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

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Abstract
‘Who We Are’ is a project which aims to familiarize rural students with English language by requiring them to create a graphic narrative about any unpublished folklore of their respective community in English language and consequently present them using various social media. The project is in line with the characteristics of 21st century learning as it promotes collaborative learning, integrates technological material and develops students’ creative and critical thinking skills. Thus, this study aims to explore the use of ‘Who We Are’ to enhance rural students’ English as A Second Language (ESL) learning through a case study. 24 Form 4 (16 years old) students from a rural secondary school in Dalat, Sarawak
were selected to participate in this study through a purposive sampling technique. The participants’ feedbacks regarding the helpfulness of the project were collected through an open-ended questionnaire and the researcher’s field note. The findings indicated that ‘Who We Are’ is an effective tool in improving the students’ ESL learning. The students’ interest in learning English language and their English reading, writing, listening and speaking skills have been enhanced. The findings of the study are hoped to provide rural school teachers with insights into the benefits of using graphic narrative in English language classroom in order to go in line with current Malaysia Education Blueprint which greatly emphasizes the use of English language among students.

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

**Introduction**

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

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

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

In order to effectively enhance rural students’ ESL learning, the need to enhance their interest in learning English language should be given a considerable amount of attention and priority. It is believed that graphic novels or comics do not only provide engaging learning
experience and improve essential language skills like writing and reading skills, but it also can enhance students’ interest in learning English (Sofi, 2015). Similarly, ‘Who We Are’ is a project which requires the participants to create a graphic narrative or comics about any unpublished folklore of their respective community in English language and consequently present or publish them using various social media. This case study was carried out to explore the use of ‘Who We Are’ in enhancing rural students’ ESL learning. Hence, the study seeks to examine the following research questions:

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

**Literature Review**

**Sociocultural Theory**

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

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

**The Roles of Comics in ESL Classrooms**

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

**The Roles of Graphics and Visual Aids in ESL Classrooms**

The incorporation of graphics with linguistic devices would enable readers to reconstruct their post-reading knowledge and express it in a second language. A study carried out by Mathew and Alidmat (2013) also revealed that majority of the students (73.3%) found the need of integrating visual aids in ESL classroom as they can help to ease their understanding of certain texts or words that are hard to be explained by teachers. Images or pictures that a student views on the screen can be easily comprehended and
remembered by them compared to descriptive reading materials. Pillai and Vengadasamy (2010) also revealed in their study that graphics, illustrations, pictures, audio, and video are useful and effective tools in enhancing students’ understanding of the literary concepts in the texts. Furthermore, graphics and visual aids are also able to arouse students’ interests in learning the target language. This is evidenced by a study carried out by Yunus, Hadi and Dexter (2013) which revealed that 96.2% of the teachers demonstrated positive attitudes towards using visual aids as motivational tools to enhance students’ interest in reading.

**Methodology**

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

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

**Findings and discussion**

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

1. Enhancement of interest in learning English
2. Enhancement of English reading skills
3. Enhancement of English writing skills
4. Enhancement of English speaking skills
5. Enhancement of English listening skills

**Enhancement of interest in learning English**

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

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

**Enhancement of English reading skills**

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

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

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

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

Enhancement of English speaking skills

The participants (95.83%) also responded positively to the use of this project to enhance their speaking skills. Their speaking skills have also been greatly enhanced by participating in group discussion. They have learnt the skills of expressing ideas clearly, negotiating with confidence and exchanging ideas with courtesy. These are evidenced by the responses given by RS16 and RS21: “I learn how to exchange ideas with others with confidence” and “I learn how to discuss in groups.”
Based on the researcher’s field note, the participants had developed more confidence in their speaking. Their voice projection was clear and audibly loud despite the fact that there were still some grammatical errors and mispronunciation of certain English words in their video presentations. Furthermore, they were able to clearly narrate the storyline of their graphic narrative compared to their previous draft presentation whereby there were still uncertainties in the narration of their storyline. This is in line with Nugroho (2011) who stated that comic strips can effectively enhance the students’ speaking skill in telling a recount text. Besides, they were able to speak more fluently in the video presentations when being compared to their previous oral presentation where fluency was not noticeable.

Enhancement of English listening skills

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

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

Conclusion

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

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

References


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

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Abstract

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

**Introduction**

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

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

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

**Literature Review**

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

Spelling-to-sound is introduced in order to analyze the phenomena in phonology. The difficulty of pair of words with similar spelling and different pronunciations is consistent with the view that phonological recoding takes place in part via spelling-sound rules (Treiman, 1983).
These two theories support the phenomena that one sound can influence another sound when the spelling is similar. However, the influence can be inconsistent as it depends on the relative consistency of the pronunciation and the letter patterns in the words. In this paper, not only the sound does influence another sound, but also a single sound as phoneme influences another sound that is part of the words. The example shows that the word mine [aI] should not influence the word examine since this word pronounces as [ig’zæm.In].

Methodology

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

Respondents

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

Materials

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

Procedures

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

Table 1. The participants’ incorrect pronunciation

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<td>Preface</td>
<td>/ˈprefəs/</td>
<td>/prifəs/</td>
<td>Face</td>
<td>85 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cowardice</td>
<td>/ˈkɔədɪs/</td>
<td>/ˈkɔədɪs/</td>
<td>Dice</td>
<td>80 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caprice</td>
<td>/kəˈpriːs/</td>
<td>/kəˈpraɪs/</td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>75 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designate</td>
<td>/ˈdez.ɪɡ.ənət/</td>
<td>/ˈdɜːznət/</td>
<td>Design</td>
<td>65 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface</td>
<td>/ˈsɜːrˈfɑːs/</td>
<td>/ˈsɜːrfəs/</td>
<td>Face</td>
<td>65 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opposite</td>
<td>/ˈɑpəˈzɪt/</td>
<td>/ˈɑpəˈzət/</td>
<td>Site</td>
<td>41 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novice</td>
<td>/ˈnɑvəs/</td>
<td>/ˈnævəs/</td>
<td>Vice</td>
<td>35 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Study’s feedback

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

Answer 1: I pronounced “preface” similar to “face” because I think they have similar sound.

Answer 2: I pronounced that words similar to the single words because I think they have I think there was no difference between both words so I think I don’t need to check dictionary.
From those findings, the study could provide feedback for the students. The error rank interview data indicated that they tended to overgeneralize, simplify and fossilize the spelling-to-sound words. For instance, answer 1 and 2 indicated that they tended to overgeneralize the rule of those spelling-to-sound words. It means that the students need to be self-corrected learners. They need to check the dictionary because there are various phonological rules in English language.

Conclusions

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

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Lee, Chia-Ying. “Rethinking of the Regularity and Consistency Effects in Reading.”
Title
Developing Islamic English Reading Course Syllabus: Preserving Islamic Ideology and Strengthening Students’ Language Proficiency

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

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

**Introduction**

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

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

**Literature review**

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

This research position as between ESP and EGP also affects the way the syllabus is developed. As in language courses, the content of a syllabus can be divided into linguistic and subject matters (Krahnke, 1987). Linguistic matter covers the skill focuses and the language features which is also known as linguistic schema (Ketchum, 2006). This aspect,
however, can be assigned to the lecturers’ decision. The subject matters, on the other hand, covers the topics in which the teaching of the skill and the language features are mediated. The realization can be done by reflecting to the needs and situational analyses results of the students which include the information about the prior knowledge, culture, and education (Bock, 2006; Chang, 2006; Jalilifar & Assi, 2008).

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

**Methodology**

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

**Findings and discussion**

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

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

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

**Conclusion**

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

**References**


Abstract

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

Key Words: Multimodal Text, multimedia technology, reading comprehension

Introduction

In the digital era, technology plays an important role in our daily life including in our language teaching. As the consequence, every modern language teacher will face new challenges in implementing technology throughout the learning process. One of the challenges is the rapid evolution of reading material from printed text to visual, electronic, or digital text. Thus, English teachers should be aware that the fast changing of information
technology has already shifted the use of traditional or printed text to multimodal text. By technology, students can access any information not only in the form of printed text, but also in the form of multimodal text.

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

Why Using Multimodal Text?

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

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

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

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

**Implementing Multimodal Text**

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

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

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

This study would focus on the use of narrow reading as an intervention to help ESP students acquire meaningful input of reading materials suitable with their needs. Narrow reading describes a series of readings arranged around a related topic. Krashen (1985) argues that reading in a single topic, or a particular informational area has the advantage of a
familiar context, that is, familiar background knowledge that helps make texts more comprehensible. This study would like to select some specific topics of multimodal texts which are suitable with students’ background knowledge as an engineer. It is assumed that each topic has its own vocabulary, and narrow reading on those specific topics can provide ESP learners many exposures to language items in meaningful contexts.

Conclusion

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

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

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Title
The Potential of Using Visual Aids in Reading Literary Texts

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Abstract
Literature is a vital component in second language courses as it supports language development and cultural enrichment. Thus, the literature component has been incorporated in the Malaysian English Language Curriculum. However, the loss of reading interest in literary texts among students causes worry to everyone. This study aims to explore the potential of using visual aids such as videos, pictures, films and projectors in motivating students to read literary texts. A mixed-method approach was used to collect the relevant data. 52 English Language teachers from seven rural national secondary schools in Kapit,
Sarawak were involved in this study and five of them were interviewed to get an in-depth perception. The findings indicated that majority of the teachers demonstrated positive attitude on the use of visual aids. It was also proven to increase students’ reading interest, comprehension of the texts and aids in identification of literary elements and devices. This shows that visual aids are effective in motivating students to read literary texts. These findings are in line with the Malaysian Education Blueprint 2013-2025, which emphasises and maximises the transformative potential of ICT in education.

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

**Introduction**

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

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

In spite of this good effort, the complexities of the language and cultural elements embedded in the texts often at mismatch with the students’ language ability. This factor thus affects students’ motivation to read the literary texts (Sidhu, Chan & Kaur, 2010). Adding to that, Yunus, Salehi and John (2013) and Maimun (2014) proposed that the use of visual aids
serves as a good platform for the teachers to improve students’ close engagement with the literary texts. Hence, there is an apparent need to answer the following research questions to explore the potential of using visual aids in sparking students’ interest to read literary texts:

i. What are the types of visual aids that can be used as a motivational tool in triggering students’ interests’ in reading literary texts?

ii. How can the use of visual aids benefit students in reading literary texts?

