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Knowledge Sharing Practices in EFL Classroom at Higher Education in Indonesia
Title
Of Learning beyond the Class:
A Survey on Millennial Generations of Indonesian Pre-Service Teachers

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Introduction
Different circumstances of learning English as a foreign language in any places regardless those where authentic and meaningful exposure as well as is difficult to access due to its status have already been widely made by rapid development of technology and media. The technology and media had led the millennial generation (or generation Y) who epitomize ‘the digital native’ to unavoidably get into unintentional use of English since they often interact with people across the state borders. This generation has more positive view of technology, which might influence the characteristic of their learning English, especially in the context of EFL. Even though Indonesia is one of the expanding circle countries (according to Karachi concept of world Englishes) where English exposure for learners is much subjected to classroom teaching since the status of English is not as the nationwide lingual franca, for the millennial generations it has virtually given much richer English exposure since the technology helps them optimize their learning English through social media. Thus, out-of-class mode of learning becomes big promise as a panacea for solving one of the problems in escalating the success of teaching and learning English in the expanding countries. The out-of-class learning, which theoretically was based by autonomous learning and self-directed learning, in fact offers a new path in recent atmosphere of EFL learning. Many research findings told the importance of out-of-class learning, for instance, the important role of teachers’ advice on motivating students’ attempts to do out-of-class learning (Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010), how learners’ activities after class go on through utilizing technology, or how students use technology for any activities beyond the class after joining their teachers’ use technological resources in class (Lai, 2014; Lai & Gu, 2011). Obviously, the use of technology is really
helpful for empowering students to explore learning beyond the class. In the context of ELT in the expanding country, for example, Al-Shehri (2011) identifies potential use mobile phones and social networking to contextualize language learning. Another researcher, Al-Shahrani (2012), also highlights the urgent need for Saudi EFL teachers to consider such technologies in their teaching. It is apparent that relating in-class learning to the out-class learning in ELT means significant in the context of accelerating the students’ accomplishment. Pre-service teachers as the future teacher candidates need to be empowered in terms of maximizing how to manage out-class atmosphere to help students’ learning in class. This study aims at surveying how pre-service teachers of the millennial generations viewed learning beyond the class and what in-class efforts they took to drive students’ out-class learning when they do practice teaching. Specifically, the study answered the following research questions:

1. How do EFL pre-service teachers empower the students to make out-of-class speaking practices through home-assignments?
2. How are EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the out-of-class practices with students through daily-talks outside the lesson hours?
3. How do EFL pre-service teachers believe about media that the students used for self-directed learning outside the class?

Review of Literature

The defined concept of learning beyond the classroom always relates the concept of learner’s autonomy. It refers to the mode of learning which give more spaces on out-of-class learning, out-of-school learning, after-school learning, extracurricular and extramural learning, non-formal and informal learning, self-instructed learning, non-instructed and naturalistic learning, independent learning, or self-directed learning (Benson, 2011). In regard with EFL acquisition, learning beyond the class is helpful for the L2 acquisition, according to Ellis (2008), can happen most rapidly via a combination of formal instruction and exposure to the target language. This mode of learning in fact meets the learner’s needs and preferences, as it is believed to be very helpful to for accomplishing better achievement learners (Victori & Lockhart, 1995). There have been many researches supporting the effectiveness of out-class learning, i.e. some findings revealing that learners with better proficiency often admitted their success to out-of-class learning (Benson 2011; Lamb and Reinders 2008; Ushioda 2001, Yorozu 2001, Wenden 2001, Lamb 2002; Victori & Lockhart,
1995; Pickard 1995); others showed the important role of teachers’ advice on motivating students’ attempts to do out-of-class learning (Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010). In addition, other studies confirmed that after joining their teachers to use technological resources in class, students tend to use them for any activities of learning beyond the class (Lai, 2014; Lai & Gu, 2011); however, because of a lack of technological resources or ability to use them, learners are not confident to engage out-of-class learning (Gamble et al., 2012; McKinney, Vacca, Medvedeva, & Malak, 2004). Therefore, some teachers still need knowledge or skills to help their students design or use effective technological resources, which finally can drive them for the out-of-class use (Carson & Mynard, 2012; Kop & Fournier, 2011; Reinders, 2010).

Furthermore, the role of learning beyond the classroom is extremely useful in increasing quality of the L2 learning outcomes since it is help utilize to obtain ample exposure of the target language. Bialystok (1981) said that out-class exposure is really helpful for learners to achieve language tasks. This idea was supported by many research findings, i.e. Scarcella and Oxford (1992: 183) who assured that target language community provides information about L2 registers helping development of proficiency for learners; and Rubin and Thompson (1994: 22) who revealed that target language discourse beyond the classroom offers learners appropriate use of language and the nature of conversation.

A shifting ground occurred in the terminology of teacher education for the past 30 years. By the mid-1980s, studies on teacher education put their main focus on how the teachers engaged in complex thinking and interpretation when they taught their students in the classroom (Elbaz, 1983; Clandinin, 1986). Other recent researches suggested to put the term ‘teacher education’ into the superordinate terms of teacher training and teacher development. This concept told the absence of the dichotomous and sequential programs in the teacher training and teacher development; instead, they have to serve as complementary and integrated strategies (Freeman, 1982; Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Freeman, 1989). In regard with this notion, Johnson (2009) said that knowledge base of L2 teacher education encapsulated at least three broad areas, i.e. 1) knowledge about what L2 teachers need to know, 2) knowledge about how L2 teachers should teach and 3) knowledge about how L2 teachers learn to teach. All these knowledge need to be given to the students of L2 teacher training in order to prepare them in the anticipation of being professional L2 teachers after they graduate. Studies focusing on L2 teachers and activities of L2 teaching urged that the essential knowledge which is critical for L2 teachers is the content of L2 teaching itself.
(Freeman and Johnson, 1998); pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987); or practitioner knowledge (Hiebert et al., 2002). The content of L2 teaching per se has been connected to the disciplinary knowledge about SLA theories and how to apply these to language instruction in the classroom. Many studies revealed a long-made claim telling that SLA plays a critical role in how L2 is taught (Chaudron 1988; O’Malley and Chamont 1990; VanPatton 1989). Pedagogical content knowledge is methodological knowledge in L2 teaching, which classified by Freeman et al (2009) as the pedagogical content knowledge (capacity to transform content into accessible or learnable forms – curriculum/syllabus) and the pedagogical practical knowledge (teaching itself—teaching methods, classroom management, and evaluation). Practitioner knowledge means the one that is generated from L2 teachers who experienced more real practices in L2 teaching and learning. In addition, there are also more findings (Burns 1999; Cochran-Smith and Lytle 1999; Edge and Richards 1993; Freeman 1998) that legitimated practitioner knowledge as an important thing for L2 teacher education.

The emergence of TESOL in 1960s brought about a debate on the two strands of the core of curriculum in L2 teacher education, whether focusing more on the content or delivery (Burns & Richards, 2009), the practical teaching skills or academic knowledge (Johnson, 2009). However, more recent literature argued that the main goals of L2 teacher education focused on examining the students’ mental processes and situated and social nature of L2 learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991); thus L2 teachers have to consider the target language as a means of mediating thinking (Vygotsky, 1978; Leont’ev, 1981); or as Gee (1996, 2004) labeled ‘social language’ which means language can serve different functions in society; or as in line with what Bhaktin (1981) said that any L2 utterance creates contexts of use and genre. Furthermore, Freeman and Johnson (1998) supported that direction of teaching and learning in the L2 teacher education give more attention to how language learners acquire L2, rather than on how L2 is practiced and learned. In this mode of learning, L2 teacher educations should stress the importance of teacher proficiency and professional development (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), language proficiency (Lavender, 2002), or language skills maintenance program that engages L2 teachers-in-preparation in independent language task (Barnes, 2002). Burns & Richards (2009) gave the perspective that L2 teacher education should not be viewed as translating knowledge and theories into practices but rather as constructing new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in
particular types of activities and processes. As a consequence, L2 teaching and learning process occurred through social interaction within a community of practice.

Learner autonomy has been becoming the general concept that illuminated the discussions of EFL out-of-class learning. Among the various definitions of learner autonomy, Benson (2008), Garrison (1997), and Stolk et al (2010) summarized two layers of autonomy, namely: the students’ abilities to self-regulate by empowering surrounding opportunities, and abilities to self-regulate across contexts. Various researches told the results on the importance of teachers’ advice in encouraging learners to do learning outside class (Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010). Others found that after joining their teachers to use technological resources in class, students tend to use them for any activities of learning beyond the class (Lai, 2014; Lai & Gu, 2011). In addition, the influence of assignment, assessment and materials given in class toward both the quality and quantity of learners’ autonomous learning beyond the class (Fukuda & Yoshida, 2013; Guo, 2011; Saad, Yunus & Embi, 2013; Zhan & Andrews, 2014). However, some learners do not have more confidence in engaging the out-class learning due to the lack of technological resources or ability (Gamble et al., 2012; McKinney, Vacca, Medvedeva, & Malak, 2004); thus, teachers still have to get the skills to help their students design or use effective technological resources which finally are able to drive them for the out-of-class use (Carson & Mynard, 2012; Kop & Fournier, 2011; Reinders, 2010).

There has been growing interest in investigating teacher’s cognitive aspect (i.e. teachers think, know, and believe) and its connection to classroom activities in L2 teaching for the last 30 years (Woods, 1996; Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2006). The investigations used insights from the science of psychology to argue that understanding teacher’s cognition is the vital to understand teaching. Teacher belief which is latent was often unconsciously used in making the assumptions about learning activities (Kagan, 1992: 65, cited in Ferrell, 1999: 2). In addition, according to Richards "teacher beliefs form a set of principles that are derived from experience, school practice, personality, education theory, reading, and other resources" (Richards, 1998: 66-67). Evidently, more research findings revealed the significance of belief about in-class learning activities to the language learner success in both inside and outside class (see Feiman-Nemser and Floden 1986; Richards, et al. 1991; Freeman 1992a; Johnson 1992a; Yang, 1999; Horwitz, 1988; Farrell, Thomas S.C. and Bennis, K., 2013; Zare-ee, A & Salami, M. 2014; Lamb, 2008; Lai, Lai, Wang, & Lei, 2012).
Method

Participant

The current study used pre-service teachers (i.e. students of faculty of teacher training) from three different Indonesian universities, i.e. Mulawarman University, Borneo University, and Widyagama Mahakam University as the respondents. There were 150 participants consisting of 44 students taken from faculty of teacher training in Mulawarman University, 57 students from Borneo University, and 49 students from Widyagama Mahakam University (table 1). The participants were either those who have experiences in teaching English in schools/courses while they studying or those who have already taken the micro teaching course and internship teaching course as a part of the prerequisite credits for the Bachelor Program (or Sarjana - SI) of English language education. The sampling technique used was random sampling. In addition, the participants have provided their informed consents to account for research ethic.

Table 1: Distribution of sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Name of University</th>
<th>Number of samples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mulawarman University, Samarinda</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Borneo University, Tarakan</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Widyagama Mahakam University, Samarinda</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instrument

The questionnaire was developed by combining items adopted and adapted as well from various existing questionnaires about belief references, out-of-class ELT learning, and autonomous learning in EFL class (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014; Richards & Lockhart, 1992). There were two parts of the questionnaires: 1) close-ended (Appendix 1), and 2) open-ended (Appendix 2). The close-ended contained 13 statements on four-point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree), consisting of 4 items asking the way EFL pre-service teachers empowered the students to make out-of-class speaking practices, 4 items asking the way EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the out-of-class practices with students, and 5 items asking how EFL pre-service teachers believed about media the
students used for self-directed learning outside the class. Meanwhile, the open-ended consisted of the same statements that have been put in the open-ended questionnaire, but asking the reasons why EFL pre-service teachers chose the item with least agreement on them.

The questionnaire were piloted to other 15 undergraduate students of the faculty of teacher training, Mulawarman University. The purpose of the piloting was to have comments on the unclear or ambiguous items from the participants of the pilot groups. On the basis of the results of the piloting, the revisions were done for the betterment of the questionnaires before they were used. When they were used in real field, the questionnaires was translated in Indonesian language for the purpose of complete comprehension.

Data Collecting Procedure and Analysis

The data were collected by distributing questionnaires to the participants. The process of fulfilling the questionnaires was tightly supervised by enumerators to ensure the participants’ seriousness in answering the questions and to avoid misinterpretation. There were twice administration of distributing questionnaire; first, the participants were asked to fulfilled the close-ended questionnaire; then based on the result of the first questionnaire, the participants were classified into two groups: 1) high group, i.e. those who have high total score of agreement and 2) those with low total score of agreement. The score was < 50 for the low, and above > 50 for the high. Those with low total score of agreement were then given chance to answer the second part of the questionnaire. The data from the close-ended questionnaire were then analyzed by using SPSS 14.0 program. Descriptive statistics (i.e. to know the minimum and maximum score and the mean of the items answered in the questionnaire) were used. In the meantime, data from the open-ended questionnaire were calculated by using frequency analysis and themes of reasons.

