment and work experience. Of 24 question items of Teachers Job Commitment (TJC) in the second section, which asked respondents to indicate the frequency (i.e., 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-undecided, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree) based on Maslow’s theory which covered the physiological needs, social needs, security needs, self actualization needs and ego/esteem needs.

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

**Findings and Discussion**

The participants in this study were 42 teachers from 26 schools, government and private schools in Binjai district, North Sumatera.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Correlation was conducted to test the relation of motivation as a conceptualization of teachers’ job commitment on teachers’ competence.

Table 1. F-Test (Simultaneously)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1139.209</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1139.209</td>
<td>52.426</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>869.196</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21.730</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2008.405</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Y
b. Dependent Variable: X

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

Table 2. R-square

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.753a</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>4.66153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Y

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

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

Motivational factors of teachers’ job commitment that affect teachers’ competence

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Conclusion**

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

**Acknowledgements**

The author would like to express her sincere thanks to Kemenristek Dikti and Universitas Negeri Medan for their financial support for her studies.
References
Kadzamira, E.C. (2006), Teacher Motivation and Incentives in Malawi, Research Fellow Centre for Educational Research and Training University of Malawi.

Ministry of Education and Culture Rule of Indonesia. (2012). Test of Teachers’ Competence No. 52


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

Author
Arif Husein Lubis
Indonesia University of Education

Bio-Profile:
Arif Husein Lubis obtained his bachelor degree from Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa University (Untirta) in English education. He ever served as an English instructor at the Language Centre of Untirta. His research interests include TESOL, ICT, and corpus linguistics for ELT. He can be reached at husein.lubis07@student.upi.edu/husein.lubis07@yahoo.co.uk.

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

Address: Jl. Dr. Setiabudhi
No. 229, Bandung, 40154,
West Java
from role-based discussion and joint construction in each meeting. Also, the sense of satisfaction upon the writing seems triggered from a regular and detailed preparation before a discussion is initiated.

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

**Introduction**

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

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

1) How does Literature Circles play a role in the composition process performed by thirty fourth-semester undergraduate students majoring English?
2) How are the participants’ responses on LCs regarding their composition process?

**Literature Reviews**

*The Overview of Literature Circles*

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

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

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

*Literature Circles in EFL Classroom Settings*

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

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

**Methodology**

**Research Settings**

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

**Instrument and Data Collecting Technique**

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

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

Findings and Discussion

Literature Circles Implementation

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

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

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

Synopses Exposure

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

Table 1. Exposure of Synopses Linguistic Items

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Participants’ Composition Process Under LCs Framework**

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

**English version**

#circle two : the discussion is easier since the roles have been clear; yes, it’s more specific so it’s easier to find out what to do.

#circle three : in Literature Circles, everything is in detail, there is a structure, as well as specific parts; it eases us in the process of writing.

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

#circle three : can be more detail in writing, and then know the patterns, the structures.

#circle four : it gets me more diligent to read. Also, the writing is more concerned especially the grammar; yes because we write purposively, the activity is more structured.
Responses Toward Literature Circles Facilitation

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

| Circle One | There are roles, so every single person has special responsibility. So, there is no dominant person in the discussion. |
| Circle Two | I prefer this framework. Usually, there are only few ideas from the dominant members, the others do not work. Here, no one is free of work anymore. |

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

| Circle One | For me, it influences the coherence and unity. More on the relationship, the flowing. |
| Circle Five | Influencing. At first, I did not really fond of grammar, and then through shared meaning and collaboration, I can ask and share how to make good sentences. |

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

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

Conclusions

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

References


Coffey, G. (2012). Literacy and technology: integrating technology with small group, peer-led discussions of literature. International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education