Literature Review

The Rationale for Incorporating Literature in Malaysian English Classroom

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

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

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

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

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

Benefits of Using Visual Aids in Teaching Literature

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

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

Secondly, using visual aids in teaching literature relieves the monotony of learning literature among students. Cakir (2006) states that visual aids like videos and films enable students to conceptualise ideas. Students also have better understanding of the target
language because they can learn the use of contextual language in videos and films. Therefore, it allows the students to have deeper thoughts of the literary texts.

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

Methodology

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

Participants

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

Instruments

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

Findings

Types of Visual Aids

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Benefits of Using Visual Aids to Students**

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

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

Based on the table above, for the poem component, 49 teachers (94.2%) chose ‘Agree’ and ‘Disagree’ in relation to their students’ interest in reading poem when they used visual aids in teaching it. However, 3 teachers (5.8%) were ‘Uncertain’. This was probably because the students were second language learners and this factor made it difficult to get them to really read the poem thoroughly. In terms of students’ understandability of the poem, 51 teachers (98.1%) agreed and strongly agreed to it. Meanwhile, only 1 teacher (1.9%) was not in an agreement of it probably because the poem involves flowery words and contains deep meaning, thus causing difficulty to explain it assiduously using visual aids. When asked
whether their students could easily identify the literary concepts of the poem with the use of visual aids, 43 teachers (82.7%) opted for ‘Strongly Agree’ and ‘Agree’. Conversely, 8 teachers (15.4%) had chosen ‘Uncertain’ and 1 teacher (1.9%) was not in favour towards the statement. This was probably because the students were unfocused during the lesson as the visual aids used failed to grab their attention in the learning process.

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

Additionally, for the novel component, 48 teachers (92.3%) believed that their students showed interest in reading novel when visual aids were implemented during the literature class meanwhile 4 teachers (7.7%) opted for ‘Uncertain’. The latter’s response was probably because either never or infrequently using visual aids to attract their students’ attention to read the novel. In terms of understandability, 51 teachers (98.1%) were in an agreement towards the statement that their students understood well the novels with the use of visual aids. However, 1 teacher (1.9%) chose ‘Uncertain’ and only 1 teacher (1.9%) was in disagreement of that statement. This phenomenon was probably because of the preference in using other teaching aids to assist the students in reading the novel. For the identification of literary concepts, 44 teachers (84.6%) were in agreement that their students could easily identify literary concepts in the novel with the use of visual aids. However, 7 teachers (13.5%) chose ‘Uncertain’ and 1 teacher (1.9%) was in disagreement with it. This was most probably because the teachers perceived that there were other important elements that needed to be explained via visual aids rather than literary concepts.

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

**Discussions and Implications**

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

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

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

References


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

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

Keywords: motivation, teachers’ classroom behavior, gender

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

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Literature Review

The role motivation plays in influencing students’ achievement in any subjects, including foreign language, is unquestionable. To better understand students’ motivation in learning a foreign language, studies have focused on factors that motivate and demotivate students. These studies reported that one of the key social figures in students’ motivation to study a foreign language is the teacher. Teacher behavior was described by Oxford (2001) not only as a motivational tool, which could enhance students’ motivation but also a powerful source of demotivation as well as in a ‘motivational vacuum’, when the motivation was not present (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011, p. 107)

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

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

Methodology

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

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

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

Achievement Measure. Students’ achievements were measured by using Preliminary English Test (PET). PET was developed by the Cambridge ESOL Examination to measure students’ ability to use English to communicate with native speakers for everyday purposes.

To examine the relationships between the target variables, Pearson’s product-moment correlation was employed. The correlations were conducted for gender subgroups. Classroom observation was conducted to provide insights into classroom teaching and learning processes.

Finding and discussion

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

References


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

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

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

Introduction
Writing has taken the most complicated skill among other skills that faced by the EFL students. It is because the process of writing is not merely the matter of transcribing the language into a written form, but it is a skill in which the students have to express their ideas and organize them in written form. According to Richard and Renandya (2002, p.303) the difficulties of writing lies on how to generate and organize ideas using an appropriate choice
of vocabulary, sentence and paragraph organization, and translate these ideas into a readable text. Furthermore, based on Khoiriyah (2014) research, there are many problems faced by the Indonesian students in writing; they are developing and organizing ideas, understanding aspects of writing, such as syntax, grammar, content, word choice, organization, and also mechanic. Those aspects could not be learned only in a single day. The students need to understand and apply them before they plan to be a good writer.

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

**Literature Review**

**Teaching Writing**

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

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

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

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

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

**Graphic Organizer**

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

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

Methodology

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

Findings and Discussion

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

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

The stages of teaching writing followed the stages in PjBL. The first is speculating. In this stage the choice of project designed by the teacher was writing a short descriptive text about one’s family which was adopted based on the curriculum and the students’ ability. The next stage is designing the project activities. The teacher made a group of three students and assigned them to select the materials from various sources. The next is conducting the project. They were assigned to develop ideas based on graphic organizer and they discussed to correct the ideas. After that, they practiced to create good sentences that they needed to
express their ideas. The final stage is evaluation in which refers to assess their ability in writing.

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

**The Results on Aspect of Writing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aspects of Writing</th>
<th>Total Score</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Generic Structure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Developing Ideas</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Accuracy (grammar and vocabulary)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mechanic (punctuation and capitalization)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Conclusion**

Supplementary materials should be developed by considering teaching objectives and students’ ability. PjBL is suitable to teach writing skill as the students are expected to create a product. This research proves that it helps the students write a simple text. They are good at the structure of the text and developing ideas. Besides, it can motivate them to work with other students and encourage their creativity.
References
Title
Oral Corrective Feedback on Students’ Grammatical Accuracy and Willingness to Communicate in EFL Classroom: The Effects of Focused and Unfocused Prompts

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Abstract

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

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

**Introduction**

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

The body of research on error correction or Corrective feedback (CF) has been reported by some researchers. Zarinnabadi (2014) reports that error correction provided after learners finish their speech can increase learners’ L2 WTC in upcoming situation. Another research finding shares a similar voice. By investigating four Korean male students, Kang (2005) reveals that the participants feel secure from the fear when the tutor listens to them carefully, smiling or providing some other active responses (e.g., saying “uh-huh,” really,” “that’s great, etc). CF denotes through, but not limited to input hypothesis, interactional hypothesis, noticing hypothesis, and output hypothesis (see e.g., Lyster and Sato, 2010 as the main review). Researchers have investigated that CF can facilitate learners on their L2 development even though its effect may be limited by contextual factors and individual differences of learners (Lyster & Saito, 2010; Li, 2010).
Two prominent CF types mostly discussed are prompts and recasts. Some research reports have made an endeavor effort to compare the implementation of recasts and prompts (see, e.g., Lyster, 2004; R. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam, 2006; Ammar and Spada, 2006; R. Ellis, 2007; Lyster and Saito, 2010). They pinpoint that both CF types are effective, while learners are more outperformed by providing prompts than recasts. Lyster and Ranta (1997) defined prompts as CF strategies which are derived from various shapes and types: clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitations. Lyster and Izquierdo (2009) make the comparison between Prompts and recasts in dyadic interaction using repeated measures of ANOVA. Their finding postulates that by receiving recasts, learners benefit from the repeated exposure to positive exemplars and opportunity to infer negative evidence as well, whereas, students receiving prompts benefit from the repeated exposure to negative evidence and opportunities to produce modified input as well. Similar finding is reported by Ahmad and Jarrah (2015) pinpointing that certain types of CF increase students’ acquisition of grammar. The combination of written corrective feedback and metalinguistic improves learners’ accuracy in the use of simple past tense. Lyster, Sato and Saito’s (2013) assert ‘a variety of CF types is probably more effective than consistent use of only one type’ and it is not necessary to use only single type of CF strategy (p. 21). It is necessary to use more than one type of CF to fit individual factors such as prior knowledge and developmental readiness of learners (Sarandi, 2016). Accordingly, prompts are best suited for having more than one form of CF strategy.

In its development, there are still no consensus regarding prompts in the relationship with focused and unfocused linguistic target and learners’ differences. First, whether prompts are best suited to the focused and unfocused tasks remain debatable. Different amount and type of feedback as well as opportunities for and production of modified output following feedback have been addressed (Gurzynski-Wei & Revez, 2012; p.855). The term focused and unfocused linguistic target can be elicited as CF addressed to induce the use of particular construction or linguistic forms for the former and CF that do not have a predetermined language focus or certain linguistic forms for the later. Mackey and Goo (2007) suggest that feedback provided in focused linguistic target leads to L2 development. Little attention is addressed to the use of unfocused linguistic target due to the assumption of the insufficiency detailed linguistic target descriptions for categorizing target focusedness. Second, a few studies report CF in the relationship with learners’ differences. Sheen (2011 cited in Lee, 2015) suggests that future research on CF should take account on individual differences that are likely to influence whether and how learners process CF. Furthermore, Lee (2015) reports
that teacher’s oral CF has positive impact on students’ affective variables namely anxiety, motivation and confidence. The similar finding is also reported by Rassaei (2015) pinpointing that oral corrective feedback in the form of recast and metalinguistic affect students’ anxiety. The finding also postulates that students get benefit of oral CF indicating that low-anxiety learners benefit from both recasts and metalinguistic, while high-anxiety learners benefit from recasts.

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

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

**Review Of Related Literature**

**Corrective Feedback**

Corrective feedback (CF) is simply defined as “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p. 28). Based on the descriptive study of teacher-student interaction in French immersion classroom, there are six different CF types which are broadly classified into two categories; reformulation and prompts (Ranta and Lyster, 2007). Recasts and explicit correction belong to reformulation, while elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition. Generally, the strategies mostly used in CF fall into two dimensions of feedback namely explicit and implicit dimensions and input-providing and output-providing dimensions that are widely accepted in second language acquisition studies (Ellis, 2010a). Implicit dimension is given in an obtrusive manner that is the errors made by the learners are not overtly signaled, while explicit feedback is conducted by giving salient statements on the errors made by learners to notice. Thus these dimensions concern the degree of ranging from the explicitness to the implicitness in correcting learners’ errors. Input-providing dimension is intended by giving correct exemplars compared to the errors produced by the learners enabling them to compare those with the errors they made. Output-providing dimension, however, allows learners to work out the correct form of their deviant utterances using their own language correction repertoire. So these dimensions regard the
extent to which CF generates input or output (Sarandi, 2016: 236). R. Ellis’s (2009) asserted that taxonomy of CF dimension constitutes that prompts are classified as output-providing that provide the moves from implicit to explicit strategy.