Findings

Results of open-ended questionnaire

To answer the first research question, the result of the close-ended questionnaire revealed various answers expressing the EFL pre-service teachers’ agreements on the statements given. As shown in table 2, the mean score of the statement ‘I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home’ was the highest (mean= 2.16) among the four ways EFL pre-service teachers empowered the students to make out-of-class speaking practices. It means that most EFL pre-service teachers
do attempts to maximize the *out-of-class* speaking practices by giving their students more English reading materials to read at home. On the other hand, the statement of ‘*I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home*’ was the statement that gained the weakest agreement (mean=1.26). It can be drawn that less EFL pre-service teachers give assignments related to practice speaking with native English speakers found in surrounding their home place.

*Table 2: The way EFL pre-service teachers empowered their students to make out-of-class speaking practices through home-assignments*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th># of items</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students assignments to do speaking practice with peers at home</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the answer of the second research question, EFL pre-service teachers in fact also have ways in which they did practices with learners outside the class. According to the result of close-ended questionnaire (table 3), participants were asked whether they were involved themselves in four activities as their daily talks with learners outside the class in four options, i.e. 1) “*in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places*”, 2)
“in the extracurricular activities such as English conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular advisor”, 3) “in routine small talks outside the lesson hours”, and 4) “in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.”. Of all statements given, the smallest agreement was put by the participants on the statement of “the daily out-of-class talking” (mean=1.300); meanwhile the biggest agreement was put on the statement of “in the extracurricular, such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser” (mean = 1.787). This means that being an adviser of curricular activity such English conversation club seems favorite to the EFL pre-service teachers for their means of being involved in practicing their English with their students outside the lesson hours. Interestingly, they are not interested in routine small talks outside the lesson hours, which is in fact also the way of outside class practice with the students. Compared to the extracurricular activity, the routine small talks outside the lesson hours is more freely done, instead of not being formally managed; therefore it is too informal to involve. Evidently, it the formality which tends to lead the EFL pre-service teachers to do speaking practice with the students outside the lesson hours.

Table 3: The way EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the out-of-class practices with students through daily talks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of items</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in routine small talks outside the lesson hours</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 150
In terms of how do EFL pre-service teachers believed about media their students used for self-directed learning outside the class, participants under study were given 5 statements to which they had to give their agreements. As shown by table 4, the strongest agreement was put in the statement of “I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class” (mean=3.21); while the statement which had least agreement was “I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class” (mean=2.67). It means that according to EFL pre-service teachers beliefs, EFL learners in this region have no problem if they want to utilize authentic media such as broadcasting programs for enriching L2 exposure. However, most EFL learners do not often meet foreigners as sources persons for practicing to speak English.

*Table 4: How do EFL pre-service teachers believed about media the students used for self-directed learning outside the class*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th># of items</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
n = 150

Results of open-ended questionnaire

On the basis of the result of the first questionnaire, there were 50 participants who were classified as the low group. To these 50 participants, the second questionnaire was given. The result showed various reasons expressed by the EFL pre-service teachers of the low score group. The typology of reasons are presented based on each research question.

For the first research question, the reason typologies appeared in the answers of the open-ended questionnaire are: 1) being pessimistic with the students’ willingness to do the assignments, 2) do not want to burden the students, and 3) other reasons. As shown in table 5, for the statement of “I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving their students English reading materials to read at home” the dominantly given reason typology was ‘do not want to burden the students’ (frequency=60%), followed subsequently by ‘being pessimistic with the students’ willingness to do the assignments’ (frequency=33%), and “other reasons” (frequency=7%). For the second statement, i.e. “I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with peers at home” the dominant reason typology was “being pessimistic with the students’ willingness to do the assignments” (frequency=85%); while the reason typology of “do not want to burden the students” was 10%, followed by “other reasons” which was only 5 %. For the statement of “I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving their students assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class”, the dominant reason reason typology was ‘do not want to burden the students’ (frequency=80%); while the reason typology of “were pessimistic with the students’ willingness to do the assignments” was 22%, followed by “other reasons” which was 8 %. In the meantime, for the statement of “I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home” the reason typology dominantly chosen by the participants was “being pessimistic with the students’ willingness to do the assignments” (frequency=55 %), followed subsequently by reason typology “do not want to burden the students” (40%), and “other reasons” (5 %).

Table 5: Reasons why EFL pre-service teachers with low score on the agreement the way EFL preservice teachers empowered the students to make out-of-class speaking practices
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The results of frequency analysis and theme coding</th>
<th>Being pessimistic with the students’ willingness to do the assignments</th>
<th>Do not want to burden the students</th>
<th>Other reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with peers at home</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the second research question, similarly there were various reason typologies; however, each statement revealed different reason typology after theme coding was conducted. As shown in table 6, for the first statement, i.e. “I have daily talks with my students in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places”, dominantly participants expressed the reason typology why they put less agreement was because of “not being used to” (frequency=65%); meanwhile others said they ‘were afraid of
violating the consultation content’ (frequency = 29%); and only 6% of them said “other reason”. In addition, for statement “I have daily talks with my students in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities”, dominantly participants used “Extracurricular is only for students” (frequency=87%) as their reason typology; and others, i.e. 32% of them, said the reason typology “not being used to” (frequency=32%); while other small number (frequency=8%) of respondents expressed “other reasons” as their reason typology. For the third statement, namely, “I have daily talks with my students in the daily out-of-class talks”, dominant participants (frequency=87%) chose ‘not being used to’ as their reason typology; and the other (10%) said they “are shame to others” if they speak English outside class; and only 3% said “other reason”. Furthermore, for the statement of “I have daily talks with my students in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.”, most participants (90%) chose “not being used to” as their reason typology, and only 6% of them said the reason typology why they do not speak English in such outside-class activity was “for efficiency”; while 4% expressed “other reason”.

Table 6: Reasons why pre-service teachers with low score on the agreement in involving themselves in the out-class practices with students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>The results of frequency analysis and theme coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</td>
<td>Not being used to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser</td>
<td>Not being used to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students in routine small talks outside the lesson hours</td>
<td>Not being used to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I have daily talks with my students in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc. On average, 90% of my students are not being used to this kind of learning tool; 6% are used for efficiency reasons; and 4% are used for other reasons.

The third research question showed another different reason typologies made by the participants in the open-ended questionnaire. As seen in Table 7, for the first statement, the biggest percentage (88%) of the reason typology is on ‘almost everyone has cellular equipped with internet, but they are not thinking of utilizing it for learning “; meanwhile there were 10% saying “they are not used to”; and 2% said “other reasons”. For the second statement, there was 66% of the reason typology said “they have such TV channels, but they prefer watching Indonesian TV channels to English TV Channels”; 30% saying “they are not used to”; and 4% said “other reasons”. The third, fourth and fifth statements have only two the reason typology: “they do not subscribe such magazines or newspapers” as the reasons” is the dominant reason typology for statement 4; “they do not like western songs/films” for the dominant reason typology for statement 3; “they cannot find such expatriates” is the dominant reason typology for statement 5 (Table 7).

Table 7: Reasons why pre-service teachers with low score on the agreement in involving themselves in the out-class practices with students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason Typology</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Almost everyone has cellular equipped with internet, but they are not thinking of utilizing it for learning</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are not used to</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class. They have such TV channels, but they prefer watching Indonesian TV channels to English TV Channels. Other reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>66%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class. They do not subscribe such magazines or newspapers. Other reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>78%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class. They do not like western songs/films. Other reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>67%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class. They cannot find such expatriates. Other reasons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>87%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=50

Discussion

The process of utilizing courses of L2 exposure in the forms of out-of-class speaking practices in the EFL teaching can be partly accelerated by the teachers as it was seen in the
ways EFL pre-service teachers empowered the students to make *out-of-class* speaking practices. As it was found in the study, ‘*giving students English reading materials to read at home*’ is their favorite way; while ‘*giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home*’ is the uninterested way. Moreover, the ways EFL pre-service teachers involved themselves in the *out-of-class* practices with students also becomes one of the attempts that the EFL pre-service teachers used to enrich their students’ L2 exposure outside the class. As it is found, the favorite way is being involved in ‘*the extracurricular, such as English conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser*’; meanwhile, the uninteresting one is being involved in ‘*the routine small talks outside the lesson hours*’. However, there was psychological condition which could hinder EFL pre-service teachers to utilize all teaching views about the role of *out-of-class* learning in EFL teaching; it was expressed in their reason typologies expressed by the low-scored group. From those findings, one could conclude that in the context of remote schools, since technological resources is lack and human mindset for hard-working (both teachers and students) is still poor as well, then the *in-class* learning atmosphere - let alone the *out-of-class* one, is not well-developed for better attempts as it was showed in the participants’ reason typologies why they did not frequently give such out-of-class practice assignments. Obviously, psychological problems seem to be dominant in this context, that is to say mindset of always being pessimistic to see learners which finally causes them to feel awkward to the learners. Similarly, psychologically teachers’ habits of not doing the activities, fears, and feeling inconvenience with students are becoming dominant reasons why teachers did not make habits of speaking with students outside classroom as daily practices in important school events such as teacher-student consultations, extracurricular activities, or daily talking outside the class in school time.

However, even though facing with problems of being pessimistic in using L2 environment in- as well as *out-of class* exposure, EFL pre-service teachers still have great efforts to motivate learners by assigning the out-of-class assignment in order that they maximize their the use of L2 exposure as well as make the learners immersed in L2 practices as a habit beyond the class. This principle is in line with some previous research findings which assured that the degree to which a learner is immersed in L2 (e.g., Carroll, 1967; Flege et al., 1999), the extent of L2 exposure (e.g., Birdsong, 2005; Genesee, 1985; Kohnert, Bates, & Hernandez, 1999; Weber-Fox & Neville, 1999), or extent of on-going L2 use (e.g., Flege,
MacKay, & Piske, 2002; Jia et al., 2002) are all very influencing in attaining the L2 proficiency. Moreover, some other previous research findings (see Deepwell & Malik, 2008; Fagerlund, 2012; Inozu, Sahinkarakas, & Yumru, 2010) confirmed the importance of teachers’ roles to motivate students’ attempts to do out-of-class learning. In addition, apparently teachers’ knowledge or skills to help their students design or use effective technological resources finally are able to drive the out-of-class use of technology (Carson & Mynard, 2012; Kop & Fournier, 2011; Reinders, 2010).

Especially for the beliefs, EFL pre-service teachers of millennial generations had strong beliefs about media that the students used for self-directed learning outside the class, even though there was still a small number of them who are not sure about their beliefs. The current study found that English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc are believed as the favorite media for L2 learning beyond the class; meanwhile expatriates (native speakers) as source persons for practicing L2 learning beyond the class is believed to be the uninteresting way used by the students. It implies the fact that millennial generations who were born as ‘the digital native’ get more in touch with digital world as their daily life fashion do influenced the way they believe about the media for self-directed learning outside the class. Consequently, the EFL pre-service teachers were sure that those media can be found easily in their regions and can be used as a means of learning L2 both in- and outside-class although in the actual teaching actions, they still have problems in applying such beliefs. This suggests a good future teaching fashion for the next generations of NNESTs since they drive the EFL class by utilizing the courses of L2 exposure in the forms of out-of-class speaking practices. Evidences on the power of beliefs in the enhancement of successful L2 teaching have been shown by some researches (i.e. Woods, 1996; Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2006; Feiman-Nemser and Floden 1986; Richards, et al. 1991; Freeman 1992; Johnson 1992a; Yang, 1999; Horwitz, 1988; Farrell, Thomas S.C. and Bennis, K., 2013; Zare-ee, A & Salami, M. 2014; Lamb, 2008; Lai, Lai, Wang, & Lei, 2012).

Conclusion

The three main tenets discussed in this study obviously bring about two pedagogical implications. First, it is important that EFL teaching and learning be directed to real acquisition both in- and out-of class. Psychological burdens such as bad habits in learning, fears, unsecured feeling, unwillingness, etc., should be broken down soon if the teachers have held good beliefs about learning. Consequently, L2 classroom atmosphere should be very...
enjoyable so that learners do not feel they are learning, which finally increases their motivation to acquire the L2 outside class as the ways to maximize utilizing opportunities of L2 exposure. Second, it is the time for the remote school decision-makers to have more moment for L2 real-life practices in which all schools components (headmaster, teachers, students, janitors, or even student parents) are obligated to speak as the lingua franca at that moment. This can help decreasing everyone’s feeling of being shame to speak English, or good habit of doing good things in learning.

The methodological limitation that should be informed from the current study is that the data were obtained through only one instrument (i.e. questionnaire). Pre-service teachers’ classroom actions described in this study were on the basis of the participants confessed as fulfilled in the questionnaire. Therefore it is paramount that the study revealing early data suggests further more crosschecks from classroom observation.