Appendix A

Circle Synopsis

Circle Five - The Elephant Man

This short story was based on real situation in the past. Dr. Frederick Treves is a doctor in London Hospital. Someday, when he walked around, he saw a picture in the window of a shop. He was very interested, so he asked the owner to look what is in the picture. The owner took him to the small and dark room at the back of the shop. He smelled a bad thing. He saw a creature sat on the chair. His name is Joseph Merrick looks cold, dark and diary. Also wore old trousers. He has an enormous bag, his skin looks strong and he has an enormous red tooth, like an elephant’s tooth. Even though his body was very ugly, but his left hand was very beautiful like a woman hard. He couldn’t stand up for a long time because the legs was very big and fat. The owner was rude to the creature. Then, Dr. Treves asked the owner to take him to the hospital and the owner allowed him. At seven o'clock, he came to the shop in a cab. He met Mr. Merrick, but he didn't see his face and his body. Dr. Frederick opened the door of the cab, and get out, said good morning to Mr. Merrick. Then he said “elepmyupassteps.” but doctor Frederick don't understand. Dr. Frederick gave him a card with his name on. He think Mr. Merrick can't read. But Mr. Merrick took the card and look it carefully, then he put it in his trousers pocket. Dr.Trever not see Merrick again for two years and give a letter to the editor about Merrick and finally Merrick could live in the hospital. And then Merrick get two rooms at the back of hospital. He began understand and loves many new thing like books, talking to the people, book about love stories he was very happy.

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

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

(word count: 594)

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

Appendix B

Word selection analysis by using AntWordProfiler 1.4

Circle Five - The Elephant Man
INTERVIEW GUIDELINE

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

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

Author
Arjulayana

University of Muhammadiyah Tangerang-Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Arjulayana as an English lecturer at University of Muhammadiyah tangerang-Indonesia. Her research interests is about learners needs regarding to their interest in learning English as a foreign language. She received her master degree from English Education Program. She can be reached at annadharmawan@gmail.com.

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

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

1. Introduction

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

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

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

In influencing students to learn a language, it is advisable for teachers and parents to share important things to their students in regard to their personal needs, because the way learners’ needs are also decided mainly by the teachers, Tran (2007).

Some studies have shown that students needs are close relate to the motivation and teachers ways in the class room. This paper will explain research questions, such as; what is learning EFL, what are non english learners needs in learning EFL, does motivation is a fundamental aspect for students in learning EFL and what are the appropriate ways to be implemented by the teacher to overcome students needs.

2. Theoretical review

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

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

2.1 Learning Reading

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

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

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

2.2 Learning writing

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

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

2.3 Learning Listening

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

2.4 Learning Speaking

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

2.5 Learners needs

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

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

a. Motivation

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

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

b) Extrinsic Motivation

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

3. Research Methodology

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

4. Results and discussion

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

5. Conclusion and suggestion

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

References


Title
A Rasch Model Analysis to Measure the Students’ Narrative Writing Development

Author
Aschawir Ali
STAIN Watampone, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Aschawir Ali is an English Education lecturer at STAIN Watampone, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. His research interests include Academic Writing and EFL. He has a M.Pd. (Magister of Education) in English Education Program from State University of Makassar and currently teaches English Writing. He can reach at aschawir1983@gmail.com

Abstract
Learning to write in another language such as English is one of the most important aspects in college-level English education. Academic writing is a starting point for the students to succeed in an academic encounter, such as in the college education. Regardless of this, the researcher has witnessed the fact that the development of the students’ English narrative writing has been viewed as English material only.

Therefore, this paper presentation primarily studied on the students’ ideas development and their interest of English narrative writing through English images using a Rasch Model. To analysis this issues, a Rasch measurement, will size the data of English narrative writing text and the quality of all instruments and respondents person and items interaction, validity and reliability at the Summary Statistic and Variable Map the person and items of the college on English images in 20 minutes for 150 words and 40 minutes in 250 words. The Rasch measurement is to show that the use English images in developing the students’ English narrative writing activities are reliable and interest model.

Hos Cokroaminoto, St. , No.1, Macanang, Tanete Riattang Barat, Bone Regency, Sulawesi Selatan Province, Zip Code: 92733, Phone: (0481) 21395
**Keywords:** A Rasch Model Analysis, English narrative writing, achievement, interest, and English pictures.