**Prompts**

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

The following utterances are the forms of prompts

Learner’s utterances: ‘She has cat’

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

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

**Method**

**Participants**

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

**Instruments**

Grammatical Judgment Tests (GJTs)

Three sets of grammatical judgment tests were given during pre-test, post-test and delayed
test. The tests consist of grammatical and ungrammatical forms of simple present and
comparison. Instances of the tests such as the use of V-s/es, and be (is, am, are) and question
forms, while in comparison, the participants were asked to answer the questions regarding the
difference among similar comparison, comparative and superlative. For example in similar
comparison, the questions cover the different use of as (adjective) as and the same (noun),
similar to, etc. In comparative forms for example the different use of –er and more, while
superlative forms such as the...est and the most... . The correct answer weight 1, while
incorrect answer or no answer weight 0. There was no penalty for incorrect answers.

**WTC Questionnaire**

A set of questionnaire of WTC was deployed to the participants during pre-test, post-test and delayed
test. The questionnaire is adopted from Li (2016) containing the variables
influencing WTC such as anxiety, self-confidence, and motivation (see appendix A).
Focused and unfocused prompt groups have the same questionnaire in pre-test and delayed-
test (12 questions). However, they have 38 questions in post-test to get their response about
the oral feedback they have received during treatments. All questions contain about the
variables affecting WTC namely anxiety, motivation and self-confidence. In control group,
they have the same questions of WTC during pre-test, post-test, and delayed-test asking their
anxiety, motivation and self-confidence without receiving CF. In addition, the validity and
reliability of the questionnaire are calculated by using SPSS 20.

**Treatment**

Two treatment groups received treatments in the form of prompts (elicitation,
metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition). While a control group was not
given feedback. It can be seen in table 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of prompts</th>
<th>Feedback types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elicitation, metalinguistic-clue,</td>
<td><strong>Focused prompt group</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clarification requests, and repetition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Elicitation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Metalinguistic clue</td>
<td><strong>Metalinguistic</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Clarification</td>
<td><em>Gives technical linguistic information about the error</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Repetition</td>
<td><em>e.g.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S=the girl take some paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T=the third singular person for verb should end.....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S=oh sorry .... takes, the girl takes some paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elicitation:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Prompts the students to self-correct by pausing and students can fill in the blanks</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>e.g.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S=Ali’s book is more thick than Andrea’s</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T=comparative form for thick? One syllable?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S=thicker</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat the students’ errors while highlighting the error or mistake through emphatic stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>e.g.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S=are you understand the picture?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T=are you understand ....?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S=Ohh..Do you understand?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarification</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating opportunities for students to reformulate or repeat their ill-form utterance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>e.g.</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elicitation, metalinguistic-clue, clarification requests, and repetition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Elicitation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Metalinguistic clue</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Clarification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Repetition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Unfocused prompt groups**

**Elicitation**

e.g.

S=the woman is leaves to work by foot

T=the woman is leaves?.....by foot?

S=the woman leaves to work **by** foot (needs repair on preposition)

**Metalinguistic**

e.g.

S=Ary book more expensive than Ani

T= **put apostrophe** ’s to show possession....you need to use **to be** –is to show the singular subject

S=Ary’s book is more expensive than Ani’s book

**Repetition**

Repeat the students’ errors while highlighting the error or mistake through emphatic stress

e.g.

S= is she deliver the homework?

T= is she deliver?

S= does she deliver..

T=deliver?

S=what is **mengumpulkan** in English sir?

T=oh you do you mean **submit**?
S=ye submit

Clarification

e.g.
S=he always get up every day at 5 o’clock
T= how to state a “verb” in the third singular person in simple present?
S= oh sorry...He always gets up
T=what about the sentence arrangement? is it ok to put “everyday” in the middle of sentence?
S=you mean..he always gets up at 5 everyday?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>the treatment for experimental groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Design and procedure**

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

**Data analysis**

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

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

Willingness to communicate

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure: WTC</th>
<th>Mauchly's Test of Sphericitya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Within Subjects Effect</td>
<td>Mauchly's W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tests</td>
<td>.984</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 testing of variance

Table 2 indicates that Mauchly’s test of Sphericity’s value is .984 with chi-square .882, degree of freedom 2 and significant value \( p > .05 \). It means that the assumption of Sphericity meet the statistical assumption. There is an increase for the three groups from pre-test to post-test such as focused prompts in pre-test (M=2.75) and post-test (M=4.05) but decrease in delayed test (M=3.70). It also occurs in the unfocused prompts in pre-test and post-test consecutively (M=2.70 and M=4.15) and delayed test (M=3.80) (see table 3). The test interaction in table 3 postulates that there is significant difference among the three tests with significant value \( p < .05 \). Furthermore, the best visualization can be seen clearly in figure 1, profile plot, indicating the difference of mean among the three tests.
**Tabel 3 Group Means Comparison Among the Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>2.456</td>
<td>3.044</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>3.798</td>
<td>4.302</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>3.458</td>
<td>3.942</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>2.406</td>
<td>2.994</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>3.898</td>
<td>4.402</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>3.558</td>
<td>4.042</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>2.356</td>
<td>2.944</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>3.098</td>
<td>3.602</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>2.958</td>
<td>3.442</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pairwise Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) tests</th>
<th>(J) tests</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Difference</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>-1.150*</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-1.415 - .885</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>-.867*</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-1.139 - -.594</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>1.150*</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.885 1.415</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>.283*</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.039 .528</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed-test</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>.867*</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.594 1.139</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>-.283*</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>-.528 -.039</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tabel 4 Mean Differences on the Tests**

To answer research question 1 whether there is difference among the three groups, post-hoc comparison indicates that there is no difference between focused and unfocused prompt groups with mean difference (.05) and p value >.05. However, both group outperform more than control group with mean difference (.43) and p value <.05 (see table 5). It also answers research question 2 whether focused prompts are different from unfocused prompts.
Table 5 post-hoc comparison on WTC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(I) groups</th>
<th>(J) groups</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.0500</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td>-.3280</td>
<td>.2280</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td></td>
<td>.4333*</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.1553</td>
<td>.7113</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td></td>
<td>.0500</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.903</td>
<td>-.2280</td>
<td>.3280</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>.4833*</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.2053</td>
<td>.7613</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.4333*</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>-.7113</td>
<td>-.1553</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.4833*</td>
<td>.11060</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-.7613</td>
<td>-.2053</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 plot of WTC

**Grammatical Judgement Test**

**Post Hoc Tests**

Regarding the grammatical target, it reveals that there is significant difference among the three groups with mean difference focused – unfocused prompt groups (MD=3.17 with p value <.05) and focused prompt – control groups (MD=11.7 with p value <.05) (see table 6). Furthermore, Post-Hoc test indicates that both focused and unfocused prompt group outperform more than control group in grammatical target; while, focused prompt group outperforms more than unfocused prompt groups. Table 6 points out the different means among the three groups consecutively control group in subset 1 (M=69.42), unfocused
prompts in second subset (M=77.9), and focused prompt group in the other subset (M=81.6). Figure 2 indicates the different scores among the three groups during pre-test, post-test and delayed-test. In focused test, there is an increase but not significant from post-test to delayed-test (post-test M=92.00 and delayed test M=92.5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure: Accuracy</th>
<th>(I) groups</th>
<th>(J) groups</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Difference</th>
<th>Lower Bound</th>
<th>Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>3,667*</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>6,374</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>12,167*</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>9,459</td>
<td>14,874</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>-3,667*</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>-6,374</td>
<td>-959</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>8,500*</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5,792</td>
<td>11,208</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>focused prompts</td>
<td>-12,167*</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-14,874</td>
<td>-9,459</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>unfocused prompts</td>
<td>-8,500*</td>
<td>1,098</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-11,208</td>
<td>-5,792</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 comparison of mean difference among the groups

**Homogeneous Subsets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scheffe Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control unfocused prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focused prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 Homogoneous subset of the three groups
Profile Plots

Figure 2 plot of grammatical accuracy

Discussion

Based on the finding, it can be said that focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform significantly both in participants’ WTC and accuracy over control group. Both groups receiving treatment show the statistical differences in the grammatical accuracy but not in WTC. Participants receiving CF in focused prompt more outperformed than that in unfocused prompt group in post-test. The WTC questionnaire contains variables such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence influencing learners’ to communicate mediating by focused and unfocused prompts. Many studies conduct the effects of CF and affect to students’ anxiety towards WTC (see Aydin, 2008; Zgutowicz, 2009; Cutrone, 2009; Rashidi, Bashiro and Motlaq, 2016) revealing that learners are reluctant to participate in the classroom due to afraid of negative evaluation. The present study, however, reveals that one type of corrective feedback strategy, prompts, gives significant effect on students’ WTC. It also confirms the previous findings that error correction gives an effect on the L2 learners’ WTC (see e.g., Kang, 2005; Zarinnabadi, 2014; MacIntyre, 2011). Both focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform more than control group with mean differences consecutively 4.83 and 4.33. Even though there is no significant difference between focused and unfocused prompt groups, it can be said that CF contributes significantly on learner’s WTC. The mean increase in focused prompt group from pre-test (2.75) to post-test (4.05) indicates significant effect of the CF provided to the learner’s WTC. The similar increase also occurs in unfocused prompt group with pre-test (2.70) and post-test (4.15).
Furthermore, the finding also confirms the efficacy of prompts that are assumed to be more outperforming than the other types of CF. Cassany (1993 as cited in Torresan, 2011) yields that correction must never be ambiguous and adequate to the learners’ skills as well as relevant to the content errors. Learners’ participation to promote involvement, self-confidence, anxiety and motivation are variables which contribute significantly on L2 learners’ WTC. Krashen (1982) argues that CF is potentially detrimental to L2 learning due to the increase of learners’ anxiety. In addition, he argues that giving learners’ CF during oral communication can hinder language acquisition as it provokes learners’ anxiety and raises affective filter. Contrary finding is reported by Ellis (2009) that reveals that CF has positive effect on learners, lower their anxiety level and thereby facilitate L2 learning if teacher and learners know what they are doing and what the purpose of CF is. The present study confirms Ellis’ argument that CF, prompts, gives positive effect on students’ WTC regarding their anxiety, self-confidence and anxiety.