References


Lai, C. (2014). *Perceiving and traversing in-class and out-of-class learning: accounts from foreign language learners in Hong Kong*. Innovation in Language Learning and


Richards, J.C., & Lockhart, C. (1992). Teacher development through peer observation. TESOL Journal 1,2: 7 -10


**APPENDIX 1:**

**The Close-Ended Questionnaire**

**Instruction**

* Check (v) one of the columns after the statements under provided options (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree) as describing your real agreements!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students assignments to do speaking practice with peers at home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I have daily talks with my students in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places

I have daily talks with my students in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities as a curricular adviser

I have daily talks with my students in the routine small talks outside the lesson hours

I have daily talks with my students in the contact with the students using cellphone or social media, e.g. Short Message Service, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.

I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class

I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class

I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class

I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class

I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class
**APPENDIX 2:**

**The Open-Ended Questionnaire**

**Instruction**

* Write your reasons (in the right column) why did you put less agreement on the statements (in the left column)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>My reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students English reading materials to read at home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students assignments to do speaking practice with peers at home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to watch English TV Channels or read English Newspapers and report the works in class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I empower my students to make out-of-class speaking practices by giving students the assignments to do practice speaking with expatriates (native English speakers) at home</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students <em>in the incidental consultation with students in the school offices or other places</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students <em>in the extracurricular such as English Conversation clubs, or other activities</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students <em>in the daily out-of-class talks</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have daily talks with my students <em>in the contact with the students using cellphone or</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social media, e.g. <strong>Short Message Service</strong>, Android, Facebook, Twitter, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students are used to utilize internet access (facebook, twitter, etc.) as their media of learning L2 outside class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used English broadcasting programs on TV, such as CNN, BBC, etc. To be the media for L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used English magazines/newspapers to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used English films/songs to be the media for L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that my students intensively used Expatriates (native speakers) living surrounding their living area to be the source person for practicing L2 learning beyond the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Title
Investigating Preferred English Teacher Characteristics of Asian Millennial Students

Author
Tana Jaclyn Litowski
University Malaysia Perlis

Abstract
Asian Millennial English Language students live in a world that is significantly different from past generations, as globalization becomes normalized; the ease and speed of information has molded a new type of English student and customer, whose classroom mannerisms and instructor characteristics have unexplored preferences. A Students preference of the best language teacher enhances their educational performance (Horwitz, 1985; Yu, 2006; Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Chan, Chin & Suthiwan, 2011; Truitt, 1995; Tuponsky, 1991; Yang, 1992; Nikatina & Fumitaka, 2006; Kuntz, 1996). Discounting or ignoring Asian millennial sensitivities can cost both the students and the institutions that serve them by neglecting to tap into their potential and most importantly, pose a loss of resources by reduced English acquisition in students (Bambacas, Sanderson 2011). This study attempts to make known the leanings and preferences of these students in regards to white privilege (Moussu, 2006) for the native speaker teacher (Hackert, 2013; Mahboo 2010), colourism, and more, so administrators and decision makers remain viable in this new age.

Keywords: student preferences, millennials, colourism, gameification, native speaker

1. Introduction
The Economic impact of the millennial aged students success or failure in English is too significant for administrators to not take into consideration the preferences in regards to a successful language learning experience (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005) (Brain, 2013).

1.1. A 46 question trial study was executed with 240 participants; Malaysian Millennial aged University Engineering students of which a 50% split of Ethnic Malays and
Chinese Malaysians with 50% gender split: “Investigating: Preferred English Teacher Characteristics of Malaysian Students” (Litowski, Haroon, 2016). The purpose was to survey the students for preferences and characteristics of English teachers; in order to determine if racialisation towards Caucasians is in effect in this generation especially in regards to their English teachers. The purpose for the quantity of questions with wide ranging categories was to eventually narrow down for a more focused strategy in future research. The final question of the survey was an open question; a qualitative instrument where the question was posed “Please describe the characteristics of a good English teacher and explain why.”

This qualitative portion of the survey was highly successful in regards to gathering feedback from these millennial students and this anonymous communication tool overshadowed the results of the data in the survey in regards to validity and authenticity. 90% of the Millennial Asian Students indicated a need for more engagement in the classroom environment with equal opinions of Malays, Chinese Malaysians, Males and Females gave the same or similar answers. There was a unanimous lack of interest in a race preference for their ideal English Teacher.

1.2 Why in Malaysia?
Malaysia is a multicultural country that is home to a diverse ethnic landscape. Over 600 thousand expatriate students studied in Malaysia in 2014 and most of them require English training. Malaysia is peaceful (Salleh, Lokman & Rahman, 2013) has a comfortable tropical climate and understands diversity due its own ethnic mix of 60.3% Malays, 22.9% Chinese Malaysians, 10% other Malaysians (including mixed race and Eurasians), 6.8% Indian Malaysians (Mahari, 2011). Having gained independence from British rule in 1957, Malaysia, in contrast to some of its previously colonized neighbours, accepted influence in its country particularly by the British (Dubois, 1935; Yacob & White, 2011; Pailey, 2014), one such influence is in the area of English language learning. The Malaysian government has stated on occasion, that English is a required alternative language for all of its students.

1.3 Millennials
Each generation grouping is for a period of 18 years and each has its own personality (Dang, 2014), quirks, culture and each is labelled accordingly. The group is often given a generic nick name until their characteristics and differences evolve differentiating them from generations past. They are affected by wars, lack of wars,
economic times (Cosseboom, 2015) parenting trends, products, technology and a plethora of other factors.

Millennials were first called Gen Y, lazily named alphabetically after Gen X, until their characteristics became more for front. Millennials as a nick-name describes the time of their birth more than their personalities. They were kids all around the time of the millennial year turn over which was a distinctive time period. As they aged their particular character traits are being recognized throughout the world. Millennials in Asia have some similar characteristics to millennials in the western world. Some of the alternative nick names are: Generation Rent (they have jobs but the hope of purchasing their own homes are slim), Google generation, Digital Natives, Gen Why?, Their characteristics according to (Debard, 2004) are: special, sheltered, confident, team oriented, high achieving, pressured, conventional, accepting.

Millenials’ educational needs due to their easy access to the internet and hours spent with screen time must be understood to know how to cater to them. It stands to reason that those in decision making roles in their lives are not Millennials and unless they understand the dynamics of this generation it is difficult to motivate, educate (Price 2009) in the the same way its been done for years. It is practical and students fronted to adapt the delivery of lessons not to the style of the teacher but to the style of the learner (Stanley, 2001).

2. Original Research questions

- What are the preferences of Asian millennial students in regards to their English teacher characteristics?
- Are there differences in the characteristics across genders?
- What factors contribute to these teacher characteristic preferences?

These questions were the starting point but not necessarily the ending point of the research. Using the BALI Survey from 1986 (Horowitz, 1985) we learned that students learn best when they think they have the best teacher. This research delves into the preferences of the Asian millennial English student with the following questions but swerved over time due to the grounded approach’s adaptation, due to experience and evidence.
2.1. Methods of Research

This research will utilized the qualitative method (Jensen, 2010) of research applying the grounded approach based in the social sciences. The qualitative approach will be used to analyse all of the data from all of the instruments. This study will search for a set of interrelated concepts and definition and propositions that presents a systematic view of events or situations by specifying relations among variables. The ideas come from grouping categories, spotting trends as ideas emerge from the grouped information and data points and not simply from numbers and calculations. The process of coding and labeling all of the data whether from surveys, open questions, case studies will all be grouped and compared related to other pieces of information in the reports. There will be a process of generating words and phrase lists for analysis.

A survey may not typically understood as being useful for a qualitative approach (Pope, Mays, 1995; Pollit, Harrison, 1990) but the nature of the subjects, participants sensitivities (Devo, Bayyurt 2010) and the defining physical characteristics of the researcher caused a limitation during the research period. So observations of students required paying careful attention to their words and opinions but not being in the room with them other than the two case studies. The design of the surveys and open question and case studies still allows for categorizing, coding and indexing of similar ideas and phrases. These ideas written in English or another Language; pointing to white privilege, racialisation, colourism, classroom management, are not fully developed concepts for the participants to comprehend and thereby reduce to numbers. Instead the data can be collected free of controls and in their natural environment with careful observation and understanding. This research required a great deal of adaptation as plans for data collection sometimes failed and often due to the context of the research itself. A responsive and flexible approach to the grounded theory of research is perfect for this situation. The research was then pursued to the point of saturation.

2.2. Participant Summary

- Four different English teaching facilities from different states in Malaysia participated in this research.
  a) 1 Technical Training Institute
  b) 1 University
2.3 Instruments

Case study - Malaysian University students
Survey – Malaysian Technical students, and Expatriate students
Part A - Likert 5 Scale- 8 questions survey (Likert, 1932)
Part B - Open Question

3. Case studies

Following the successful trial survey open question for Malaysian University students was an apparent void in the responses regarding the factors that contribute to the teacher characteristic preferences. The lack of the students’ English ability in writing the response and expressing themselves on a deeper level may have been a factor. The grounded approach to research led me to try a new instrument of Case Study, to get to the bottom of the question and find explanations for their preferences.

3.1 Procedure and Participants

The University of Perlis Malaysia provided me with 10 names of Muet band 4 or 5 (a Malaysian English Proficiency grading system) students which is a sufficient English level to communicate ideas and explanations. Of the 10 names only 2 were interviewed. The two female Malay participants were selected because they were the only ones that responded to the emails, but only after reporting me to their Dean as “they were spooked”, said their Dean. Once they had the reassurance of their Dean they were shy but eventually helpful. I met them on campus and in a coffee shop.

The meeting durations were over an hour long and the meetings were recorded and held in English and later transcribed, categorized, coded, grouped and analyzed.

The content of our discussions were set questions inquiring about their preferences for English teachers (direct questions about white native speaking teachers), their
learning background, their English class experience, and their observations of being English students for over 15 years each (Shishavan, 2009).

4. Survey and Open Question

4.1 Survey Portion

Rationale for the survey 8 Likert Scale 5 (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree) statements; 5 categories are based on my literature review, trial survey and the case study. These are the subject categories that are immerging as most critical regarding student preferences.

- Western/ Native Speaker
- Colourism
- Exam oriented or not
- Classroom management
- Style and Execution

The Open Question is a private forum for the students to move past the content of the survey and give their frank reaction to a sincere inquiry. “Describe the characteristics of an ideal English Language teacher; and explain why?”

4.1 The instrument

- 8 question survey with 5 categories of statements and one open question
- Written in English and presented in English.
- 10-15 minutes duration to fill in these two sections.
- Reworked 3 times

4.2 Participants

The participants of this particular Survey and Open question were from three separate learning institutions

- The Polytechnic Technical Institute in a Northern state of Perlis. 300 surveys distributed, 287 were completed and filled in properly. Primarily Malay students with a few classmates from Thai, Chinese or Indian background. They are all millennial ages 18-23 and Asian. The teachers from this institution are all Malaysian and followed a highly structured syllabus. 60% of the student participants were female and 40% male.

- International Language Schools; one in Perlis and one in Penang for a total of 16 students. They are all aged 18-24 and come from the Asian region studying for
different lengths of time. They are taught using a variety of teaching methods, and teachers speak in English only during the class, all of the teachers are non Malaysian and some are native English speakers.

4.3. Procedure

- The Polytechnic Director of English distributed 300 surveys to the English teachers for distribution; where they received instructions. It was important that the teachers not know this researcher but just follow the leading of their director. Due to risks of shyness, prejudice, and possibly xenophobia tendencies, it was important to remain removed from the process by name and appearance (the researcher is obviously a foreign white person) for these Malaysians also in order not to sway the data in advertently. The students had varying abilities in English. The teachers were instructed to assist vocabulary but not give opinions of the content. Once completed the surveys were returned the same day to a delivery point given by the English department Director and then retrieved by the researcher at another location.

- The Language centres distributed the survey to the Intermediate level students via the teachers. The 15 minute survey was executed during their English class time and retrieved by the teacher immediately and passed to the Director then researcher in person. 100% of each class filled in surveys and all were Asian Millennials.

5. Findings

5.1 Case study findings

- They stated that the typical English classroom that well over 50% of the students in every class are not engaged in the lesson but sleep or play around. Teachers lack skills or will to engage all the students. “every class there are two sets of students, those who that don’t care and sleep and a very few that do care”

- Report of consistent bullying for those that do speak English or try in class both in and out of the English classroom in Malaysia, from primary school well into University. Referring to classroom time: 1) “they bully when we try to speak well”, referring to after classroom time 2) “I have decided not to speak English on campus again because if I am over heard by someone then I will get teased a lot.”
• There is little variety in delivery of lessons “one time last semester we took a break from the textbook and watched a movie and that was exciting because it was a different lesson”. “We learn how to answer questions on exams every day.”