**Introduction**

The use of images of English is a speculation (giving the opportunity to pour their own ideas about what and where), role play, and dramatization (feel the presence of the actors and present in the image and begin to sort an event in the picture), and discussions (make students busy for discussion to obtain ideas of thought which is more stable).

According to Y. Nirmala (2008, p. 66), believes that learners fail to communicate in writing because they are not helped systematically in their language production, compared to the particular order of instruction spontaneously given to the first language acquiring child.

In addition, L. S. Vygotsky (1978) states that writing is a self-regulatory activity, which has to do primarily with knowing and secondarily with communicating. From this, it can be understood that teaching of writing should be done with a lot of guidance, support and care, in order to help learners become independent or self regulated. Therefore, the teacher has to play a crucial role to help learners write on their own. Then Vygotsky (1962), learning contributes as much to development of thinking as thinking contributes as much to the development of learning. Hence, our thoughts are put down in the form of writing, and it again reflects our mental process. Therefore, thinking and writing are closely related to each other.

Thus, the researcher applies the Rasch Model analysis that is not only to know the students’ writing skill development and interest but to analysis the quality of the instruments person and items, and definitely to find out the validity and the reliability of this study.

**Literature review**

One of the experts of writing pointed out five components in writing. They are content (ideas), organization, vocabulary (word choice), language use (sentence fluency), voice, and mechanics (convention) (Jacob et al. cited in Nurfahmi, 2008:29) (Collaborative in Writing Rubrics). Related on the scope of study, the researcher takes all of components of writing as follows: a). Content (Idea): The content of writing should be clear to the readers. b). Organization: writing focuses in coherence, order of important, general to specific (specific to general), chronological order, and spatial pattern. c). Vocabulary (Word Choice): One of requirements of a good writing always depends on the effective use of words. d). Language use (Sentence Fluency): Language use in writing is vital component to determine
whether the writing accurate or not. e). Mechanics (Convention): The use of mechanics is due to capitalization, punctuation, and spelling appropriately. f). Voice: Inserting a personal story to engage reader empathy. Voice is reader-writer connection – that something that makes a reader feel, respond, and want more.

Methodology

In this research, the researcher applied quantitative methodology by using Rasch Model and the design called true experimental (Gay, 2006:254). The experimental class uses English pictures for private college (STKIP Muhammadiyah Bone). The instrument are writing test and questionnaire.

Finding and discussion

It shows that the students’ achievement for private college in 20 minutes for writing on 150 words generally in the use of English pictures (Family Tree and Daily Routine) method in experimental group is categorized (2 or E Score) or Emerging Level. It is same treatment and category of the score in 40 minutes for writing on 250 words. The interest score of respondents generally in the use of English pictures method in experimental group is categorized 25.125 or Strongly Agree (1) category.

Summary statistics gives the information for whole the quality of respondents, instrument quality that is used in interaction of Person and Items (Bamabang Sumintono and Wahyu Widhiarso, 2014, p. 111). The next notifications are starting with:

1. Person Measure = -4.48 logit that show the mean score in Writing Test as the instrument. The mean score more than 0.0 logit definitely show the orientation of the students’ answering about their achievement to be positive or agree in each items. Thus, the fact that they have negative score, it means that it hardly to be agree about the Writing Test as an instrument.

2. Cronbach Alpha means measure the reliability of the interaction Person and Items overall. It got 0.97 that means Very Good interaction there. The levels are < 0.5 means Very Bad; 0.5-0.6 means Bad; 0.6-0.7 means Average; 0.7-0.8 means Good; > 0.8 means Very Good.

3. The Person reliability and the items reliability. The levels are < 0.67 means Weak; 0.67-0.80 means Enough; 0.80-0.90 means Good; 0.91-0.94 means Very Good; > 0.94 means Special. The Person reliability is 0.93 and the items reliability is 0.93. It means all the elements are special things.
4. INFIT MNSQ and OUTFIT MNSQ for the table Person with the blank score or 0.0 score that one of indications is high qualified and it same with INFIT ZSTD and OUTFIT ZSTD close with 0.0 score means same high qualified data.