Regarding the grammatical accuracy, it reveals that the three groups have significant difference in pre-test, post-test and delayed test. Both focused and unfocused prompt groups outperform more than control group with mean differences consecutively 12.7 and 8.5. While focused prompt groups outperforms more than unfocused prompt groups with mean difference 3.7. Ellis (2009) points out that it is likely to be more difficult in unfocused CF if the learners are given any correction of any errors they make without reflecting much on their errors, so focused CF is considered to be more effective to examine a single error made by the learners in a certain linguistic form. Focused CF can promote not only attention, but also understanding of the nature of the error rather than unfocused CF that may more superior in the long run but not in short one. Hedge (2000 cited in Li, 2014) suggests that teachers focus on the “errors” made by learners due to the lack of knowledge about a linguistic item, rather than “mistakes”, which are non-systematic and occur as a result of factors such as fatigue. Therefore in the form of linguistic error, it will be beneficial to focus on a certain form of grammar that causes the problems in communication rather than any errors which do not.

Lyster and Sato (2013) argue that prompts may be particularly effective for learners who have already known grammatical structure, but not yet mastered. Focused prompts enable additional practice in retrieving existing knowledge and therefore assist learners to construct their inter-language through contextualized practice. All participants have already known grammatical structure e.g. simple present and comparison previously. From the plot profile (see figure 2), it reveals that the means of focused, unfocused prompt and control groups in pre-tests are consecutively 60.2, 60.5, and 60.25. It rises during the post-test after
getting treatment for the two groups (focused and unfocused prompt groups) with consecutively (focused prompt M=92, unfocused prompt M=84.5 and control M=75.25). furthermore, It also confirms the efficacy of prompts for the acquisition of grammatical structure. Shonghori (2012) suggests the teachers to modify their grammar teaching method regarding EFL classroom context. The teacher should carefully selects the correct instruction in teaching grammar.

**Conclusion**

The present study provides the confirmation of the effectiveness of CF in general that theoretically relevance to L2 acquisition, practically relevance to L2 pedagogy and researchable in the classroom. The result shows different target of language regarding L2 learner’s grammatical accuracy and WTC. Focused and unfocused prompt treatment shows significant improvement over no treatment group in both WTC and accuracy. This finding also rejects the argument that CF can hinder learner’s communication and raise anxiety. It will be meaningful when teachers give an effective feedback by prompting, for instance, rather than correcting learner’s errors by using “why?”), how can?, “what”, etc. that may raise learner’s anxiety and decrease learner’s WTC.

Limitation of this study is that the variables measured in WTC only focuses on motivation, self-confidence and anxiety by using questionnaire. Because there are many variables influencing students’ WTC, further research may take other variables to give more comprehensible finding to the efficacy of the CF on L2 learners’ WTC. Regarding the grammatical accuracy, further research may consider about the use of CF to the new grammatical target to see the efficacy of CF rather than grammar that has been already learnt albeit no mastering it.

**References**


**Appendix A**

Willingness to Communicate variables

**Pre-test**

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

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

| 1. Anxiety about speaking English | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2. Fear to speak in front of classmates | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3. Being embarrassed to communicate in English | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
Delayed-test  Affective variables after getting teacher’s oral feedback

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

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

Low  | medium  | high
### Post-test affective variables and corrective feedback (prompts)

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I don’t think good about getting my teacher’s corrective feedback on my oral English error</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I have high anxiety about receiving my teacher’s oral corrective feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. When the teacher corrects my errors, it makes me embarrassed to communicate</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. I am afraid of the other students will laugh at me when the teacher corrects my utterance errors</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. I don’t want to get any corrective feedback from my teacher, since it makes me feel tense about speaking English</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I am afraid of speaking right after the teacher corrects my errors</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. My teacher’s oral corrective feedback makes me feel anxious about learning communicating in English</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Whenever I get the teacher’s oral correction, my fear of initiating to speak increases</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. I am generally nervous when I get my teacher’s oral corrective feedback on my English errors or mistakes in front of my classmates</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. My teacher’s oral corrective feedback makes me feel uncomfortable in initiating to speak</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. When my classmates present their topic, I often pay attention to their oral English errors or mistakes</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. To improve my English, it is necessary that I learn from my own errors</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. I want my teacher to correct all of my errors when I speak English</td>
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<p>| | |</p>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>I think I learn more when my teacher corrects my speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>I really enjoy getting my teacher’s oral corrective feedback in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>I want my teacher to correct only the errors that I make most often when I speak English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>I have a very strong desire to receive my teacher’s corrective feedback on my utterance errors or mistakes to develop my oral English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>I always look forward to my teacher’s oral corrective feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I try to correct my errors after the teacher corrects me by repeating after him/her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>When my classmates make errors, I try to think of the correct answer in my head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Knowing my oral errors significantly motivates me to develop my oral English proficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Whenever I receive my teacher’s oral corrective feedback, I am willing to communicate in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Teacher’s oral corrective feedback helps to increase my motivation to speak English more often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>I am motivated to learn English by means of teachers’ oral corrective feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I think teacher’s oral corrective feedback have an influential impact in developing my oral English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Oral corrective feedback involves me more in interaction with my teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Being aware of my spoken English errors via teacher’s oral corrective feedback makes me become a more competent EFL learner, even outside of the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>More oral corrective feedback of my English means more investment to develop my oral English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>The more teacher corrects my oral English, the more self-confidence I have to speak English correctly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Teacher’s oral corrective feedback facilitates me to speak out in front of my classmates during in class presentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Oral Corrective feedback on my English enables me to speak without any hesitation or fear of making mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Whenever I get teacher’s oral corrective feedback, I realize that I can speak English fluently with more confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>My teacher’s oral corrective feedback lets me speak to native English speaker with more confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>My teacher’s oral corrective feedback encourages me to engage positively in classroom discussions and activities</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>35.</strong> Whenever I need to talk to others in English outside the classroom, my teacher’s corrective feedback boost my self-confidence to communicate fluently with them</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>36.</strong> I think my teacher’s oral corrective feedback is connected with improvements in my self-confidence to speak English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>37.</strong> My teacher’s oral corrective feedback allows me to ask or question in class confidently without any hesitation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>38.</strong> Thanks to my teacher’s oral corrective feedback, I feel like a competent and confident English speaker whenever I speak with other ESL speakers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Title
Professional English Teaching on the Basis of Blended Learning

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National Research Tomsk Polytechnic University, Russia

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

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

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

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

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

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

BL Model for Foreign Language Teaching

Research Goals and Tasks

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

1. Power Engineering is one of the most important branches of industry and the graduates should have high foreign language competence as they work both in Russia and abroad. Moreover high English language competence is conditioned by the fact that a qualified engineer always tries to search for new information in target sphere.

2. In our opinion, Master students are the most suitable for this type of research as they have already an experience in planning their study and certain life experience. Most of them are focused on their future career and thus are highly motivated to be competitive on the job market.

The tasks of the research were the following:

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

**Description of the experiment**

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Findings and Results**

Having analyzed the performance of the students it was decided to get the feedback. Students were offered to answer several questions on their attitude towards the BL in general and to the course in particular.
As it can be seen from the diagrams the majority of students is satisfied with the structure of the course. Moreover students note high degree of motivation due to the wide range of tasks provided by the e-platform. We introduced several tasks which were new to the students (peer-assessment tasks, video presentations and poster presentations) and this lead to certain difficulties in meeting the requirements.
Conclusion

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

References

Title
How do Undergraduate Students avoid Plagiarism?

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

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

Keywords: plagiarism, behavior, academic dishonesty, undergraduate students
Introduction

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

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

In Indonesian pedagogic context, it is a pity knowing that many pieces evidences expose that huge plagiarism has been occurred among academicians (Hidayati, 2009; Makhfiyana & Mudzakkir, 2010; Tempo.co, 2014). Nowadays, people easily get information through their Smartphone and beneficial applications that can be freely downloaded whenever and wherever they want, so this behavior becomes more common and acceptable. However, plagiarism is a kind of intellectual violence that can decrease the quality of a research and the capability of an academician. The awareness of research ethic should be introduced for the very first time when ones involve in academia. The government has been prevented plagiarism through the regulation of Indonesian Education Ministry number 17, the year 2010. This law regulates plagiarism behavior, kinds of plagiarism, and ethical code for academic works (Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, 2010). It is also administered that universities are responsible for preventing their students from academic dishonesty behavior. Since plagiarism has been regulated, academicians should not neglect this issue. Although there are some prior studies in some Indonesian universities have reviewed this
issue, this study aims to verify the students’ awareness towards plagiarism in the different learning context. A former study or a survey related to plagiarism has not been researched in Muhammadiyah University of Ponorogo. Therefore, this recent study examines to identify students’ behavior towards plagiarism, to identify types of plagiarism, and analyze possible solution to minimize plagiarism behavior using a case scenario of plagiarism questionnaire developed by (Dawson et al., 2006).

**Literature Review**

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

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

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

Four previous studies have examined the phenomenon of plagiarism with various backgrounds and different contexts. First, Dawson et al. (2006) developed a case scenario of plagiarism questionnaire to reveal the students of Higher Education Institutions in the UK’s understanding about plagiarism and where it occurs. Second, Ahmad et al. (2012) used
Dawson’s case scenario questionnaire to verify students’ conception towards plagiarism in the postgraduate program of Universiti Teknologi Malaysia. It was confirmed that the students had a misconception about kinds of plagiarism and were confused about how to cite and to paraphrase references appropriately. Third, Ariani (2013) conducted her study in the Faculty of Social and Political Science of Airlangga University, Indonesia. Her study was viewed from social aspects. It was reported that the students had negative belief but the social control towards plagiarism was still inadequate so practical prevention was necessary to conduct. Fourth, Arista & Listyani (2015) took their research in the Faculty of Social of Surabaya State University, Indonesia. This study was viewed from social aspects and identified the phenomenon of plagiarism among undergraduate students. It was reported that the students knew plagiarism but they still plagiarized because of some reasons.