• Some teachers teach in English, some have to teach in Malay but often due to “begging of the students”. “Teachers ask the students what language they want to be taught in that day and often give in to the weaker students asking for language favours because the teachers do not want to upset anyone”

• Some teachers have a low speaking level of English “Often I cannot understand the English of my teacher” “I cannot learn more from my teacher because their English is not good.”

• They believed their peers would not want a native speaker’s teacher because of the lack of translation ability and the sharp difference in accent. They want English to be easy.

• They did not believe that white native speaking teachers would be superior at teaching but simply better at speaking English. “I want a native speaker to be a good example to me in speaking well”. They inferred in their body language and tone that all teachers teach the same.

5.2 Survey Findings

Excel chart of all the 8 questions and the total participant percentages of all 8 questions. The highest percentages are marked in grey. This survey shows a total number of the Asian students of 9 Asian ethnic groups. Gender split is 40% males, 60% females. Blue is the Male and the Pink is the Female percentages; the darker the colour the higher the percentage.
5.3 Open Question

An open question was formed at the end of the survey to give the students a private forum. It is understood that Asians are often restrained and cautious about what is said so this forum was anonymous and private. The question revealed opinions and preferences similar to the trial survey’s open question.

The student responses were categorized, coded, grouped, and analyzed. The categories adapted during the original process from the trial survey, as more evidence and information was understood. The category of fun and activities spun another category of discovery; Students who wrote a preference for one thing often gave a reason which sparked a new category and divulged a pattern.

The question was, “Describe the characteristics of a good English Language teacher and explain why”. This question had been revised and proposed in several ways but the final decision was to have this question mirror the one on the trial survey to expand the data collection information and see if the students from other Language schools answered similarly.

The response on the trial survey open question was successful in that most students took the opportunity to answer and were generous in their words. The only limitation...
that was evident was the level of English hampering their explanations, so students often just repeated themselves in the same passage which reveals their expression of being emphatic. This larger pool of participants has a variety of backgrounds and variety of English language levels. The results were more expansive and carried words of explanation that were very clear.

- 90% of students mentioned: Fun and activities. Almost every student that mentioned fun and activities also mentioned boredom prevention. It was a distinct theme in their responses.
  “More activities and games would help me not be bored”

- 50% asked for polite teachers, who were patient, kind, sporting, not mocking.
  “Teachers should be polite and help me when I don’t understand something”

- 10% stated they wanted a teacher who did not show preferences for stronger students.
  “help the weaker students more”

- 10% asked for teachers who could speak English more clearly and would speak more slowly, carefully and clearly.
  “A good teacher should explain easily and speak with a nice accent”

- Some students used the space to about the survey statements. Some of the Asian International students seemed offended by the thought of colourism or fairness of skin playing a role in teacher preference, exclaiming,
  “A teacher’s skin colour does not matter!”

- Males and Females gave similar answers and used a similar voice in explaining.

6. Analysis and conclusions
The original research questions have evolved over the process of the research though the essence of student preferences. The research questions have been answered and many other things discovered (Nigatu, 2009). There are no indications that one gender thinks differently than other in this regard. We have discovered student preferences for English teachers and some of the reasons why they feel the way they do.

Insight from the data collection was the basis of the emerging research design over a period of 6 months, four different learning institutions and over 543 Asian Millennial
students’ participated until this topic reached saturation. The categories that evolved and were the final understanding of teacher preferences indicated classroom management abilities, gamification of educational material, colourism, a lack of enthusiasm for white native speaking teachers.

- Classroom management is an issue for the students. This issue was first raised in the case studies and confirmed in the survey results. 100% of students felt that the teacher should have the ability to engage the entire group of students in the language class (Stanley, 2001). It became apparent in the open question that students felt held hostage by boredom. They wanted the teacher to pull the class together and get everyone involved. One of the characteristics of Millennials (Price, 2009) is that they are good social citizens. There was a sense of feeling guilty in their comments. E.g.: “I want to be…” “I should…” Etc.

- Gamification (Chou, 2012) of English class is the overwhelming student request, asking for “fun” “games” and “activities” to keep us interested in English class. This millennial generation is playful, has a short attention span, They were referring to their desire to be good students but felt trapped in the system of the lecture system that is typically Asian.

- Colourism refers to the preference for depth of colour and tone in a person’s skin. In Asian ads bombard society with prejudicial comments such as ‘Fair is beauty’. This is an issue only understood in the non Caucasian communities. To this researcher who has lived in Asia for 10 years it comes as no surprise that this creeps into the preferences of Language teacher preferences.

- Native speaker teachers and Western Teachers descriptions were inter woven in the trial survey and the responses were not consistent. The case studies shed some light on the issues by pointing to the lack of desire for a white teacher but one who was western by the high level students. Where as in the survey, more carefully worded statements that separated the two teacher descriptions showed some differentiation and preference to the term native speaker instead of Western teacher. Where students only were neutral or slightly agreed to a preference for a native speaker teacher a western one was not a preference and students leaned towards neutral and disagree. The presumption is that ‘westerner’ as a description of a person, has negative political world view connotations where as ‘native speaker’ just means someone with presumably a nice accent. The case study
participants shared their opinions on the desires of their classmates to not have a white native English speaker teacher because they worried about not understanding or having translation ability from the teacher rather than just being more evolved with their prejudicial issues. They were concerned about not performing well and did not even have the notion that a native English speaker perhaps may teach in a style that they actually desire. The reaction to even my emails to students in trying to get case study appointment set up with the admission of their own Dean, that they get ‘spooked’ with foreigners is most likely the biggest issue with some of the Asians. The International Asian students strongly preferred a native speaker teacher and were already in a class taught by one. The Malaysian students will never been exposed to foreigners and so have an adverse reaction when faced with the prospect of speaking to one. The Malaysian cultural virtue of shyness in regards to foreigners is displayed as xenophobia unbridled. People from a Asian Chinese cultural background even refer to white people in their mother tongue as ‘white devils’. White privilege and white industrial complex theory does not appear to be in effect (Cole, 2012) as first thought.

- Being exam oriented (Sharp, 2013) is a common perception of the Asian community and a frequent explanation to this researcher by administration and teacher trainers as to why lectures are boring and one dimensional (Fok, Kennedy, Chan, Yu 2006). This study explored the preferences of the Millennial Asian students to see if they have the same sentiment as those in decision making positions. The trial survey , case studies helped develop firm statements for the final survey that students overwhelmingly strongly disagreed and disagreed as to why they were taking English classes at all. The statement was “I study English only to pass my exams”. They overwhelmingly denied this on the Likert Scale. The balance question asked them about whether they study English for travel and career and they flipped their preferences to the agree side of the Likert scale. So it appears that Asian Millennial students are not only exam oriented, but their teachers might be, hence the students concerns over boredom and lack of engagement and enduring continual exam preparation for lessons.
7. **Recommendations**

The study revealed that students have slight interest in native speaker teachers but they do not feel it is for their educational purposes; that there is actually a greater fear that no translation abilities of the native speaker will reduce their academic comfort. There appears to low racialisation or evidence of white privilege (Cole, 2012)

Adaptations to modernize Asian lesson design are necessary to meet the needs of these Millennial students so they feel they are getting the best teachers possible (Horwitz, 1985). Classroom management skills should be upgraded to fulfil the educational desires for the entire class to be entirely engaged.

This generation even though being coined the ‘digital natives’ seem to feel a need for personal connection. They asked for kind, patient, sporting, skilled, fun teachers who could teach them to love English and help them make English useful for life and not just for exams. It is notable that in all the participants that no one wanted a more tech savvy teacher or wanted a computerized teaching system.

The indication of colourism that the Malay ethnic groups demonstrated is a societal issue based in distinctive cultural, political correctness and not educational. Therefore it should, or should not, be addressed at this time depending on their particular society’s tolerance for skin deep prejudice and time lines for societal reform.

An educational retraining for teachers to understand the educational application of games and activities in young adult learners and how to implement it in their day to day lessons would be helpful to the millennial students and their comfort and educational advancement.

Regular monitoring and mentoring of teachers for the purpose of speech quality in classroom with students should be done on a regular basis along with teacher skills evaluation to prevent stagnant behaviors and Lack luster lessons.

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Title
Learners’ Perceptions on the Effectiveness of VideoScribe on Improving Listening and Speaking in Rural School of Sarawak

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Abstract
Teaching listening and speaking in a rural school especially where English is learn as a second language is a challenge for teachers. Learners in rural school of Sarawak considered English Language as a foreign language instead of a second language. This study attempts to investigate the learners’ perceptions on the effectiveness of VideoScribe on improving the listening and speaking skills. The author sees a need to carry out this study as it provides an effective way to teach and motivate learners to listen and speak in English. The respondents of this research comprised of 6 Form Five learners in one of a school in the District of Dalat, Malaysia. A semi-structured interview and participant observation approaches were used to
collect the required data from the 6 respondents. The analysis of the data indicated positive perceptions from the participants on the use of Videoscribe in improving their listening and speaking skills. The result of this study may be useful to ESL educators who wanted to integrate ICT such as Videoscribe into their teaching. In addition, more studies are needed to explore the teachers’ perceptions on the use of Videoscribe in teaching and expand the skills not limited to listening and speaking but also reading and writing.

Introduction

This study aims to examine how interactive ICT platform such as Videoscribe able to create fun environment in language learning and how it motivates learners to improve their listening and speaking. The development of listening and speaking skills are required in order for English as Second Language (ESL) learners to communicate effectively. According to Dehghani and Jowker, (2012) as cited in Rashasoor et. al (2016) stated that listening to be the heart of both first and second language learning. Meanwhile, experts assume that the ability to communicate orally is equal to knowing the given language since speaking is the main means of human communication (Lazarton, 2001: Asakereh and Afshar, 2016). Listening and speaking skills are essential elements for learners to communicate with each other. Both skills interrelated towards each other. Rivers (1966) as cited by Nombre et. al. (2012) claimed, speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person. Learning to communicate among one another requires these two skills to work side by side. Once this is achieved, then the learner will be able to use the language.

The usage of Information and communication technologies (ICTs) covers a broad range of technologies, such as audio visual aids, computer, mobile devices, communication device or application, Internet as well as the various service and application associated with ICT. ICTs refer to technological tools and resources which are employed to communicate, create, disseminate and manage information (Thierer, 2001; Nordin, Embi & Yunus, 2009; Nordin, Embi & Yunus, 2010). The Malaysian Government introduced a range of initiatives to assist the implementation of ICT to improve every field, including into the education system. According to Melor (2007), these measures include the enhancement of education and training programmes, provision of an environment conducive to the development of ICT, provision of incentives for computerization and automation. The Ministry of Education knew that education no longer limited to a traditional setting, whereby teachers and learners confine in a classroom. Thus, they invested millions of Ringgit for the usage of ICT in education to
prompt the improvement of education. As Khaddage and Knezek (2013) stated that education today takes place in a much broader context than the confines of school walls or traditional curricula.

Integrating ICT in language learning allows teachers to plan and design suitable teaching method and create a learning environment for the learners, hence preparing them in a real-life application for the future. Kozma and Anderson (2002) as cited by Ghavifekr et al. (2014), had claimed that ICTs are transforming how schools and classrooms work, by bringing in new curricula based on real world problems. This is similarly to Hepp et al. (2004) also cited by Ghavifekr et al. (2014), who stated that the roles ICTs play in the educational system can be pedagogical, cultural, social, professional and administrative. Hence, ICT should not be seen as a burden among the language teachers but as a helping hand to nurture not only the learners’, but also the teachers’ creativity to improve their teaching and learning.

**Literature Review**

**Use of ICT in Education**

The Ministry of Education views ICT as an instrument to change the education system, enhance it not only curricula but also pedagogies. Carmen et al. (2003) as cited in Raman and Yamat (2014), stated that integrating ICT tools in teaching could enhance students’ learning competencies and provide opportunities for communication. ICT allows learner to be more effective in language learning as ICT enable learners to bridge the gap and empowering the learners’ capabilities. According to Chuah Yoon Fah (2000) as cited in Melor et al. (2009), the impact which has been brought by this media, is very visible and stiffening. The way we learn nowadays has changed and altered by the use of ICT in language learning. ICT provides a variety of learning opportunities for students to learn language (Melor 2007, cited in Melor et al. 2009). ICT is a tool for both teachers and learners in language learning.

**ICT in Malaysian Education**

Since the Independence of Malaysia, the education system in the country has changed to cater the need of the country economic expansion and over the last three decades, there has been dramatic growth of ICT in the country. Chan (2002) states that, in order to support the country’s ICT master plan and in line with the country’s drive to fulfil Vision 2020, the education system has to be transformed. Driven by the long-term vision of “Vision 2020”, the
Ministry of Education upgraded the education system to prepare the learners for the global economic of the 21st century. According to Gryzelius (2015), the Malaysian Ministry of Education has invested over RM6 billion on ICT in education initiatives – among initiatives invested by the Ministry of Education are the Smart School Roadmap and the 2010 Policy on ICT in Education. The recent initiative by the Malaysian Ministry of Education is the 1BestariNet project launched in 2011 (Gryzelius, 2015). These initiatives and efforts introduced by the Ministry aimed to provide the ideal use and implementation of ICT in classroom learning environment.