5. The grouping of Person and Items that also can be known from Separation Score. How bigger the separation score means how high qualified instruments are. It shows that the Separation Strata as a grouping to be more detail: 3.62.

   Therefore, \[ H = \frac{(4 \times \text{SEPARATION}) + 1}{3} \]
   \[ = \frac{(4 \times 3.62) + 1}{3} = \frac{15}{3} = 5 \]

   It means that there are 5 final limitations in the students’ level in narrative writing that has qualified items and at once the persons as the respondents with their capacity to answer the items (the items can differ the respondents group, categorized Good).

**Conclusion**

The use of English pictures method increased the students’ writing skill of fourth semester of STKIP Muhammadiyah Bone. It was proved by the result of writing test that showed in the experimental group of STKIP Muhammadiyah Bone in 20 minutes of 150 words and 40 minutes of 250 words are two \((1.8 = 2)\) and two \((1.9 = 2)\) (Emerging Level).

The use of English pictures as visual material is interesting and applicable to the students of STKIP Muhammadiyah Bone. The output of the instrument of English writing test showed that there was significant qualified, valid, and reliable by using Rasch Model. It means that there is the purity of the instrument as the weapon of the research and the results that have been reached.

Mastering a language, visuals are very important in gaining language knowledge. Pictures help to make the language useful in the classroom, more realistic and alive; it helps maintain the student’s attention and makes the class more interesting.

**References**

Collin, J. *Six Traits Writing Workshop at WNY School Support Center UB Buffalo Public Schools said that The Six Traits Approach to Writing Instruction.*


Title
Online Exams: Benefits and Challenges Faced by Teachers and Learners

Author
Asma Al Aufi
Middle East College, Department of Centre for Foundation Studies, Muscat, Oman

Bio-Profile:
Asma Al Aufi is a senior lecturer at Middle East College. She is a graduate of Masters of Applied Linguistics and TESOL from Newcastle University in 2013. She is currently teaching General Foundation Program and undergraduate courses at the Middle East College, Oman. She can be reached at asma-al-ofi@live.com

Abstract
Many educational institutions are currently implementing electronic exam to support students’ advancement toward educational areas. Nonetheless, in a computer-based assessment, as with any technological uprising, there are difficulties and challenges to overcome, thus the paper focuses specifically on the advantages and disadvantages of online exams and underscores the challenges tutors and learners may face while using the subjected testing modality. The paper is literature-review based since the data gathering consists of a collection of recent researches done in the field of online exams. Since time pressure demands the use of efficient exam tools such as electronic exams instead of traditional paper and pencil exam, the introduction of e-exam may have some potential challenges. However, such challenges can be avoided or solved if tutors and learners become aware of them.

Keywords: ‘online exams’, ‘advantages of e-assessments’, ‘disadvantages of e-assessments’, ‘students’ and teachers’ perspective of e-exams’, and ‘challenges of online exams faced by teachers and learners’.
1. Introduction

“Today students are digital natives and everything else they do in their day-to-day lives is on-screen, so sitting an exam with pen and paper probably feels abnormal” (Burns, 2013). The attention to online assessments is increasing nowadays among different institutions around the world to assess students’ proficiency in English. Elliott (2009) emphasized on education that it is a transformation heavily affected by information and communication technology (ICT). Testing, these days, is adapting to new needs and requirements of digital native as defined by Prensky (2010). Many schools around the world have cooperated with prestigious language training and testing centers to utilize computer and internet assisted exams for their students (AMC, 2012). Recently, many researches raised concerns of whether online exams are a convenient method to be applied among second or foreign language learners. Since e-learning is up to date at this point of teaching, Elliot (2008) stresses the importance of switching the modality of assessments from offline to online, i.e from traditional paper and pencil assessments to electronic/online assessments. Online assessments can be carried out via institutional Learning Management System (LMS) such as blackboard, WebCT and Moodle (Schimdt, ibid, 2011). The e-assessments can be in the form of quizzes, forums, or digital assignments.