**Methodology**

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

**Result and Discussion**

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

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

Figure 1 displays students’ responses what they think of plagiarism. From the chart, 87% students choose [1.A] that using someone else’s words is plagiarism. The second level,
60% students decide [1.C], that claiming other work result’s as one’s own is including plagiarism. Meanwhile, 40% students choose [1.B] and 6.7% students choose [1.D] feel hesitant whether using other ideas and sharing work are including plagiarism. In addition, there is no one thinking getting ideas from textbook [1.D] is categorized as plagiarism. This clarifies that most of the students have understood that plagiarism is using and submitting other work’s as one’s own as in line with the findings from Arista and Listyani’s study (Arista & Listyani, 2015). However, they have to be given clearer understanding the differences between using someone else’ work and ideas since some of the students state that claiming someone idea’s is including in plagiarism.

![Figure 2](image_url)

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

Figure 2 shows why plagiarism is wrong. Answer [2.B] is chosen by 66.7% students with the perception that it is dishonest. Meanwhile, answer [2.A] and [2.C] are chosen by 40% students, 33% students choose answer [2.E] and the rest ones, 1.3% students mark answer [2.D]. This result indicates that most of them know that plagiarism is dishonest. Interestingly, by 40% indication of [2.A] and [2.C], the students know that plagiarism will not only measure their achievement but also it will risk their marks. Having a little difference, 33% students believe that plagiarism steals other people ideas [2.D] and the rest, 13.3% students think that nothing learnt by doing plagiarism. This result is consistent with the theories from Park (2003), Anderson (2009), Shahabuddin (2009), Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia, (2010), Ecember, (2011), Köse & Arikan, (2011), Reingold & Baratz (2011), Fazel & Kowkabi (2013), Fish & Hura (2013), Henslee, Goldsmith, Stone, & Krueger (2015).
Figure 3: You may be accused of collusion if you...

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

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

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

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

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

1. In term of students’ behavior towards plagiarism, based on questionnaire result, it is concluded that they have known plagiarism in the definition but they are still uncertain to distinguish kinds of plagiarism.

2. Types of plagiarism according to Ahmad et al., (2012), Anney & Mosha (2015), Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional Indonesia (2010) and Park (2003) that mostly identified based on questionnaire are plagiarism type 1, type 3, and type 2. Students know the risk of plagiarism but they do not know how to paraphrase and how to cite references appropriately.

3. Based on the questionnaire analysis, it is urgently needed for the lecturers and the institution to have a well-cooperated work to enrich students’ knowledge in academic writing for thesis proposal. In addition, university libraries should provide reference books and journals to support students’ writing.

References


Title
English Lesson Planning of K-13 with Scientific Approach

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

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

Introduction
Curriculum 2013 (K-13) is the newly implemented curriculum in Indonesia. It tries to accommodate the Eight National Standard of Education in the Government Regulation of 19 Year 2005. In terms of Process Standard, Educational Ministry Regulation number 41, the year of 2007 states that every school teacher should make lesson plan to foster the teaching and learning process to be interactive, inspiring, joyful, challenging, motivating the students.
to participate actively, and giving enough opportunities to them to be innovative, creative and self-reliance based on their talents, motivations, and physical as well as psychological development. To cover those expectations of teaching and learning process, the lesson plan of K-13 should include the Scientific Approach steps of Observing, Questioning, Experimenting, Associating, and Communicating.

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

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

**Literature Review**

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

**Observing**

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

**Questioning**

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

**Associating**

Suharyadi (2013) mentions that associating is the process of thinking logically and systematically. In the context of learning, “associating” is focused on students” learning activities.
Experimenting/Exploring
Suharyadi (2013) states that experimenting is about the skills to develop knowledge about the environment, and to use the scientific method and attitude to solve the problems faced in everyday life.

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

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

Findings and Discussion
The five steps of the SA aren’t included completely in the while activity; for example, three or four steps only covered. In observing, students are provided with objects, real objects, or phenomena when the teacher distributes some materials, and shows realia. At the same time, students could learn based on what they see or look and read to construct their knowledge when the teacher explained the materials, gave some examples, asked the students to identify some information from pictures and texts, showed a text and asked about the text. At the same time, students can learn based on what they hear or listen to construct their knowledge when the teacher played the recording and asked the students to find some information, showed a dialog and asked the students to observe it to find the meaning/purpose. Context is also present to help students to connect what they have learned with what they are going to learn when the teacher led the students by showing pictures. However, some activities are not quite appropriate for this observing step such as when teacher checked students’ background knowledge, drilled the students, gave exercise, gave motivation, told the learning objective, asked students to describe a person, and asked about students’ difficulty.
In questioning, the teacher asked questions to develop students’ critical thinking like when the teacher asks for students’ opinions and insights. The teachers also asked to stimulate students to ask questions and to inquire about their difficulty such as *Do you have any questions* and *do you have any problems?* Teacher nurtures students’ insights by guiding them to ask questions related to the materials. Teacher usually reviews by asking questions; however, it would be great if the students are able to raise questions when they review or summarize previous lessons. Since most of the questions are from the teacher, the students’ inquiring attitudes is actually not well-developed. Some unrelated activities which are included under questioning step are drilling the students, giving explanation, giving example, and helping the students to make a complete sentence in answering the reading questions.

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

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

In communicating step, some activities show mutual respect such as when the students discuss the answer of the exercises and the students answer and when they do peer correction. The students are also asked to communicate their work by making a report or presenting their work. More activity of communicating is shown when students comment on the monolog they listen to or give feedback after a performance. Some irrelevant ideas which have been put in the communicating are such as giving applause for the winner of a game, doing exercise, performing a dialog, analyzing the generic structure and language features of a text, pronouncing words, and changing sentence patterns.
Conclusion

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

References


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

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

Introduction

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

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

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

**Reflection Learning Strategies**

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

**Methodology**

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

**Finding and Discussion**

The result of this study show that the implementation of reflection strategy could improve the ability of writing and interest of EFL in writing students of STKIP YPUP. It can be seen from the data of pretest as 47.53 and posttest 64.08. It’s clearly suggested the use of reflection strategy can improve the ability of the students to develop their ideas appropriately. In addition, Questionnaires were administered to teachers and students to measure the aspects of acceptability, feasibility, and affectivity.
Based on the data that have been gathered, it can be concluded that, (1) Motivation. The data indicates that almost 60% of students felt happy when the lecturer guided them to write well. Besides that, the students were very inspired by the lecturer’s writing. (2) Conceptual knowledge. The graphic shows that almost 50% of students like when the lecturer used various easy words on teaching, and lecturer is supposed to use various easy words in teaching. (3) Real learning. The data tells us that 68% students felt right if the lecturer used various formal words in his writing. Some of the students assumed that they wrote the text based on the example as given by the lecturer. In writing, the students could compose simplify a long text as lecturer guidance. (4) Strategy. The data shows us that 67% students felt comfortable in writing when using simple words as lecturer’s guidance. To do so, the lecturer used good method, that made students easily to write. The data tells us that 39% of students found that their writing have been correct as the writing procedure.

Conclusion and Suggestions

The essential part of development process is aligning the material with student’s needs and interest. The tryout of the material should be specifically and firmly designed and carried out since it reflects whether or not it has been well developed. In this research the researcher develop several units of material and tried out in one class to see the acceptability of the model design. The content of designed book meet the students needs, specifically to types of text. The designed book is designed based on the process of writing reflection strategy. The course book could improve the students English achievement because it was designed based on the students’ need.
In designing an English course book teachers should consider the students’ need so they can encourage themselves to develop their own learning strategies and to become independent learners without afraid of making mistakes. Another positive impact of professional development is teacher are exposed to wider exposure of teaching and learning. It is suggested that all activities that are carried out will be of benefit to the teacher if they willing to cooperate with other teachers as a team teaching.

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Title

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

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Abstract

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

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

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

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

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

Literature Review

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

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

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

In the tertiary level, gender biases may not be that evident compared to elementary level, yet it is observed that in teaching history subjects or management subjects, the concrete referral to “he” as the representative of human race is very common. Thus, it is become generally accepted that women are always in the shadows of men (Novio, Cordova, 2016).
Sunderland (1992) points out that course-books representations affect students as language learners and users. Sunderland also stresses out that most English western books reflects the life in the English English-speaking country. Teaching books of today are biased and stereotypical regarding the issue of equality.

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

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

Methodology

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

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

Findings and Discussion

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

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

Conclusions

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

References


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

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

**Introduction**

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

English is normally taught as a compulsory subject at the university or the school levels in Indonesia. Indonesian learners typically receive input from the target language or English only in a classroom setting and lack the opportunities to practice the target language on a daily basis. Then, English is introduced in class I and continues up to the tertiary level. During this period, English instruction is found to be more or less a failure in the Indonesian education system. One of the reasons for the failure is that Bahasa Indonesia is used as medium of instruction for all content subjects. Moreover, English is not used as a tool of communication. Learners interact with their teachers or classmates in and out of the class in Bahasa Indonesia. For example, they speak in Bahasa Indonesia when they go for shopping in
department stores, traditional markets, and mini markets. They use it while talking to their family at home. They use it when they deal with many people in various different settings, in particular, in offices, public transportations, meetings, parties and celebrations. Then, most learners never watch any programmes in English because it is only a few families which can watch the programmes at their home, for example, Animal Planet, Discovery, CNN, History, National Geographic and HBO or Movie channel. Therefore, these descriptions of the use of Bahasa Indonesia and the limited of watching English programmes would be the indicators of the quality of communication skills, especially speaking skills of the tertiary level Indonesian learners. These would give us a clear picture of their competence in English. In other words, it is assumed that the proficiency of English of tertiary level learners is disappointing. The unsatisfactory quality of English is related to various different variables. In addition, a number of reports show that Indonesian learners have not attained a good level of oral English proficiency. The problems they face in improving their English relates not only to their linguistic and personality factors, but also to the surrounding environment or facilities, resources, the methodology of teaching English in the classroom and classroom tasks provided by teachers in the learning process.