**What is Videoscribe?**

Video scribcing, also known as Whiteboard animation, is an engaging new form of storytelling which replicates a 'stop-motion capture style'. Videoscribe software, created by Sparkol, allows you to create this style of animated videos quickly and easily (Manchester Metropolitan University). Videoscribe is an interactive ICT platform technology, which can be rendered as video and use in lesson or in learning. It is the same as using PowerPoint in lesson, yet it creates more advantages for learners to use them in listening and speaking. Using interactive ICT platforms allow learners to grab the opportunities for immediate feedback, which can, for example, be used to making drill and practice learning more engaging and effective (Gryzelius, 2015). By using Videoscribe in lesson, it garner more interest among the IT-savvy learners as they felt closely relate to ICT.

**Project-Based Learning**

Project-Based Learning (PBL) is define as a systematic teaching method that engages students in learning knowledge and skills through an extended inquiry process structured around complex, authentic questions and carefully designed products and tasks (BIE, 2003; Dooly & Sadler, 2016). Keeping track with the 21st century learning, incorporating project based learning especially language learning provides opportunities for learners to engage in real-life communication with real people. Hence, PBL offers learners the benefits to be creative and explore their potential in the target language. In addition, students demonstrate increased self-esteem, and positive attitudes towards learning (Stroller, 2006; Tsiplakides & Fragoulis, 2009), and most importantly improved language skills (Levine, 2004; Tsiplakides & Fragoulis, 2009). This is supported by Haines (1989) as cited in Tsiplakides and Fragoulis, (2009), that students engage in purposeful communication to complete authenthic activities, they have the opportunity to use language in a relatively natural context.
Methodology

As the aim of this study was to determine if using Videoscribe in learning can improve listening and speaking skills, this study employed a methodology that is qualitative in nature; exploring learners’ perceptions on the use of Videoscribe. Participants’ observation was conducted to observe learners attitude while they carry out the language learning project or also known as Project-based Learning (PBL). Participants’ observation was conducted as it can provide us with a yardstick against which to measure the completeness of data gathered in other ways, a model which can serve to let us know what orders of information escape us when we use other methods (Becker & Geer, 1957). A semi-structured interview was conducted to collect feedback from the learners after they conduct the activity. A semi-structured interview was chosen as it is the most appropriate strategy to elicit insight towards understanding a phenomenon (Creswell, 2007; Raman & Yamat, 2014). The interviews were transcribed and analysed.

Participants

The participants were seven secondary school students from a school in Dalat, Sarawak in the East Malaysia. Majority of the participants are Melanau and their mother tongue is their local dialect, meanwhile their second language is the Malay language. English language is their third language even though it holds a status as second language in Malaysia. Four participants were male and three were female, and each participant were chosen purposively for this study, as they are from different level of proficiency ranging from low competency to high competency in the English language.

Design

The study was conducted in two stages; the first stage was planning and second stage was implementation. The duration of the study took two weeks. During the planning, the selected participants were instructed to explore Videoscribe, as an exposure to the ICT interactive platform. Later, the researcher provides a topic for the participants to create a presentation video using Videoscribe as their Project-Based Learning (PBL). According to Dooly and Sadler (2016), the project endeavoured to create learning opportunities that allowed the students to become immersed in the use of the target language while learning to work in groups (face-to-face and via online collaboration). Here, the Project-Based Learning carryout by the participants is to create a video presentation using Videoscribe. In the second stage; implementation, the participants would plan among themselves on how they would create the presentation video using Videoscribe. While the participants were creating and
doing voice over for their presentation video, the researcher will conduct an observation over the participants’ behaviour and attitude. In the end of the project, a semi-structured interview was conducted to collect the participants’ responses and feedback on the use of Videoscribe.

Findings and Discussion

Participants’ observation was the first tool, which was used in this research. To obtain information on the learners’ behaviour, the researcher engaged in direct conversation with the learners as they were doing their project. While the learners were doing their project, the researcher was taking notes about some particular behaviour. At the end of the process of the participants’ observation, it was found that all most of the learners were actively involved in the project. One particular finding is the willingness to actively participate among the learners. It is common that learners who actively participate in any language activity do better and will progress faster than others. Even though the weaker learners have the tendency to make errors during recording, they were seen actively mingle much more with the rest while doing the project. Their eagerness to explore the Videoscribe platform suppressed their fear of making errors.

Another finding from the observation was the learners’ ability to peer check or do error correction. The learners were able to identify their friends’ mistakes especially in pronunciations. As Russell and Spada (2006) cited by Tomkova (2013), learners can help each other especially with accuracy and form. From observation, the learners would listen attentively to the recording trying to detect slightest pronunciation mistakes made. Not only they were aware of each other mistakes, they would cooperate with each other to correct their mistakes, teaching each other on how to pronounce the corrected word together. As Tomkova (2013) in a research of error correction in spoken practice, she adds that peer correction supports cooperation and mutual help and makes learners more independent from teachers. This finding is consistent with a study on corrective feedback in meta-talk activities (Swain & Lapkin, 1998) where learners have been observed to successfully provide each other with accurate and useful corrective feedback (Burton & Samuda, 1980; Samuda & Rounds, 1993; Russell & Spada, 2006).
Second tool used in this research is the semi-structured interviews. Several themes were sorted out from the seven participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Excerpts from transcripts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation to communicate in English language.</td>
<td>“I really like using Videoscribe, it is very interesting. I really want to learn using Videoscribe, it make me feel expose to English subject. In the class, it is very hard to speak English because I am afraid my friends judge me but using Videoscribe, I don’t have to see their faces when I speak in English”. (Student B)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>“I am embarrassed each time I speak in English. My classmates are not really supportive with each other while speaking in class. This project gives me a chance to speak. I like doing this”. (Student C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I agree with Student C, this project is more motivating for me to speak in English. I feel safe to show off my ability, nobody is looking at me when I am speaking”. (Student E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“This project is very fun and motivating. It is very awesome using Videoscribe, doing the recording” (Student F)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56
Prospect of using Videoscribe as teaching and learning tool to improve listening and speaking skills.

“Usually we will use PowerPoint and Movie maker for presentation in our ICT class. It is getting boring using them. Videoscribe is something new and fresh for me. It is very interesting and fun to do”. (Student A)

“This project helps me to be more sensitive of our pronunciation. Each time we finish recording, I will focus on the pronunciation, I have to listen carefully to the way we speak”. (Student B)

“At first, it was very hard to use Videoscribe. After getting use to it, it gets easier. In Malay language class, we do our presentation using PowerPoint, with this (Videoscribe), I can do something different and way more exciting for presentation later”. (Student D)

“The most frustrating part about this project, we have to record our voice over and over again. Each time we done with our video, we will check our recording and there are always mistakes in pronunciation. All of us want our video to be perfect, no errors at all”. (Student E)

**Motivation to Communicate in English Language**

Rubin (1975) listed motivation as one of the variables in a good language learning. This is also supported by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), who claimed that motivation has long been recognised as one of the key factors that determine second language achievement and attainment in the foreign / second language learning. Motivation is the most important factors required for learners to be successful in language learning, especially communicative
aspect. The participants generally agreed that they are motivated to use the language after using Videoscribe. Both Student B and Student C stated that Project Based activity using Videoscribe made them feel exposed and secured to use the language, as the environment is different from the classroom. In classroom environment, they feel embarrassed to communicate in the language with their friends. Introducing ICT as platform for language learning allow them to feel safe and increase their motivation to use the language in their environment. In the study made by Kreutz and Rhodin (2016) on influence of ICT on learners’ motivation toward leaning English language, explained that by incorporating information and communication technologies such as computers and tablets able to increase students’ motivation in the foreign second language learning. Their study also shows that the majority (95%) of the learners enjoy the use of ICT during the lesson and it affects their motivation (Kreutz & Rhodin, 2016). This is also supported by Noor-Ul-Amin (2013), which stated that ICT would provide the rich environment and motivation for teaching and learning process which have a profound impact on the process of learning in education. The 21st century learners are better motivated in language learning when the tools they use in everyday life are used as a teaching tool. Hence, introducing ICT in language learning increase learners’ motivation as it enhances the learning environment for the learners.

*Videoscribe as teaching and learning tool*

According to Majumdar (2015), ICT opens up opportunities for learning because it enables learners to access, extend, transform and share ideas and information in multi-modal communication styles and format. Today ICT is being used as a tool for improving the quality of life by improved efficiency and enhanced effectiveness (Mishra, Sharma and Tripathi (2015). No doubt that ICT in this case, Videoscribe is a useful tool in teaching and learning. As stated by Student A, he is used with the idea using PowerPoint and Movie Maker in presentation. However, these two methods has become something that is common for him. By using Videoscribe, it provides new and fun learning experience for him. This is cohesive with a study made by Nguyen and Tri (2014) on students’ perception of ICT use in English language learning, whereby the students reported that using technology brought more fun to English learning, thus it brought motivation to them (80.6%).

Meanwhile, both Student B and Student E show that using Videoscribe as their Project Based learning made them more aware of their mistakes and were eager to make amendments for the mistakes they made. This subsequently allows them to improve their listening and also their pronunciation. This statements was in agreement with the study made
by Melor et al. (2010) where majority (89.4%) of students agreed that ICT help them using English to communicate in their daily conversation. Also a study by Nguyen and Tri (2014), 85.2% of the students in the survey agreed that ICT enhance their ability in listening. In general, ICT platform such as Videoscribe has the capability to improve learners’ listening skill and allowing learners’ to do corrective feedback for their speaking skill, in this case their pronunciations.

**Conclusion**

The integration of ICT platform such as Videoscribe in teaching and learning provides endless opportunities for learners to engage more in the lesson as it creates fun environment and motivates learners. Use of ICT tool should not be underestimated in language learning, especially where ICT plays a role in education in this 21st century. ICT can influence the way learners nowadays are taught and learn, and as teachers it is important for them to improve and adapt ICT in their teaching. Utilizing ICT in teaching and learning should not be seen as a nuisance by teachers but instead as a helping hand to foster a better teaching and learning processes.

**References**


Title
Flipped Learning: A Possible Model in the Vietnamese EFL Tertiary Context

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Abstract
Flipped learning approach, with the inversion of the way in-class and outside-class activities are organized, has been applied in a number of disciplines. In the field of EFL teaching, research on flipped learning is still limited, especially in Asian context. This research project aims to investigate students’ perceptions towards flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL higher education setting, through which, a consideration of the feasibility of this model in the surveyed context is made.

Participants of the study were six EFL second-year students at a university in Vietnam. The study contained three stages of online data collection: the initial interviews for a general understanding of the surveyed students’ current EFL practices, the experimental flipped lessons to obtain students’ opinions towards this model, and the wrap-up interviews for a deeper understanding of the students’ perceptions. The study found out that flipped learning could be a possible model in the investigated Vietnamese EFL tertiary context, taking into consideration its benefits and challenges perceived by the participating students. In details, the students recognized the key benefits of flipped learning such as deeper learning, feeling of readiness before attending the lesson, and this model’s strength of catering for mixed-level classrooms. However, besides the advantages, the research participants also expressed their concerns about accomplishing homework load. Based on
these findings, the study suggests a combination of the flipped and non-flipped method at the initial stage of implementation.

Key words: flipped learning, EFL, Vietnam

Introduction

The term “flipped learning” originated back to 2000 with Baker’s college context in southwest Ohio, United States (Cockrum, 2014; Pilling, 2013). As a resolution to reduce class time wasted on students copying down slides, Baker’s idea was to let students access learning materials online before class and spend class time assisting them with the difficult exercises (Pilling, 2013). With this initial model, he hoped to change the role of the teacher from a mere lecturer to a guide-by-the-side (Pilling, 2013). With the homework-in-class and classwork-at-home model through the exploitation of lecture videos, this learning approach has been shown to bring benefits to students in a number of fields in different countries (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hamdan, P. McKnight, K. McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013; Honeycutt & Garrett, 2014). In the field of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), studies on flipped learning have started to gain attention; however, the number of researches in this area is still limited (Hung, 2014; Webb, Doman, & Pusey, 2014). In particular, studies on flipped learning in EFL in Asian context are of rarity. This calls for more research into this field in the Asian context.

This paper seeks to answer two research questions:
1. What are students’ experiences of flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?
2. How might a flipped classroom be possible in the Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?