1.1 Rationale

Students at Middle East College undergo reading skill midterm and final exams via Moodle from levels 1-3 of the General Foundation Programme (GFP). The 90 minutes e-exam is a combination of questions including multiple choice, true false, fill in the blank and choosing the most appropriate definition for words. Since the shift to online examination modality is recent, the members of faculty of Centre for Foundation Studies (CFS) have raised some concerns on the use of technology and internet for assessments for the foundation learners. These concerns involve practical problems such as technical problems, cheating etc. However, the benefits of this form of assessment cannot be overlooked.

2. Methodology

The paper is a conceptual literature review that could contribute to the research done in the field of online assessments/exams. The data collection of the existing literature was primarily gathered through secondary sources from electronic databases such as ProQuest, EBSCO, and scholarly and peer reviewed journal articles. The selection of articles mainly consisted of up to date researches done on online assessments, its advantages, disadvantages and the challenges tutors and learners may face through it.
Literature Review

2.1 Scope and objectivity of online exams

In the past few decades, in a traditional class setting, more often teachers assessed and evaluated students’ learning progress through paper based exams. It cannot be argued that such traditional evaluation methods seem to be straightforward and easy to implement, however, it may also appear to be time consuming and stressful for learners and teachers (Englander, Fask and Wang, 2014). The incorporation of technology for e-learning and online assessments is a trend that has evolved to replace the traditional methods of teaching, learning and testing. Thus, an adaptation from paper-exam to online-exam has become an inevitable alternative choice of evaluative method for teachers and learners. Recently, literature review has revealed research and studies from several institutions around the world on online assessments, investigating its advantages, disadvantages and whether it is an effective method of evaluation for both instructors and learners.

Research from Alphen-Adria University, Austria, testified the objectivity of online assessments. Online testing increases the objectivity of assessments as it increases the consistency and accuracy of marking, eliminating human error in correction. This is especially effective when assessing larger number of students. Online testing and scoring is also user friendly format for grading analysis. Hewson (2012), found out that online examination modality is advantageous especially in terms of saving money and time, given its automatic delivery, scoring and storage. With immediate scoring upon submission of test, the teacher can gain statistics of students’ test scores, the amount of time they took to complete the test and store the scores.

Also Anakwe (2008) determined that the efficiency of online exams lightened the teaching workload and administration. As a matter of fact, the extra time that the lecturers would have devoted to administration and correction can be used for classroom in-depth discussion, or to promote engagement and reflection on course materials/topics (Hewson, 2012). Frankl and Bitter (2012) indicated that students appreciated the modality of e-assessments as it is environmentally friendly nature (saving paper) and also that their hands were less tired compared when sitting a paper and pen exam.

Furthermore, Frankl and Bitter (2012) also examined whether the standardized questions such as multiple choice, True/False, single choice or matching questions, given online, tested only superficial knowledge. The researchers argued that free text questions could also be designed intelligently to avoid examining surface knowledge or just comprehension. Candidates’ critical thinking and language analytical ability to show in-depth
knowledge can be tested online with correctly designed standardized questions. Having e-tutors, who are specially trained to set up online tests, can do this. For example, the multiple choice questions can be designed in a way that they test students’ high order thinking skills in alignment with Bloom’s higher level of learning (Osln, 2013).

3.2 Advantages and disadvantages of online exams

In addition, online examinations are highly superior in measuring individual functional knowledge and performance. Another advantage of online assessments is that it promotes constructive feedback when learners receive an automated result of their performance. Hence, online exams provide the opportunity for learners to detect their deficiencies to foster learning and improve performance (Marriott, 2009).

Since online assessments provide a fair and valid alternative to pen and paper traditional testing, practitioners should advance in adopting such approach from the various advantages it offers (Hewson, 2012). However, online exams can face challenges and have critical issues in terms of reliability, taking into consideration that this modality is a computer networking technology dependent (2012). Therefore, personalized and technical support should be provided during and throughout the full time of e-examination because problems such as booting procedures and Internet disconnections can occur. Frankl and Bitter (2012) stress the fact that this is necessary since online testing is a new approach for learners to try, and so their anxiety and stress may be high.