**Literature Review**

**Spoken Communication**

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

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

Conversation Lounge

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

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

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

**Methodology**

**Population and Sample**

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

**Hypothesis**

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

**Research Design**

The study employed quantitative and qualitative approaches. The research design of this study is of a quasi-experimental nature. The type of the design is one-group pretest-posttest. A single pretest is taken on a group of respondents (O1). Treatment (X) then occurs, and a single posttest is given on the same measure (O2). The procedures of this study were that the learners sat in a conversation lounge. They sat there three times a week for one hour.
when they did not have class and other academic activities in the morning and in the afternoon. They had 24 sessions, of which used for practicing speaking skills. Indeed, when they sat in the conversation lounge, they spoke in an informal manner and in a relaxed atmosphere. Sometimes they used to have drinks and snacks when they practiced conversations. They talked on a variety of topics and the topics of conversation included hobby matters, family matters, economic matters, political matters, social matters, cultural life and educational matters. They used the topics for discussion and sharing ideas or information to each other. In the activities, they spoke spontaneously. They did not have any preparation at home or in classroom before they sat in the conversation lounge. Then, when they finished discussing and sharing ideas or information about the topics, they listened to English songs by filling missing information on the worksheet that had been prepared by researcher. After they checked the missing information such as words or phrases on the worksheet, they sang the songs together. They discussed about the story of the songs. They expressed their feelings. Indeed, music has the ability to verbalize and express their feelings better than any other medium. Listening to the right songs can put them in a better mood and emotional set up.

![Conversation Lounge Design](image)

**Finding and Discussion**

Pre-test was used in the population sample of 12 learners without giving interventions to them. Speaking test was given to them before they practiced in the conversation lounge. Interview was used for speaking test. This test consisted of confidence, accuracy and fluency test. Then, after learners got interventions of speaking skills in a conversation lounge for 24 sessions or two months, a post-test was administered to them similar to the pre-test. The researcher used t-test value analysis to analyze the result of the tests. A paired sample t-test was used in this study in order to determine whether there was a significant difference between the average values of the same measurement made in two different conditions. Both
measurements were made for each unit in a variable, and the test was based on the paired differences between these two values. The performance of learners who took the pre-test and post-test represent the following figures and the t-test value for two tests; pre-test and post-test are presented by tables in SPSS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Conf</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Gram</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Fluency</th>
<th>Total</th>
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# Post Test

## Speaking skills

### Accuracy

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<th>Conf</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Gram</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Fluency</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>70</td>
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<td>200</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gend = Gender  V = Vocabulary  P = Pronunciation  C = Comprehension

Conf = Confidence  Gram = Grammar  F = Fluency
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
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<th>D</th>
</tr>
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<td>S2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>S12</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confidence2</td>
<td>45.8333</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.14929</td>
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</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Confidence1</td>
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<td>-.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and Confidence2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confidence2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table displays the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the confidence. The t-test value is -9.106 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t-table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of confidence (paired sample statistics) were 22.50 vs 45.83, leading to a difference of 23.33 in the favor of the listening skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.
Table 3: The Result of T-Test Value (Vocabulary)

Paired Samples Statistics

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

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Vocabulary1 &amp; Vocabulary2</td>
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<td>.627</td>
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Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>95% Confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Vocabulary1 – Vocabulary2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table demonstrates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the vocabulary. The t-test value is -7.000 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t-table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of vocabulary (paired sample statistics) were 24.17 vs 35.83, leading to a difference of 11.66 in favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.
Table 4: The Result of T-Test Value (Pronunciation)

Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>5.149</td>
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<td>Pronunciation2</td>
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<td>7.97724</td>
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Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pronunciation1 and Pronunciation2</td>
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<td>.553</td>
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Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
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<td>Pronunciation1 – Pronunciation2</td>
<td>-1.08333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table indicates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the pronunciation. The t-test value is -5.613 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t- table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of pronunciation (paired sample statistics) were 24.17 vs 35.00, leading to a difference of 10.83 in favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.
Table 5: The Result of T-Test Value (Grammar)

Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Grammar1</td>
<td>21.67</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar2</td>
<td>28.33</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

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

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Grammar1</td>
<td>-6.67</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar2</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>-11.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table indicates the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the grammar. The t-test value is -2.966 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.013 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t-table value which is -2.201. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test of grammar (paired sample statistics) were 21.66 vs 28.33, leading to a difference of 6.67 in favor of the speaking skills. This result shows that pre-test and post-test differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.
Table 6: The Result of T-Test Value (Total)

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

Paired Samples Correlations

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

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Std. Deviation Mean Std. Error Mean Lower Upper</td>
<td>t df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Total1</td>
<td>13.70689 3.95684  -35.37561 -17.95773 -6.739</td>
<td>11 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tota2</td>
<td>2.66667E1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table displays the pre-test and post-test performances of learners with respect to the total score of accuracy. The t-test value is -6.739 at 11 df. The calculated value is significant since the significant value of 2 tailed test is 0.000 which is less than 0.05 and 0.01. Then, t-test value is also smaller than t-table value which is -2.201. This result shows that pre-test and post-test of the total score of accuracy differences are significant or these data indicate that the positive difference was made by the interventions during the experiment.
Table 7: The Result of T-Test Value (Fluency)

Paired Samples Statistics

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

Paired Samples Correlations

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

Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Std. Mean Difference</td>
<td>Std. Error Difference</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Fluency1 - Fluency2</td>
<td>8.33333</td>
<td>3.89249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Conclusion**

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

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Title
Reconstruction of Cognitive Process in Popular Article Writing

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

Keywords: cognitive process, argumentative writing, columnist, cognition

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Method

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

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

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

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

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

**Findings and Discussion**

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

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

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

Table 1 Writers’ way to get inspiration

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

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

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

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

2. Values that underlie writers to give their argument

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 3 Writers’ way to decide the Angle

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

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

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

4. Writers’ way to start writing

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

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

The research found that Participant A usually started his writing by explaining the main topic and proposing a relevant question. Here, the way in which Participant A started his writing was the same with Participant C. But, in addition, Participant A sometimes proposed a general viewpoint in both theoretical and philosophical to start his writing. The way in which Participant A started his writing by proposing a relevant question is seen in his article entitled “Guru, Festival Menulis, dan Noblesse Oblige” (Published in Suara Daerah PGRI Jawa Barat magazine, 2011). The sentence is:
“Dari siapa warga Negara ini –di tataran sosiologis– menguasai kemampuan menulis, kalau bukan dari guru?”

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

6. Writers’ way to defend their argument

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

Table 6 Writers’ way to defend their argument

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant A</th>
<th>Participant B</th>
<th>Participant C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(MDK)</td>
<td>(AT)</td>
<td>(INS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting a logical argument that is adapted with the belief and knowledge of public. The argument can be a textual argument from some references. Besides, the argument can be also a contextual argument by considering the principle to keep the old things that are good, and find the new things that are better.</td>
<td>Stating theorems that are suitable with the writing topic. For democracy and election topics, for example, the arguments are defended by stating the theorems of truth, justice, and public interest based on democracy and election principles.</td>
<td>Presenting a comprehensive explanation that is supported by factual data, religious theorems, and some relevant books.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After deciding their standing position of argument, the writers defend their arguments in different ways. Participant A defended his argument by presenting a logical argument that was adapted with the belief and knowledge of public that would be faced. The argument could be a textual argument from some references such as Holy book and books as well as constitutional book [laws]. Besides, the argument could be also a contextual argument by considering the principle to keep the old things that are good, and find the new things that are better. The way in which Participant A defended his argument by presenting a textual argument can be seen in his article entitled “NKRI, HMI, dan IPM” (Published in Pikiran Rakyat newspaper, February 5th, 2015). The sentence is (at the third paragraph of the article):

“There is information about the HDI or IPM of Indonesia 2013 in the 108th ranking from 187 states in the world with the grade IPM 0.684.”

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

7. Writers’ way to develop their argument

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

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

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

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

8. Writers’ way to close their writing

Since the introductory paragraph is the first thing that the readers will see, the conclusion will be the last. But, there will be some readers who may look at the conclusion first to get a quick idea of the main arguments or points (Bailey, 2003, p. 42). Thus, the writers should provide an interesting ending that covers all topics that are being discussed. This research found that there were some similarities and differences of how the writers closed their writing. Those ways are presented in the following table.
Table 8 Writers’ way to close their writing

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

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

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

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

Then, Participant A sometimes closed his writing by presenting a rhetorical question or giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on the writer’s opinion. The way in which Participant A closed his writing by giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on his opinion is seen in his article entitled “Caleg Bermutu Tinggi” (Published in Bandung Ekspres newspaper, 2013) in the last paragraph:
“Parpol jenis itu bukan parpol murahan yang menjual murah wewenangnya, akan tetapi parpol yang memiliki harga diri, integritas kelembagaan yang baik, dan imej yang baik pula. Dan parpol jenis inilah yang sesungguhnya berhak bahkan wajib menjadi pilihan rakyat.”

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

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

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

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

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

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

### Conceptualization of Idea

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

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

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

### The Writing Process

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

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

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

#### Close Writing
1) Presenting a prayer.
2) Stating a critical statement and confirmation.
3) Presenting a rhetorical question.
4) Giving an argumentative statement that persuades the readers to take side on the writer’s opinion.
5) Presenting a conclusion.
6) Stating a brief suggestion.
7) Stating a proverb, poetry, or statement of public figures/actors.