Literature Review

Conceptual Framework

Basically, the theoretical underpinnings of flipped learning lie in the justifications for not using class time to deliver traditional lectures but to focus on deeper learning activities (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Hamdan et al., 2013; Honeycutt & Garrett, 2014; Ng, 2015). With this learning approach, simple and basic activities are allocated to homework tasks with the aid of technology, while deeper learning activities are implemented in the classroom with teacher or peer assistance. In a simple way, the two factors that help form this learning
approach are the deep interactive group activities inside the classroom and technology-based individual activities outside the classroom (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). This approach is built upon a number of learning theories, the most prominent of which is theory of active learning (Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Ng, 2015). Theories of Bloom’s Taxonomy and Zone of Proximal Development also build up the conceptual framework of this learning approach (Ng, 2015).

**Methodological review**

Regarding the use of flipped learning in EFL teaching in Asian context, recent literature has witnessed new studies on the topic. A study by Hung (2014) investigating the effects of flipped learning on EFL learners’ academic performance, learning attitudes and participation levels at a Taiwanese university has demonstrated students’ satisfaction towards this model. Another study conducted in an English-medium university in Macau, China by Webb et al. (2014) with the participation of 135 first-year high-intermediate EFL students and four EFL teachers revealed a positive shift in students’ attitudes towards flipped learning between the initial and end of the applying period. The study divided the sample population into experimental and control groups with the use of two questionnaires to investigate students’ experience with flipped or non-flipped learning at the beginning and end of the semester. Students’ perceptions were elaborated in terms of the initial difficulties and how they gradually adapted to the new method and enjoyed learning more.

From the preceding discussion, there seems to be a lack of empirical research on flipped learning in the Vietnamese EFL context. At the time this research project was implemented, to the author’s knowledge, there was no official research paper on flipped learning in the Vietnamese EFL context in general, in the Vietnamese EFL tertiary context in particular. That inspired me to conduct a study into students’ perceptions towards flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL higher education context and assess its feasibility in our context.

**Methodology**

There are three stages of data collection methods in this study.

- **Step 1: Initial interviews:** Six voluntary second-year students at Banking Academy of Vietnam were interviewed online about their experience of their current English language learning classroom practices.
- **Step 2: Experimental flipped lessons:** The six students joined three online flipped learning English lessons, which lasted one-hour each. In addition, the students completed their learning diaries after each experimental lesson through Google forms.

- **Step 3: Wrap-up interviews:** After all the online lessons had been conducted, there was a semi-structured interview with each of the six students who attended the lessons to confirm their beliefs about flipped learning.

**Results and Discussions**

In this part, a discussion of the results in connection with the two above-mentioned research questions will be presented forthcoming.

**RQ1: What are students’ experiences of flipped learning in one Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?**

The collected data demonstrated the surveyed students’ perspectives on the benefits and challenges of flipped learning. In details, the first benefit that was recorded was a sense of deeper learning. Most students (5/6) mentioned the chances to be exposed to many brainstorming activities as well as deeper pair and group discussions when taking part in the flipped lessons. The second advantage perceived by most students (5/6) was the readiness before attending a flipped lesson. Coming to class with some ideas about the lesson was less stressful than having no or little idea what the coming lesson was about. The third merit of flipped learning that some students (2/6) recognized was that flipped learning could narrow the gap between students of different levels. One student said that if in a traditional classroom, when high and low performers access the lesson content simultaneously in class, the high performers would be more outstanding because they could handle teachers’ tasks quickly while the low performers would feel left behind. With the flipped model, low performers could spend more time watching the clips and preparing for the tasks at home, thus, they could feel more confident to join in-class discussions and the gap between them and their better-performing peers could be narrowed.

In addition, the participants also recognized the challenge of the flipped model. In response to the question of what challenges flipped learners could face, all the six participating students shared the same answer that if they did not prepare for the lesson beforehand, they would not be able to catch up with other peers and the speed of the lesson. The feelings of “lost”, “left behind”, or “hard to follow”, etc. were what the students described when talking about the challenges of the flipped lessons.
RQ2: How might a flipped classroom be possible in the Vietnamese EFL tertiary context?

The findings gathered from the initial interviews, the experimental flipped lessons and the wrap-up interviews suggested that flipped learning could be a possible approach in the surveyed Vietnamese EFL higher education context. Firstly, data from the initial interviews showed that most of the surveyed students had a regular habit of using the internet to access multimedia materials. Therefore, in the setting where the internet is currently a popular culture, flipped learning that requires students to interact with multimedia materials online before attending the lesson could be a reality. Secondly, as the interviewed students seemed to occupy an active role in the language lesson with a great deal of their talking time in class in the form of pair or group discussions, they are expected to adapt to the flipped classroom well. Thirdly, the overall optimistic feedback from the participants on the experimental flipped lessons is a sign that flipped learning might be a successful approach in our context. The participating students supported a possible flipped model at their EFL higher education context and desired for a combination of the traditional approach and flipped learning based on their awareness of its benefits and challenges.

Conclusion

Despite having certain limitations such as being a small-scale study and the data being collected in an online classroom rather than a physical one, the findings of this study have brought optimistic views on the possibility of flipped learning in the Vietnamese EFL context. Taking the mentioned benefits and challenges into consideration, teachers could make appropriate plans for a steady but effective realization of this method in our context. A combination of flipped and non-flipped lessons at the initial stage of implementation might be a good approach to help teachers and students get started with this learning model. Providing training workshops could be another way to support teachers in applying flipped learning in our context. Creating comfortable learning conditions where students’ role is promoted is also one positive way to facilitate the implementation of flipped learning. Regarding researchers carrying future research on flipped learning, a longitudinal study that lasts at least one semester or one academic year might help bring out an overall picture of the situation. Such longitudinal projects can record students’ perceptions at different stages of their learning process. In addition, as they take place in real classroom environment with real assessment and classroom pressure, students’ perceptions could be recorded more accurately.
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Title

*Idiom Maniac: A Tool to Foster Idiom Learning among ESL Learners*

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Abstract

This paper presented a small-scale research in using *Idiom Maniac* board game; a tool to foster idiom learning among English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. This study aimed to examine the effectiveness of utilising *Idiom Maniac* in enhancing learners’ learning of English idioms. The research was conducted in a rural secondary school in Sarawak, East Malaysia and 32 participants were selected using purposive sampling. Findings demonstrated that there was a significant improvement in students’ mastery of idioms knowledge after employing *Idiom Maniac* as their learning tool.

**Keywords:** Idioms learning, Idiom Maniac, English as a Second Language (ESL) learner, learning tool, board game
I. Introduction

Learning idioms is one of the problems faced by students globally. In Malaysia, English is taught as the second language and learners can earn merit points if they use relevant and appropriate idioms in Malaysian public examinations. However, many secondary school students have minimal exposure and understanding of English idioms. The teaching of idioms is not outlined specifically in the Curriculum Specifications, which is a detailed description of the content in the English language curriculum that every English teacher should follow. This is in line with the previous studies done by Vasiljevic (2011) and Tran (2012), stating that idiom teaching has not been emphasised in the foreign language teaching contexts. Hence, this study aims to examine the effectiveness of utilising Idiom Maniac, an innovative board game learning tool as a complimentary approach to idioms learning inside classrooms. Board games are considered as one of the activities that could fascinate children outside the online virtual world (Kozak & Dvorak, 2011).

II. Literature Review

A. Importance of Learning Idioms

Idioms are commonly used in the English language. According to De Caro (2009), the language would be lacking in its variety and humour in both speaking and writing if idioms are not introduced. Learning idioms allows learners to study about one’s culture and engage in real world as the use of idioms has been considered natural and conversational in English (Agar, 1991; Gluckberg, 2001). Therefore, using idioms frequently can help learners to achieve native-like competence and the mastery of idioms knowledge leads to a higher level of L2 fluency (Schmitt, 2000).

B. Games as Alternative Learning Tool

One of the key elements of 21st century classroom involves active participation and engagement from the learners (Kolk, 2011). Games are capable of turning a difficult or boring subject to something exciting to engage learners in their learning process (Petsche, 2011). Educational gaming is an excellent platform for learning if it is manipulated accordingly (Yunus et. al., 2012). According to Virvou & Papadimitriou (2014), utilizing board games could arouse learners’ curiosity and anticipation in learning, motivate them in acquiring the English language. Students’ achievement level would also increase due to their active roles in checking their own learning progress and gaining instant feedback to reinforce the knowledge learned (Yampinij et. al., 2010).
Iii. Methodology

A. Research Design

A quasi experimental research design was employed and the research had been carried out to test the effectiveness of using Idiom Maniac board game as a tool to foster idiom learning among learners. There were altogether five English learning sessions (200 minutes) and students learned English idioms using Idiom Maniac. Students were exposed to idioms before, however through the conventional method of learning idioms.

B. Sample

A secondary school located in the rural area of Sarawak, East Malaysia was selected and the researcher used purposive sampling in the selection of participants. 32 Form 4 students participated and they were ranged from intermediate to weak level of English proficiency.

C. Data Collection Procedures

Pre-test

All the participants were given a pre-test before the board game was introduced to them. In the pre-test, students were given a set of 20 questions regarding English idioms.

Intervention: Utilizing Idiom Maniac board game as a learning tool

The Idiom Maniac board game was introduced to the students and they learned English idioms by trying out the game. It was colour-coded and the idioms were characterised into different categories and level of difficulties. The game could be played up to five people. Questions and answers were provided on the playing cards and students referred to the Idiom List given to find out the appropriate idiom. Marks were awarded according to the colours and level of difficulties.

Post-test

The intervention was followed by a post test in which a similar set of test paper was given to the participants to compare and evaluate their progress of learning. The post-test should not be postponed too long in their educational experience to avoid low commitment in giving their best effort for the test.

D. Data analysis

The pre-test and post-test were analysed using paired samples t-test, run by SPSS version 21, to perform descriptive statistical analysis.
Iv. Findings And Discussion

Table 1: The Mean Score and Standard Deviation of the Students’ Pre-test and Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>PRE Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POST</td>
<td>27.3438</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16.21351</td>
<td>2.86617</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the pre-test scores in Table 1 shows that the mean score of students’ performances in idioms knowledge is 0. However, the mean score for the post test after the intervention of Idiom Maniac has been greatly escalated to 27.55. This implies that learners could improve their English language proficiency and achieve mastery through Idiom Maniac, a gamification platform which excitingly engages learners with the lesson (Yampinij et. al, 2010; Yunus et. al., 2012).

Table 2: The Result of Paired Samples t-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>PRE - POST Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 2 indicates that the research finding is significant ($t = -9.739$, df =31, p>.05). It reveals that there is a difference in the mastery of idioms knowledge among the students before and after the implementation of Idiom Maniac board game. This is in line with Petsche’s study (2011), saying that games could grab learners’ interest to actively participate in the learning process, motivating them in acquiring the target language (Virvou & Papadimitriou, 2014). The use of Idiom Maniac has greatly helped learners in understanding idioms, changing the perception that learning idioms is difficult.
V. Conclusion

The use of *Idiom Maniac* board game is proven to be effective in promoting idioms learning among the learners. The results revealed a significant improvement in students’ mastery of idioms knowledge after using *Idiom Maniac* as their learning tool. Hence, teachers should innovate their teaching and games can be supplemented as a supplementary lesson to enhance language learning in ESL classroom. Students could learn in a more meaningful and lively learning environment if more language games are incorporated in classrooms.

References


Title
Language Learning Styles among TESL Undergraduate Students in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia from Different Gender Groups

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Abstract
Language learning styles is one of the main factors that help to determine how well students learn a second language. Learning styles are general approaches that students used in acquiring a second language or in learning any other subjects. This study provides details on the language learning styles among TESL undergraduates in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia from different gender groups. The study discusses the differences in language learning styles among male and female TESL undergraduates. It also illustrates and focuses on the four main types of learning styles which are visual, aural, reading and kinesthetic. The research methodology chosen is the quantitative method which based on the VARK questionnaires.
The VARK questionnaire offers sixteen statements that describe a situation and asks the respondent to pick one or more of three or four actions that the respondent would take based on their understanding and interpretation of the questions. The total of all four scores ranges from 13 to 48, with individuals having a preference for one, two, three, or all four of the learning channels. The findings of this study revealed that a majority of 89% of the male respondents are either exclusively visual, aural, reading or kinaesthetic learners. The female respondents, on the other hand are majority reading learners (31%).

**Keywords:** Language Learning Styles, VARK Questionnaires, TESL Undergraduates

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background study

Language learning styles is one of the main factors that help to determine how well students learn a second language. It is the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior (Cornett, 1983). Learning styles are general approaches that students used in acquiring a second language or in learning any other subjects. Students take in information in different ways and use different cognitive schemes. This study focuses only on sensory preferences that can be broken into four main areas which are visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile.

Oxford (2003) defines sensory preferences as the physical, perceptual learning channels with which the student is the most comfortable. Visual learners prefer to take in knowledge via sight. Auditory students enjoy and profit from factual lectures, conversations, and oral directions. Kinesthetic and tactile students like lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects, collages, and flashcards.