Looking beyond the advantages of online exams, Karaman (2011) and Timothy Osln (2013), both researched on online exams constraints. One example is the potential disadvantages of technical difficulties and instability of low-tech students who have negative attitude towards technology and thus perform less. As such, teachers’ inspiration, expertise, supervision and guidance for those learners should play a key role to strengthen the applicability of online English exams. Also, personalized support should be offered. Educators can provide mock exams via online for learners to provide practice for the actual online exam. This will allay students’ fears and minimize their negative attitudes relating to online exams.

3.3 Reliability and validity of online exams

Moreover, the principles and quality of e-assessment including reliability, validity, flexibility and fairness should not differ from the traditional assessments. However, this still remains debatable. As one of the chief concerns of online exams, is cheating, especially when learners are taking same online test but at different times and so they supply answers to each other. Nonetheless, there are many suggestions to prevent such acts of cheating. Since online
assessments are mostly carried out through ‘LMS’ such as blackboard, Moodle, WebCT (Pullen and Cusack, 2007), Oslon (2013) states that applying password to enter the online page of the exam is a secure way to deal with students who are planning to cheat by doing the exam off-campus during the testing period. Log-in password should be given at the commencement of exam. Time limit for completion of exam is an important factor to minimize cheating as well (Biskirk, Ralph and Schimdt, 2011). Other minimal precautions can be applied during the online exam such as configuring the software to allow the student for only one attempt to take the exam. Once the student logs in, the exam cannot be stopped or repeated unless under special cases/exceptions, such as system shutdown, rebooting and failure to save answers upon submission. Also, the software should be created in a way that it will not allow the students to copy the questions, thus preventing them from copying the exam and distributing it (Abiddin, Hassan and Yew, 2014).

Furthermore, a large bank of questions helps in creating different versions of tests. This is by changing questions and/or also scrambling the order of the questions and scrambling the order of answers of each question. So that different questions can appear to different student at a random state. Thus, it will not be possible for the learners to look at their neighbor and try copying the same answer during the test. In addition to that, lockdown browser software is another effective way to prevent the learner from accessing resources available on the internet/computer to cheat during the exam (Oslon, 2013).

It should be noted that the security features of the content management software application cannot deal with all the cheating methods the learners can come up with. Physical precautions should be taken into account. For example, students should hand in their phones before the commencement of online exam. Also, as an important note, the online exams should be proctored i.e in a restricted environment (inside the class) (Oslon, 2013). Having invigilators monitoring students taking the e-exam during the classroom is highly operative to avoid learners’ cheating behavior.

3. Conclusion and implications for further research:

Online testing is a modern technological modality that is environmentally friendly since it reduces paper cost and most importantly, it is used for learners to improve their learning experience (Oslon, 2013). One of the essential factors of online exams is that it reduces unproductive time (grading system) while adding some more valuable time for course instruction and exam preparation. Conducting online exams combined with proctors and tutors present in the classroom increases reliability of the test as it decreases the chances
of students cheating, and thereby, it reduces academic dishonesty (Young, 2012). Although the advantages are substantial, challenges faced by tutors and learners regarding the efficiency of technology might raise an issue. Providing personalized and technical support to use technology for low tech learners is a way to overcome one of the biggest fears they have (Huang and Wang, 2012).

The paper only explores the advantages and disadvantages of online testing by examining overall perspectives of tutors and learners regarding online exams. For future implications, perhaps sustainable data can be collected through measuring learners’ performance via two exam modalities, online versus the traditional method. A comparison of test scores can be obtained to study the efficacy of online exams in facilitating learning. For Middle East College (MEC), Centre for Foundation (CFS) department, reading skills which is tested online via Moodle can be the core subject to investigate the advantages of online exams over paper-based reading exams. This is while being prepared for the challenges those learners and teachers might face when going through the process of online testing. Since the spread of online exams is vast, educators need to be prepared, because students will shortly be expecting the exams to be delivered exclusively online, as the online examination will be considered an important feature in testing in future academia (Osln, 2013).