---

1) Reading any kinds of sources.
2) Watching television programs.
3) Observing some big events that will be held.
4) Heeding on seminar.
5) Discussion.
6) Considering the national day celebration of religious and state affairs.
7) Seeing directly some social affairs.
8) Heeding on lectures of the lecture and public figure.
1. Factors causing the writers get stuck when writing

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

Table 9 Factors causing the writers get stuck when writing

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

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

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

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

2. External factors influencing the continuity of the writing process

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

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

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

After writing, there are still some stages until the argumentative writing is published, it is called publication. According to *The 1976 Copyright Act* (in Litman, 1987), publication is the distribution of copies or phonorecords of a work to the public by sale or other transfer of ownership, or by rental, lease, or lending. Each writer in this research explained the stages and gave his own suggestions when someone wanted to publish his argumentative writing. Those stages are presented in the following table.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant A</th>
<th>Participant B</th>
<th>Participant C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(MDK)</td>
<td>(AT)</td>
<td>(INS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I send my argumentative writing complete with my curriculum vitae, ID card, and photo to the editor through his email address. Some newspapers usually gives a response whether my argumentative writing is published or not in two days or a week. But, other newspapers often ignore it, even they publish the argumentative writing without notifying the writer.</td>
<td>I send the softcopy file of my written product via editor’s email address complete with cover later that tells about the main topic of the writing theme. The notification is delivered by using polite language, humble, and do not act like a teacher/dictate the editor. After that, I tell the editor via SMS/WA/BB with a hope that the editor will be interested in our written product’s theme and read it immediately.</td>
<td>Deciding the writing theme that is up-to-date, knowing the characteristics of the media, following the rules of the writing (since there are some difference rules between each media), reviewing the written product, and after that sending it to the media through the editor’s email address.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

**Figure 3 Stages of Publication**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writer submits the argumentative writing via editor’s email address</th>
<th>Newspaper editor screens the argumentative writing</th>
<th>Newspaper Editor decides whether or not to publish</th>
<th>Writer is informed of decision</th>
<th>Published</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Conclusion**

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

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

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

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

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

References


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

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

Keywords: Wondershare Quiz Creator, Multimedia, reading comprehension
Introduction

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

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

Literature review

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension skills are essential for academic and professional success. Recognizing the words and being fluent in reading may not guaranty that students comprehend what they read because reading comprehension requires the ability to understand and to make sense of the message from the text (Stearns, 2012; Shanahan, et al., 2010). Current perspective on teaching reading suggests the integration of both bottom-up and top-down process to fostering the development of reading comprehension (Hinkel, 2006). Studies on the effectiveness of reading instruction emphasized teaching variables such as word recognition and skill instruction, teacher modeling and coaching, elicit higher-order thinking either through the questions or the tasks to promote reading growth (Taylor, Pearson, Peterson, & Rodriguez, 2003), teaching explicit reading comprehension strategies (Van Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005), and using hands-on activities and interesting text to increase students’ engagement and reading proficiency (Guthrie, et al., 2004).
Wondershare quiz Creator program

Wonder share quiz creator (WQC) program is a multimedia software tool designed to create test and exam. This windows-based software has nine exam-types; true or false exams, multiple-choice exams and multiple-response exams, fill-in-the-blanks exams, matching exams, Sequence exams, word bank exams, click-map exams and short essay exams which all can be delivered in an interactive way using multi-media illustrations such as images, sounds, and movies. This tool has the capability to design activities for practicing language skills and subskills as well as having the capability to check students’ understanding in all language skills (Aghighi & Motamed, 2013). Aside from a number of research literatures highlight the advantage of integrating WQC program as an interactive learning media to improve language skills, to generates students’ interest and self-reliance (Ampa, 2015; Aghighi & Motamed, 2013 ), Aghighi & Motamed (2013) still noticed lack of special module for reading comprehension activities using this program.

Method

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

Intervention

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

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

Student’s engagement in reading lesson

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

Table 1 Elements of engagement in reading

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

N=30

Students’ view of reading activities designed in WSQ program

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>What do you think about reading lesson designed in WQS</th>
<th>Frequency (in percentage)</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Encourage me to read</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Enjoyable</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Help me to read independently</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Increase my confidence in reading</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=30

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

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

References


Title

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach English to Young Learners

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Abstract

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

**Keywords:** English, instructions, musical intelligence, young learners

**Introduction**

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

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

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

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

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Speaking

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

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

1. Act: Create a dramatization with the theme of the song.
2. Different rhythms: Have students sing the same song in different rhythms.
3. Graphic representation: After listening to the song make a drawing trying to represent the meaning of the song and then explain it.

4. Imitation: Have students pretend they are the singers of the song.

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

Activity 1: Music to Promote Speaking Skill

**Step 1**  Teacher instructs the class to make seat arrangement into U shape

**Step 2**  Teacher plays the music. Students may stand up or sit down while listening music. Students are freely to make reaction to the music they are listening to.

**Step 3**  The teacher finds out whether the students like it or not. (If they do not like it, teacher may change to another music)

**Step 4**  Teacher then play the video of the music they have listened to. Students are asked to stand up and to make movement they want to, the movement should be based on the video they have watched. Remember not to force the children to act exactly the same as in the video.

**Step 5**  Stop the video. Teacher then modelling the act by singing the song. Encourage the students to follow your act. And, teacher points head and ask “yes” or “no” then do other parts. Do it with correct and incorrect way.

**Step 6**  Play the video together and sing together. Don’t forget to imitate the act!

**Step 7**  Students are asked to make their parts of body picture and the name of each part in it. Then, ask the students to show their picture and tell them in front of class. By modelling the student to say “this is my ....” for single noun “these are my...” for plural.

**Step 8**  Finish to present in front of the class. The teacher then ask to students to pint out “where is my nose?” and encourage the students to shout “This is my nose!”

End up the lesson by singing and acting together.
Choose the music or song that invites students to act for students 7+ years old. In this activity, “I’m a little teapot” song is selected.

**Step 1** Teacher instructs the class to make seat arrangement into U shape. Distribute the lyrics to the students. The students may feel confused to read it. Then, teacher sings the song to invite students to sing together.

**Step 2** Teacher plays the music and ask the students to sing together. After that, teacher distributes the card named “friends of little tea pot” consisting the vocabulary on cooking wares.

**Step 3** Ask the students to pick up one of cards. Then change the lyrics of “tea pot” with the vocabulary on the card.

**Step 4** Give students opportunity to change the song lyrics freely and creatively rather than the ryhtnm. The students may ask a question. Explain the rule to them to use the sentence “Excuse me, Miss, can I change the lyrics into...” or “Excuse me, Miss, can I ask something...” to promote speaking English in classroom.

**Step 5** After finishing to change the lyrics, they should demonstrate the result of their work by singing the song they have composed.

**Step 6** Explain to students that there is a competition. Teacher will choose the best lyrics and performance. Ask them to introduce first of their alias name (they have to create the singer’s name, example: Tina simpson or Jeni Gomez) and the title of the song.

**Step 7** End up the lesson by singing together the song entitled “I’m a little tea pot”

**Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Reading**

Traves (1994) states reading is a fundamental skill for learners, not just for learning but for life. Grabe & Stoller (2001: 9) define reading as “…the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately”. Reader not only needs to read fluently but also to be able to know about what will happen next in a text by making predictions, a meaningful and specific goal for reading is set up as they make predictions in order to be good readers. With a lifetime of reading adventures ahead of them, young children are well on their way to becoming literate (Schiller, 2000). Today many kindergarten classrooms have become replicas of first grade with children sitting at desks completing worksheets, learning to sound out words, and memorizing sight words (Marxen, Ofstedal &
Danbom, 2008). It can be assumed children have limited prior knowledge of reading as they enter schools, in this situation the first grade students cannot be taught with conventional reading activities, giving them texts and finding meaning of text is not effective. Hill-Clarke & Robinson (2004) state that each individual student learns in a different way. Because of all the different learning styles, teachers need to use a variety of techniques to meet these varied learning styles, and music provides the opportunity to use a variety of teaching techniques. Learning through music may be very effective because it stimulates the brain while it is processing information (Brown & Brown, 2008).

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

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

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

**Activity 2: Music to Promote Reading Skill**

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

**Step 2** Teacher then share the flashcard that contains the letter “B,I,N,G,O” to each student. Once the song played the student has to read the flashcard loudly “B,I,N,G,O” while singing the song.

**Step 3** Teacher sit on the floor with all students surrounding . Teacher then tell a story about dog named BINGO. Student listen to the story carefully.

**Step 4** Teacher asks several questions about the story. Then, the teacher distributes the paper to each students. In paper consist of paragraph and picture about dog. Each paper has different paragraph and picture from the others.

**Step 5** Teacher let the students to choose which dog that they like. One student may change their paper to the others or they can join to read the paper because they like the same dog.

**Step 6** After that, ask them about what they have read.

**Step 7** End up the lesson by singing together.

For students 10+, choose the music or song that invites students to recall vocabulary on food. In this activity, “Pat-a-Cake, Pat-a-Cake, Baker's Man” or “Pease Porridge Hot.”
Step 1  Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement in order they can watch the video easily.

Step 2  The video of songs are played while students read the lyrics. Play the video once again and make them sing together. After that, ask the students what the song is about?

Step 3  The song is about the food. Teacher ask the students what food they like. Ask them what is the food that they like in English, give the students appreciation of being capable to answer the questions. Example: “Bakso, do you like Bakso? Bakso is meatball in English”

Step 4  Tell the class that they are going to read about western food like in the song “pease porridge hot”.

Step 5  Teacher has prepared the article about the western food without the picture of the food itself in the article. Be sure that the total number of article is the same with the number of students. Then, distribute the article to students and let them to read what article that they like to read.

Step 6  After that, ask them about “what title of article that they have read?” “what is the content?” and etc.

Step 7  Let the students imagine what the foods they like and draw them on the paper about their imagination.

Step 8  Finish in drawing, the teacher then views the picture of each food in each article. The students may feel happy, wonder, and shock by comparing the imagination and reality.

Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Writing

Young children’s early attempts at writing help develop their emerging literacy skills. Children start to learn and master the functions and goals of writing (listing grocery they have) and begin to understand the alphabet letters and numbers in the forms and features of written language since they were in two years age. According to Neuman (2007), “writing and reading are related and depend on each other.” Between the ages of 4 and 7, children begin to translate the sound they hear in words into the letters that represent them. Children’s early writing attempts are an important way to express their growing phonemic awareness. Related to early writing is the development of concepts of print. Concept of print refers to children’s knowledge of the functions of print and how print works (Strickland &
Schickedanz, 2005). Young children’s understanding of concepts of print has scientifically based research support as a predictor of early literacy success (Snow et al, 1998; National Early Literacy Panel, 2007). Educators can help children build concepts of print by providing experiences with books and written texts, and developing a print-rich classroom environment.