This study also focuses on the different learning styles used between male and female. Jill, Heidi and Stephen (2007) stated that, students have specific learning style preference that may differ between male and female students. Understanding a student's learning style preference is crucial when designing classroom instruction.

This research will be based on Neil Fleming learning style model. He introduces the VARK (Visual, Aural, Read/Write, and Kinesthetic) learning style inventory. His model is basically based on Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory. It was first published in Howard Gardner's book, Frames Of Mind (1983), and quickly became established as a
classical model by which to understand and teach many aspects of human intelligence, learning style, personality and behavior - in education and industry.

1.2 Problem Statements

According to Halizah Omar, Mohamed Amin Embi & Melor Md Yunus, less competent language learners often face great difficulties in expressing their thoughts and ideas when interacting in second language. Identifying learning styles can help teachers and lecturers to find the most suitable way to teach their students and achieve better results. The findings of the study by conducted by Nurhuda Mohamad Nazri, Melor Md Yunus & Nur Dalila Mohamad Nazri (2016) revealed that good language learners were high users of language learning strategies. This study stresses importance in finding out the differences in language learning styles between male and female TESL undergraduates. Claxton & Murrell (2003) stated, “…learning styles can be useful in improving students learning” (p.1). This paper also intends to find out the respondents’ preferred learning styles. Claxton & Murrell (2003) stated that this is important because knowledge about learners’ learning styles can “serve as a guide” (p.1) when educators plan or design activities for them. Finally, this research will seek to find out if there are significant differences in the language learning styles of male and female undergraduates. According to Oxford (2003), “language learning and strategies are among the main factors that help determine how – and how well – our students to learn a second or foreign language” (p.1).

1.3 Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are to find out:

i. differences in language learning styles between male and female TESL undergraduates’ students.

ii. learning style that TESL Undergraduate students’ used the most (visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic)

iii. significant differences in the language learning styles between male and female TESL Undergraduate students’

2.1 Differences in Language Learning Styles of Males and Females

Oullette (2000) found that only 62% of males are visual learners as compared to 82% of females. This shows that women prefer visual learning styles more than males. Wehrwein, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006) used the VARK model that was developed by Neil Fleming to
analyze the differences between the male and female learning styles. Their findings show that 87.5% males prefer a combination of learning styles (visual, auditory, read-write and kinesthetic). 54.2% of the female respondents are kinesthetic learners who prefer a “single mode of information transformation”.

Dybvig & Church (2010) found that males often employ a mix of visual, tactile and kinesthetic learning styles while females prefer kinesthetic learning style. Mohammad Reza Sadeghi (2012) found that males prefer visual learning style whereas females preferred both visual and hands-on kinesthetic learning styles.

Ibrahim Abdu Saadi (2014) found that females prefer kinesthetic style. The read/write learning style was the second most preferred single style for both genders. In addition, the study found that female students also prefer visual and aural learning styles. Male students inclined more to multimodal learning style, while females favored single learning styles. Ibrahim Abdu Saadi (2014) also found that the quad and bi styles were the most preferred learning styles in the female group, followed by the tri style. The preferred single styles for both groups were the kinesthetic style followed by the read/write style, with a higher level of preference for each style shown by the female group.

Zamri Mahamod, Mohamed Amin Embi, Melor Md. Yunus, Maimun Aqsha Lubis and Ong Sze Chong (2015) found that collaborative, dependent and participative style of learning is preferred by both genders compared to independent, avoidant and competitive style of learning when it comes to learning language.

2.2 ESL Students’ Preferred Language Learning Styles

Joy M. Reid (1987) found that ESL students strongly preferred kinesthetic and tactile learning styles. She also found out that “graduate students indicated a significantly greater preference for visual and tactile learning than undergraduates” (p.93). Reid (1987) also shows that “undergraduates were significantly more auditory than graduates” (p.94). Her data also shows that both graduates and undergraduates strongly preferred to learn kinesthetically and tactiley.

Jawahitha Sarabdeen (2013) found that a majority of students are readers/writer learners whereas the rest are kinesthetic, auditory and visual learners. Most of the students prefer more than one learning style, the tri style being the most popular (a mix of reading/writing, kinesthetic and auditory).

Hessam Moayyeri (2015) found that reading style is the dominant learning style among Iranian EFL learners and there is a significant relationship between learners’ fields of
study and their learning styles. Students with reading style have the highest language achievement and the students with visual personality type have the lowest performance. Nurul Hamida (2013) in Semarang State Polytechnic in Indonesia showed that 72.1% of the students prefer multiple learning styles when it comes to learning English.

2.3 Significant Differences in Language Learning Styles among Males and Females

Mauubach & Morgan (2001) as cited in Macaro (2003) stated that “although some male and female tendencies may exist, in terms of learning styles, more significant differences appear to relate to individual characteristics than to the gender divide” (p. 100-101). Nada Michel Salem (2006) also found that there is no significant role for gender in the overall use of language learning strategies.

Ibrahim Abdu Saadi (2014) stated the differences between learning style preference of males and females may diminish when the number of learning style categories increase. He found no significant differences in learning styles between male and female students classified to their VARK7G group preference. VARK7G categorizes students into seven learning style groups that consisted of visual, aural, read/write, kinesthetic, bi, tri and quad styles.

Hessam Moayyeri (2015) found that learning styles is affected by learners’ majors. The percentage of style learning preferences among learners with different majors varied significantly. Kinesthetic learning style was preferred by only 6.6 percent of students of humanities, 18.3% of students of basic sciences, and 25% percent of engineering students. Such a difference might be because of the nature of these fields and the contents of the materials which they receive.

Methodology

3.1 Methodology

Quantitative method is used to access the language learning styles among students as they engage in the complex process of acquiring a second language which is English. Quantitative method uses statistics, tables and graphs to present the results.

3.2 Participants

The sample of the study consists of 50 students; male and female undergraduates undergoing the TESL degree program in the Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). They are randomly selected among the third and fourth year students. Only TESL students are selected to determine the homogeneity of the samples. It is most appropriate to focus on this sample because they do learn English language as their major.
3.3 Instruments

The VARK questionnaires developed by Flemings (2001) will be used to assess language learning styles in this study. This questionnaire alerts people to the variety of different approaches to learning. It supports those who have been having difficulties with their learning and has particular applications in sport, training and education.

Data Analysis

4.1 Respondents’ Profile

The respondents for this research paper consist of 50 undergraduates undergoing the TESL degree program in Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). They are third year and fourth year students of the Bachelor of Education in Teaching English as a Second Language. The selected respondents are 25 male and 25 female undergraduates.

4.2 Research Findings

4.2.1 Differences in Language Learning Styles of Males and Females

The data from this research shows that a majority of both the male and female respondents have one learning style preference. Figure 1 & Figure 2 below shows the comparison between the male and female respondents’ preferred learning styles.

Figure 1: Single Preference (Male)

Figure 2: Single Preference (Female)
Based on Figure 1 and Figure 2, a majority of the respondents are single-preferenced (preferring one learning style). Only 13% of the male and female respondents are learners with more than one preference.

Next, the researcher used a pie chart to illustrate the bi-modal preferences among the male and female respondents of this research. It is shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4 below:

Figure 3: Male respondents with Bi-Modal Preferences (choosing 2 learning styles)  
Figure 4: Female respondents with Bi-Modal Preferences (choosing 2 learning styles)

Figure 3 shows 6% of the male respondents choose a combination of reading and kinesthetic learning styles. Another 6% choose a combination of aural and kinesthetic learning styles. The rest of the male respondents (89%) are single-preferenced learners. Figure 4 shows 6% of the female respondents have a combination of reading and kinesthetic learning style whereas another 6% are a combination of visual and kinesthetic learners. The remaining majority of 89% of the female respondents are single preferences learners; visual, aural, reading or kinesthetic learners as shown in Figure 1.

4.2.2 Male Versus Female TESL Undergraduates Preferred Learning Style

Based on Figure 1 and Figure 2, the researcher compares the male and female respondents’ learning styles. Table 1 illustrates the differences between males and females.
Table 1: Male vs Female Preferred Learning Style (single preference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning style</th>
<th>Males (%)</th>
<th>Females (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kinesthetic</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For learners with bi-modal (two) preferences, the researcher finds that the same percentage of male and female respondents chooses a combination of reading and kinesthetic learning styles. Another 6% of the male respondents choose a combination of aural and kinesthetic learning styles whereas another 6% of the female respondents are a combination of visual and kinesthetic learners.

4.2.3 Significant Differences in Language Learning Styles among Males and Females

Based on Figure 1 and Figure 2, the researcher can see the difference between the males and females learning style preferences. The differences can be summarized in the Table 2 below:

Table 2: Differences between males and females learning style preferences (single preference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Style</th>
<th>Male vs Female Differences (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kinesthetic</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 2, the researcher can conclude that the differences in the learning preferences among the male and female respondents are low in significance for the visual learners and moderate in significance for the visual, reading as well as aural learners. Table 3 shows the differences in percentage between males and females with two learning style preferences.
Table 3: Differences between males and females learning style preferences
(bi- preference)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Styles</th>
<th>Male vs Female Differences (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading and kinesthetic</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural and kinesthetic</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual and kinesthetic</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 3, the researcher concludes that the significance between the differences of learning style preferences of the male and female respondents is moderate.

Findings and Discussions

5.1 Differences in Language Learning Styles of Males and Females

Oullette (2000) show that women prefer visual learning styles more than males do; 82% as compared to 62%. In this research paper, the findings show that only a minority of 13% of the male respondents and 14% of the female respondents are visual learners. This differs from the results by Oullette (2000).

Wehrwein, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006), show that 87.5% males prefer a combination of learning styles; a combination of visual, auditory, read-write as well as kinesthetic. 54.2% of the female respondents, on the other hand, are kinesthetic learners. They prefer a “single mode of information transformation” rather than “multiple modes of information transformation”. This research finds out that a majority of 89% of the male and female respondents are single-preferenced; they choose one particular learning style. Unlike the study by Wehrwein, Lujan & DiCarlo (2006), only 12% of the male and female respondents are bi-modal preferred. The results show that none of the respondents are tri-modal and multi-modal. Moreover, this study found that most of the male respondents are aural learners (38%) while the female respondents are mostly reading learners (31%).

Dybvig & Church (2010) found that males often employ a mix of visual, tactile and kinesthetic learning styles whereas females prefer kinesthetic learning style. This research shows that only a total of 12 % of the male respondents employ a mix of reading and kinesthetic learning styles as well as aural and kinesthetic learning styles. Majority of 89% of
the male respondents are either choosing exclusively visual, aural, reading or kinesthetic learners. The female respondents, on the other hand are majority reading learners (31%).

5.2 TESL Undergraduates Preferred Learning Style

Joy M. Reid (1987) found that “undergraduates were significantly more auditory than graduates” (p.94). The findings of this research paper are somewhat similar as they show that 89% of the male and female respondents either choose visual, kinesthetic, reading and aural learning style. Reid (1987) also showed that both graduates and undergraduates strongly preferred to learn kinesthetically and tactiley. This research differs from Reid (1987)’s because only the remaining 12% of the male and female respondents choose a combination of two learning styles; reading and kinesthetic, aural and kinesthetic as well as visual and kinesthetic learning styles. This research found that 38% of the male respondents are aural learners and 31% of the female respondents are reading learners.

5.3 Significant Differences in Language Learning Styles Among Males and Females

Nada Michel Salem (2006) found no significant role for gender in the overall use of language learning strategies. Macaro (2003) cited Maubach & Morgan (2001), saying that “although some male and female tendencies may exist, in terms of learning styles, more significant differences appear to relate to individual characteristics than to the gender divide” (p. 100-101).

This means that there are no significant differences in language learning styles between males and females. The findings of this research support the literature reviewed in the above paragraph. Not much difference in the learning styles of male and female TESL undergraduates is found. Table 3 below shows a summary of the differences of learning style preference between the single-preferred male respondents and the female respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning styles</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Differences (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinesthetic</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Summary of differences (single-preferred)
From the table above, the readers can see that there are not many differences in the learning style preference between the males and females. Therefore, the researcher can conclude that the differences in the learning preferences among the male and female respondents are low in significance for the visual learners and moderate in significance for the visual, reading as well as aural learners.

Table 4 below shows the differences in the bi-modal preferred male and female respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning style</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Difference (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading &amp; kinesthetic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aural &amp; kinesthetic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual &amp; kinesthetic</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, there is no difference in terms of males and females who chose reading and kinesthetic learning styles. However, there is a 6% difference when the males prefer a combination of aural and kinesthetic learning style and no females choose that combination. The females choose visual and kinesthetic learning style, while no males prefer that style of learning.

5.4 Limitations and Strength

Some of respondents did not give full cooperation while answering the questionnaires. They felt forced to answer it. They simply answered and circled the answers without reading carefully. Moreover, there were a lot of complaints regarding many other researchers whom already given them tons of questionnaires. The strength of this study is some of the respondents said that the VARK questionnaires are fun and related to their daily life.