References


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

Author
Beheshteh Shakhshi Dastgahian
PhD Candidate, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran
b.dastgahian@yahoo.com

Behzad Ghonsooly (Corresponding Author)
Professor in Applied Linguistics, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran
ghonsooly@um.ac.ir

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

**Keywords:** Directed motivational current, language achievement, religious texts, spiritual vocabularies

1. **Introduction**

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

1.1. **The Concept of Directed Motivational Currents**

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

1.2. The Directed Motivational Currents in Learning

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

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

1.3. Seeking Motivation in the Religious Texts

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.3. Procedure

2.3.1. Pre-Test

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

One week after administering the pre-test, the researcher in charge, the English teacher, began teaching spiritual vocabularies and interviewing students simultaneously. The interview conducted in this study was a group interview, since the researchers were going to stimulate students in group discussions through religious questions. This kind of interviewing put specifically valuable insight on the group dynamicity while engaging them in their group interactions more efficiently (Frey & Fontana, 1991).

In order to explore to what extent introducing and elaborating religious texts might change the results of the post-test, the researchers decided to provide some religious texts based on what students had studied in their Theology course. To this end, the researchers managed a meeting with students' Theology teachers and consulted with them about selecting appropriate religious texts consisting of more simple spiritual vocabularies. According to what Theology teachers proposed, as well as based on spiritual vocabularies the researchers found in the English texts, the selected religious texts were in the form of some verses from the *Holy Quran* or some *Hadith Narrations* from the Prophet Mohammad (peace be upon him). These texts were written on the board by the English teacher and were elaborated and taught by her. Following this, students were asked to discuss every point they apprehended from these texts in English. As the religious texts were not as easy as other texts to be understood or guessed, when the English teacher found students unable to discuss completely the texts in English, she allowed them to represent their comments on the texts in their mother tongue, Persian. The religious texts were discussed in 9 sessions, each about 20 to 30 minutes. When the students had a problem in understanding some new English spiritual vocabularies, the teacher tried to use the synonyms or antonyms for the words so that she would make her students be more active in guessing the meanings of new vocabularies. In the process of teaching and interviewing, the teacher recorded all comments given by students for future transcription.

2.3.3. The Post-Test

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

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

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

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

3. Result and Discussion

3.1. The Quantitative Section

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

Descriptive statistics for the study group in pretest and posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>pretest</th>
<th>posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.65</td>
<td>17.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>17.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Bound</td>
<td>13.61</td>
<td>17.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% Trimmed Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>18.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>-.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Allowing for visual inspection of distribution in the pre-test and post-test conditions in the search for outliers, the boxplots, as tabulated through Figure 1, showed no outliers.
Moreover, this graphic representation showed a dissimilar pattern of scores for the group in pre and post-treatment assessment with a higher median (Md=18), as well as scores distribution for the post-test condition.

![Figure 1. Boxplots for the group’s pre and post treatment assessments](image)

To capture the possible effects of working with spiritual vocabularies and religious texts according to the rules of DMCs, a paired-samples t-test was used. As displayed in Table 2, there was a statistically significant increase in the scores on the study measure from the pre-test (\(\bar{x} = 13.65, SD = 1.85\)) to the post-test assessment (\(\bar{x} = 17.68, SD = 1.46\)), \(t (62) = -18.11, p < .001\) (two-tailed). The mean increase in performance scores was -4.03 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -4.47 to -3.58. The eta squared statistics turned out to be high (.84), indicating a large effect size, with a substantial difference in the performance before and after the intervention.