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

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

1. Standley and Hughes (1997) engaged children aged 4–5 years in 15 lessons that used music to enhance the teaching of writing and prereading skills. Children were primarily economically disadvantaged, and included migrant preschoolers and students with disabilities. Instruction included focus on concepts of print, participation in singing activities, and writing response activities. At post-testing, children in the experimental group showed enhanced print concepts and prewriting skills.

2. A subsequent study by Register (2001) replicated the previous study with a larger sample size of 50 children. The results again showed that children who received the music-enhanced instruction made greater gains in writing skills and print awareness.

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

**Activity 3: Music to Promote Writing Skill**

**Step 1** Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement

**Step 2** Teacher plays the music. Students may stand up or sit down while listening music. Teacher lets students to make free reaction to the music they are listening to. Play the video until the students feel enjoy and try to mimicking the lyrics.

**Step 3** Teacher ask the students to make list of animals mentioned in the song and identify their name.

**Step 4** Teacher imitate the sounds and gestures of animals listed. Encourage
students to follow the action. And ask them “What is the sound of pig?” etc.

**Step 5**  Stop the video. Then, ask them to sit around the teacher. Teacher begin to tell story about the “Lost Pig.” Ask questions about the story in the middle and end of it.

**Step 6** Teacher asks students make some draws of the animal or around them. If they have a pet, then please name the pet. Let the students use their imagination in drawing and colouring it. Be sure that they draw more than one animal.

**Step 7** After that, teacher asks the students to name each animal in English.

**Step 8** The teacher recall the vocabulary of body parts and ask to the students “Where is the leg?” “Where is the mouth?” and etc.

**Step 9** Ask the students to write down the vocabulary of each body part of animal.

**Step 10** End up the lesson by singing together.

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

**Step 1** Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement

**Step 2** Teacher plays video of music or song. Teacher instruct the class to stand up and sing together.

**Step 3** Teacher ask the students about animals that they know? and which one of their favourite?

**Step 4** Stop the video. Then, ask them to sit around the teacher. Teacher begin to tell story about the “Lost Pig.” Ask questions about the story in the middle and end of it.

**Step 5** Then, teacher distribute the flashcard about animal to students. One student has one card. Each card different from the others.

**Step 6** Students are instructed to write down about animal description on the card. Give them more time and space, instead of limit it. Instruct them to do free writing. This could promote writing to them.

**Step 7** At the end of the lesson students are asked to read their writing in front of the class.
Musical Intelligence Based Instructions to Teach Listening

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

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

In teaching listening using musical intelligence based instructions, physical activities are required to strengthen students’ memory of words, grammar patterns and meanings. Phillips (1993) states that we should incorporate some of the techniques from the Total Physical Response (TPR) approach (such as Listen and Do songs). Richards and Rodgers (2001) argue TPR is built around the coordination of speech and action, focusing on teaching languages through physical activity. This is an extremely useful and adaptable teaching technique, especially in the case of young learners who listen to their teacher’s instructions in the form of commands and then follow those instructions. For example, in the introduction of new commands, the teacher first says, “Wash your hands,” and then shows the action to this command. Next, the teacher gives the command and asks the students to perform the action. Similar routines are carried out all through the lesson. Likewise, Sarıçoban and Metin (2000) suggest that adding motions that parallel the words of the song makes songs more meaningful and enjoyable. Providing dynamic songs which allow students do dancing to liven up the learning atmosphere. By doing so, there seems to be general agreement among teachers and
students that presenting songs to young learners is the most effective way on learning
listening. The following is the activity can be described: provide the simple song that
contains simple vocabulary to make students easy to catch it for students below 6 years old.
“Wheel on the bus” is selected to teach listening.

**Activity 4: Music to Promote Listening Skill**

**Step 1** Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement. In order the
students could watch the video easily.

**Step 2** Teacher play the music video. Teacher instruct the class to stand up and
sing together. Teacher can play more than one until students remember
the vocabulary.

**Step 3** The video will be paused over and over and let the students to continue
the lyrics. For example: “The wheel on the bus go...” and the student
answers “round and round”...until the song finish.

**Step 4** Distribute the picture of bus to each student. Circleling the part of bus
that is mentioned in the song they are listening.

**Step 5** At the end of lesson students are instructed to read their writing in front
of the class.

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

**Step 1** Teacher instructs the class into U shape seat arrangement

**Step 2** Teacher play the music or song in the form of mp3 by using speaker
active. Ask the students to sing together.

**Step 3** Ask the students about the song? Then distribute the paper contains
jumbled lyrics.

**Step 4** Teacher plays the song more than one time to let students listen well
and write down the missing lyric on paper.

**Step 5** Instruct for each student to exchange their works randomly, then, each
of them has to sing the lyric written by friends.

**Step 6** End up the lesson by inviting the students to sing together.
Conclusion

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

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

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

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

Introduction

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

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

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

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

The social media are computer-mediated tools that allow people to create, share idea, exchange information, and pictures/videos in virtual communities and networks through the internet. Social media also is the collective of online communications channels dedicated to community-based input, interaction, content-sharing and collaboration. It is becoming an integral part of life online as social website and has enabled changes in the way of people live, work, interact and acquire knowledge and learning via the internet (Kaplan & Michael, 2010; Almeida, 2002; Kietzmann, 2011; Tang, et al, 2012; Aichner and Jacob, 2015).
Today, the internet has become a part of people life, activities, work, and acquiring knowledge over the world. Based on Yahoo’s survey on the number of internet users in 2010, 1 of 3 citizens of the world accessed internet and 64% the internet users are 15-40 years old. The online activities that they use are e-mail (64%); instant messaging (71%); social media (58%); writing on blog (36%); online news (47%); and online games (35%). As we can see on Yahoo’s survey, most people do instant messaging or known as chatting through the social media when getting online (Yahoo! Index survey statistic, 2011).

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

**Purpose of the Study**

This study aims at answering the following questions:

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

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

**Method**

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

**Findings and Discussions**

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

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

Table 1. The Percentage of Students’ Interest

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

Table 2. The Mean Score of Students’ Interest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Respondent</th>
<th>Total of students’ score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1711</td>
<td>85.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students’ Writing Level

Table 3. The Percentage of Students’ Writing Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Experimental Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>89-100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>78-88</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly Good</td>
<td>67-77</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>56-66</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>45-55</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>33-44</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

![Figure 1. Students' Writing Level (N=20) (185)](image-url)
Table 4. Components of Students’ Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Language use</th>
<th>Mechanics</th>
<th>Writing Score</th>
<th>Category Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Fairly good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Very poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

Conclusion

The study concluded that the use of Social Media- Facebook increased the students’ interest in joining the writing class. It was proved by the mean score based on the questionnaire was 85.55 which were categorized as strongly interested based on interpretation data. This led to the conclusion that the students have interest to use Social Media- Facebook in writing English and it keep the students’ interest to study English. This media attract the students of English very well. There are many ways to arouse students’ interest by considering clear goals, varied topics, visuals, challenging, entertainment, and personalization (Ur, 1996: 281).

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

References


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

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

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

Introduction

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

Literature Review

Good language learners

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

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

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

Language learning styles refer to “general approaches to language learning” (Cohen, 2003, p. 279), whereas language learning strategies refer to “specific behaviors that learners select in their language learning and use” (ibid.). Insofar second language learning is concerned, in addition to the general learning styles such as visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic, there are also styles which relate specifically to process of learning a second language. These styles include communicative, analytical, authority-oriented and concrete (Willing 1994 in Wong and Nunan, 2011). As defined by Wong and Nunan (2011), the communicative style refers to the style where learners tend to use the target language in order to learn it. The analytical style, on the other hand, refers to the style where learners like doing problem solving tasks, such as analysing set of words on page. The authority-oriented style refers to the style where learners are largely dependent on the teachers or other learners to help them learn the target language, while the concrete learning style refers to the style where learners prefer learning the target language with the help of concrete objects and activities. These four types of language learning style, however, are not exclusive in that they operate in a degree of continuum. In other words, learners with a communicative learning style, for instance, will not always feel daunted when asked to study grammar of the target language through abstract reasoning. However, such learners are likely to perform better when the tasks given require them to produce output in the target language. As regards second language learning strategies, Oxford (1990) pointed out six strategies that are usually used by second language learners in learning a second language. These strategies include memory, cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, affective, and social strategies. All of these strategies, according to Cohen (2003), are executed by the learners in practice in conjunction with the type of task and their learning style.

Methodology

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Findings and Discussion

Findings

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

Table 1: Summary of the interview data

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very good (able to understand and produce the normal rate speech. Repetition or rephrasing was only occasionally required).</th>
<th>Very good (able to understand and produce the normal rate speech. Repetition or rephrasing was only occasionally required).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Strategies of learning Indonesian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Focused on use through interpersonal communication</th>
<th>Focused on use through interpersonal communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Reason for learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>As a major of study in higher education</th>
<th>As a major of study in higher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Reason for learning Indonesian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>As a medium of communication with the society</th>
<th>As a medium of communication with the society</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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

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

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

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

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

The other factor which has contributed to the marked difference of the two learners’ proficiency in English is related to their eagerness to use the target language in authentic communicative contexts. That is, it is shown from the results of the interviews that Rodi was more active in using English to communicate with his friends and teachers than Liam who felt much more comfortable to use Indonesian when communicating with his friends and teachers. As regards their motivation in learning English, therefore, Rodi was apparently more motivated than Liam (Macnamara, 1971, cited in Rubin, 1975, p. 43). Rodi’s activeness in using English in communication was influenced by two factors. First, the fact that he already maintained good communicative skills in English even before he started studying English in an Indonesian university had helped him not to lose face when communicating with his friends and teachers in English. Secondly, Rodi’s close friends always used English to communicate with him most of the time. These two conditions might have espoused his motivation to keep on using English and thus enhanced his proficiency thereof (for more detailed discussion on this issue see Waninge, et al. 2014; Clement, et al. 1994; Dörnyei, 1990).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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


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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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


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

Question: Siapa? Kamu?

[Who? You?]  

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

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

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

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

Learning strategies in second language learning contexts

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

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

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

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

**Conclusion**

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

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

**References**


Appendix 1. The interview guideline

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

Name :
Gender :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Abstract

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

Keywords: effective English teacher, students’ perception

Introduction

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

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

**Literature Review**

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

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

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

**Findings and Discussion**

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

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

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

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

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

**Conclusion**

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

**References**