**Table 2**  
*Results of paired samples t test for the study group*

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

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

Correlation between scores in pre and post assessments of the group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>.456</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Also, the paired t-test conducted in regard with the kind of the texts (documentary and religious), indicated the higher scores after teaching ($SD = .54$, $M = 9.65$) compared to the scores before teaching ($SD = .70$, $M = 8.89$), for documentary texts $t(62) = -8.85$, $p < .001$, Cohen’s $d = -1.03$. For the religious texts, the higher scores after teaching ($SD = 1.40$, $M = 8.03$), were significant compared to the scores before teaching ($SD = 1.27$, $M = 4.76$), $t(62) = -17.01$, $p < .001$, Cohen’s $d = -2.45$. 
Figure 2. Linear plot of interaction effect between text type and teaching

3.2. The Qualitative Section

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

Table 4

*Obtained themes relating to participants' interview*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Although the speed of reading is believed to be a verbal ability (Blachman, 1984; Bowers, 1995; Bowers & Swanson, 1991; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987), the speed of reading a foreign language text is not as fast as a native one, and since students resort to any kind of strategies to get the meaning of new vocabularies, finding a general meaning help them to comprehend the content more efficiently (Nation, 2009). So, considering the second theme, deducing a general meaning of the texts, the researchers concluded that the texts seem more valuable when students extract a whole meaning in one glance. So, what students represented in this regard was:
Sometimes we use a particular comprehension strategy in order to take us to the right destination more quickly. When we deduce a general meaning while scanning the text, it seems that we put a special value on it and we are encouraged to answer its related questions more thoroughly.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4. Conclusion

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

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

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

References


231


Title
Learning Conditions for Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in L1 and L2

Author
Boniesta Z Melani
University of Mataram, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Boniesta Z Melani is a lecturer of English at the University of Mataram, Indonesia. Her research interests include English Language Teaching and Second Language Vocabulary Learning. She has an M.A. in TESOL Studies from the University of Queensland, and currently teaches Second Language Acquisition and Language Testing. She can be reached at bonista22@yahoo.com

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

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

Jalan Majapahit No. 12 Mataram, Lombok-Indonesia
**Introduction**

Second language vocabulary is often acquired incidentally as learners read or listen to the target language. Many studies confirm that language learners learn words as they engage in extensive reading and listening (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Jenkins, Stein & Wysocki, 1984; Shu, Anderson & Zhang, 1995; Horst, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Lehmann, 2007; Brown, Waring & Donkaewbua, 2008; Kweon & Kim, 2008; Webb, 2008; Gitsaki & Melani, 2013). This paper examines several studies investigating incidental vocabulary learning in learning first and second language. It will first look at incidental language learning in general and incidental vocabulary learning in particular, comparing the different terminologies of incidental and intentional learning based on the learning condition. It will then focus on incidental vocabulary learning in the acquisition of first language (L1) and second language (L2), through reading and listening, evaluating the learning conditions prone to incidental word acquisition in both learning contexts.

**Intentional Learning and Incidental Learning**

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

In light of the basic concept of incidental and intentional learning in the psychological domain, the terms incidental learning versus intentional learning in second language acquisition (SLA) research are traditionally associated to acquisition versus learning (Krashen, 1981), or implicit versus explicit learning (Bialystok, 1978; Ellis, 1990) respectively. Krashen (1981) asserts through his acquisition-learning hypothesis that adults have two distinct ways of developing competence in a second language. These two ways are through acquisition, a subconscious process, similar to the process of children mastering their first language, and through the conscious process of learning. Thus, acquisition is assumed as a subconscious process, whilst learning is a conscious process that usually occurs in a formal learning environment and it is typical of settings where English is learned as a foreign language.
From a slightly different perspective, Bialystok (1978) describes the notion of explicit learning and implicit learning in the way in which information is stored in the brain and is used in production. According to Bialystok (1978), explicit learning is a conscious process of information admission as well as the ability to articulate it. The information may include some grammar rules, some vocabulary items, pronunciation rules, and so on. Conversely, implicit learning is an intuitive process of getting information that language learners operate in order to produce responses (comprehension or production) in the target language spontaneously. Again, the information may contain grammar rules, vocabulary and so on.

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

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

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

**Incidental Vocabulary Learning**

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

**Incidental Vocabulary Learning in First Language (L1) Acquisition**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

To search for more evidence for incidental vocabulary learning, it is inadequate to see it only from the perspective of first language acquisition. It is therefore necessary to extend the discussion by also examining this phenomenon from the field of second language acquisition, to see whether there are similarities or perhaps different learning conditions between the two.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Summary**

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

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