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Title
Enhancing English Grammar and Writing Competence through a Big Book Project

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Abstract
English grammar is not easy to learn especially for non-native speakers. When English grammar is not sufficiently mastered, many non-native speakers become too shy to
speak the language. This is particularly true for most of the thirty childcare providers who recently completed three levels of a Communication English course. This short course is part of a two year Knowledge Transfer Programme (KTP) research project from the Centre for Modern Languages and Human Sciences (CMHLS) of Universiti Malaysia Pahang. These educators are members of Association of Pahang State Childcare Providers (PPNP) and their ages range from 21 to 53. Despite English being a second language in Malaysia, for many of these participants, English is more of a foreign language. This paper aims to describe a more unconventional approach of teaching English grammar and Writing skills through a big book project. This approach introduced English grammar in stages through poetry writing and focused on Haikus. At the end, participants produced a big book as a group in class and another big book individually as an assignment. To ensure that their illustrations were cohesive, they were given an art technique to choose from. Feedback received shows that the educators enjoyed learning grammar and writing this way and are inspired to write big books for their respective daycares.

**Keywords:** teaching English Grammar, Big Book Project, Haiku

**Introduction**

For years, English has been blamed as one of the primary reasons why many Malaysian graduates are unemployable (Syed Jaymal Naziid, 2015; Teoh, 2011; Kassim & Ali, 2010). The number of unemployed graduates is reported to have multiplied since 2013 from 52,282 to 161,000 unemployed graduates as of 28 September 2016, according to OfficeParrot (2016), an online resource and platform to research on prospective employers beyond company websites.

The standard of English language proficiency is believed to have been declining since the 1970s when the medium of instruction was switched from English to Malay (Teoh, 2011). This is because since the 70s, Malaysian children have been getting less and less exposure to English. Only when they started working would they realise how important English is, particularly if they worked in the private sectors.

It is obvious that the solution to this matter is not at tertiary level. It would be too late, as by the time high school leavers enter tertiary level, they should already be proficient in English as many of their references are in English. Therefore, it is crucial to find ways to improve English language mastery at a much earlier stage, preferably at the formation years.
stage of children (i.e., before the age of 4). The Permata Negara website speaks of Neuroscience studies which show that the formation years of children are essential to the success of their future due to the exposures they receive at this stage that lead to synapses or interconnection of brain cells or neurons to form when they are stimulated. The more these neurons are used, the more permanently connected they will be (http://www.programpermata.my/en/negara/about).

Furthermore, in the English Language Education Reform in Malaysia: The Roadmap 2015 – 2025 published by the English Language Standards and Quality Council, the Ministry of Education (English Language Standards and Quality Council, 2015), it was reported that “special attention has to be paid to early learning because this is when the foundations are laid for lifelong learning” (p.23). While this is true, many kindergartens or daycares are not equipped to teach toddlers English primarily because the caregivers themselves are lacking the confidence to use English, particularly in the case of many of the participants in this paper. The reality is that although English is supposedly a second language in Malaysia, for many Malaysians, English remains more of a foreign language. That is why there must be efforts made to improve the quality of English language among daycare educators. While parents work, their children spend an average of eight hours in daycares.

This is where KTP Kindy, a knowledge transfer programme research grant project steps in. It is a two year project that is funded by Ministry of Higher Education, aiming to enhance the English language proficiency of 30 daycare educators under Persatuan Pengasuh Negeri Pahang (PPNP) or the Association of Pahang State Childcare Providers by developing their self-confidence in using the target language with the children at their daycares.

KTP Kindy offers two modules: English Communication Skills (Module 1) and Effective Storytelling Techniques in English (Module 2). Both modules consist of 3 levels. However, the focus of this paper will only be on the Big Book Project, one of the project-based activities in Module 1 Level 2 (Poetry writing activities) and Level 3 (Big Book Exhibition).

**Literature Review**

When non-native speakers feel that they lack English mastery, it affects their self-confidence to speak it. This is reflected in statements like “I think I could have confidence while I’m speaking if I know about grammar well” (Lockley and Farrell, 2011, 176). Lockley and Farrell (2011) also cited many prior studies that showed that learners’ anxiety are linked
to face preservation (Tomizawa, 1990) and high performance expectations (Liu & Littlewood, 1997) and how they wished to be corrected (Katayama, 2007).

Literature also shows that learning difficulties among Asian learners are often grounded in weaknesses in students’ prior learning experiences – focused on grammar and reading skills in teacher-centred classrooms, not conversational skills – and in beliefs about language learning instilled during schooling (Erlenawati Sawir, 2005). Nishimuro and Borg’s (2013) study revealed that when teaching grammar, the lessons were teacher-centred and lacked communicative activities. Despite believing in the utility of such activities, the teachers felt such activities were time-consuming (Nishimuro & Borg, 2013).

Considering how many learners had been learning grammar and how their grammar anxiety could affect their confidence to communicate, KTP Kindy decided to take a project-based approach towards grammar and writing that is communicative, hands-on and relevant to their job responsibilities. This paper focuses on describing the big book project and how it enhances participants' writing and grammar competence through poetry writing, particularly haikus. It will also provide some feedback from the participants on the effectiveness of the approach.

**Big Book Project Approach**

During Module 1 Level 1, the participants realised that they were not learning English the way they learned in school, *i.e.*, the conventional way through ‘chalk and talk’ and grammar exercises. They were initially taken aback but soon admitted that they liked learning English using this more communicative approach, including the refresher course on grammar to introduce different parts of speech and how to write simple sentences through the Big Book Project approach.

The first activity was to write Category Poems, followed by 2-word Poems, Everyday Poems and lastly Haikus. All of these poetry writing activities with exception of Haiku, were inspired by Prof Alan Maley of British Council at the 2007 Malaysia International Conference for English Language Teaching (MICELT) during his workshop. All the activities were done in groups. The class was divided into six groups of five participants. However, within the group, they were also allowed to work in pairs or individually.

In Category Poems, participants were asked to think of a category and list as many words in that category. If necessary, they could repeat the words to give it rhythm. Then they had to recite their poems with feeling. For example, the category is shapes. So the poem could be as shown below:
Shapes
Circle
Diamond
Square
Triangle
Octagon

The 2-word Poem consists of two activities. Each group had to select 3 words from their Category Poem and pair it with another word making it a 2-word poem. The other word can be placed either before or after the existing word. Each group has to write three 2-word poems for each word they have selected. An example of the outcome would be as follows (the original words are in bold):

**Diamond** ring
Bright **diamond**
Expensive **diamond**

After each group had presented, then there would be a discussion on noun phrases. Participants were asked to think how placement can affect meaning. They would learn that nouns can also function as adjectives. They also learned about collocations, how some words can go together.

The proceeding activity was to combine two 2-word poems to make five sentences out of them. If that proved to be difficult, they were allowed to make sentences out of one 2-word poem instead. The ensuing discussion was on the importance of verbs and how sentences without verbs are not considered as English sentences. They were also introduced to subject verb agreement.

The next activity was to write Everyday Poem in stages – a verse of five lines at a time. There are four verses all together. The first verse must begin with Every day, I... The second verse must begin with But now, I..., followed by Yesterday, I... and lastly, Tomorrow, I... Through this poem, learners learned about tenses, and the difference between one tense from another.

The last group activity was to write a Haiku. A haiku is a Japanese inspired poem of three lines and fixed syllables of 5, 7. 5 each line. Participants learned to count the syllables and be selective of their word choices. At the end of the lesson, they produced a group haiku. The given theme was Safety as it was the national theme for early childhood education for 2016.
On the final day of Module 1 Level 2, they worked as a group to produce a Safety-themed big book of between ten and fourteen pages, that must be big and colourful. They were given two hours and selected art techniques to choose from so that their illustrations would be consistent from one page to another.

The next level for Module 1 was a month away. During that period, their take-home assignment was to individually write their own big book. The first meeting of Level 3 was the Big Book Exhibition where they showcased their big books and explained the idea behind the book. The advantages of the big books are many. Apart from the main aim of the activity, which was to build the participants’ confidence level and give them a sense of achievement, the big books could be used in their respective classes and in follow-up activities in Module 2. Moreover, the books were created and written by them, they are a source of pride. In fact, the daycares educators recently showcased their big books on 16 October 2016 during Safety Carnival in conjunction with Children’s and Daycare Day 2016.

**Methodology**

**Instrument**

A set of questionnaire was developed by the researchers with 16 Likert-scale items for Part A and 4 closed-ended questions for Part B. Part A comprises 4 effectiveness items, 4 confidence items, 4 enjoyment items and 4 understanding level items. The questionnaire was distributed to 26 participants who attended Module 2 Level 1.

**Participants**

The actual participants of KTP Kindy who attended Module 1 Level 2 and Level 3 were 30 and their age ranged from 21 to 53 years old. As mentioned, when the questionnaire was distributed, only 26 participants were available as respondents. Of the 26, the majority are Malaysian Certificate of Education or Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM) Form 5 school-leavers (50%). Only 11.5% or 3 participants are degree holders and 26.9% (7 participants) are Diploma holders. The other participants are with Malaysia Lower Certificate of Education or Sijil Rendah Pelajaran (SRP), taken in Form 3 (1 participant) and other qualifications (1 participant).
Table 1: *Participants’ Educational Qualification*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPM</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Data collection and data analysis procedures*

Participants were asked to rate their agreement on the items using a 5-point Likert-scale (*1=Strongly Agree* to *5=Strongly Disagree*). Data were entered in *IBM SPSS Statistics version 22* for descriptive analysis. In addition to that, reliability of the questionnaire was also checked. The Cronbach Alpha value of 0.89 obtained in this study shows that the scale is reliable.

*Results and discussion*

*The effectiveness of the big book approach*

Table 2 discusses the effectiveness of using the big book approach based on the four types of poetry writing participants were required to do. It is evident that all participants agree that the most effective poem for them to learn was writing the category poem. This is no surprise as it is the easiest of all the poetry types. As they progressed from one level to the next, the grammar component they were introduced to became more complex, especially in the Everyday Poem activity. They were introduced to at least four different types of tenses: Simple Present, Present Continuous, Past and Future. For each tense, they had to produce five sentences, whereas for Haiku, the whole poem could be only one sentence written in three lines.

Despite the complexity, majority of the participants still gave positive feedback towards the effectiveness of the other types of poems with varying percentage of agreement and uncertainty: 2-word Poem, 91.3 % agreement and 7.7 % uncertainty, Every day Poem, 84.6 % agreement and 15.4 % uncertainty, and lastly Haiku, 88.5 % agreement and 11.5 % uncertainty.
Table 2: *The effectiveness of the Big Book Approach*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Poem is an effective way to learn different groups of nouns</th>
<th>2-word Poem is an effective way to learn nouns and adjectives</th>
<th>Everyday Poem is an effective way to learn different types of tenses</th>
<th>Haiku is an effective way to enrich my English vocabulary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
<td>Strongly Agree: 34.6</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree: 65.4</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Sure: 0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree: 0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree: 0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree: 0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The confidence level of using correct language

Table 3 illustrates the confidence level of the participants using correct language. 61.5% agree that category poem gave them the confidence in identifying nouns. 73.1% of the participants also believed they were confident in writing correct phrases using nouns and adjectives in the 2-word poems. Learning the parts of speech and being able to apply them in writing 2-word poems helped the participants a lot as they could see how the placement of words could affect the meaning. However, when asked whether they gained confidence in writing correct tenses, it is not a surprise that 84.6% responded with ‘Not sure’. Tenses, as revealed, was the most difficult part of grammar elements for them. Similarly, 53.8% of the participants also admitted to lack of confidence in writing Haikus. The difficulty of writing Haikus would be the counting of syllables and careful word selection to meet the Haiku syllable requirement.

Table 3: *Confidence level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>I am confident writing correct</th>
<th>I am confident writing</th>
<th>I am confident to</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poem gave</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The enjoyment level in writing poems

Table 4 illustrates the findings on the participants’ agreement on their enjoyment engaging in the activities. All participants (100%) claimed to enjoy writing Category poem. Although 7.7% participants were not sure whether they enjoyed writing 2-word poem, the majority of the participants (92.3%) liked writing 2-word poem. Similar findings were reported for writing Everyday poem and Haikus where 88.2% of participants enjoyed the activities, however 11.5% were uncertain of their level of enjoyment in the activities.

These results support the idea of Susikaran (2013) who posits that teaching of grammar elements through poems can promote “enjoyment, involvement and interest” (p. 17) among ESL learners. It has been suggested by Jeffery and Wilcox (2014) that writing poetry activity which allow expressions of voice and opinions can encourage positive attitudes towards writing. The results of this study also appear to support the statement. The findings show that the participants of this project enjoyed writing short poems (Category and 2-word poems) slightly more compared to writing longer poems (Everyday Poem and Haikus).

For both Everyday and Haiku poems, findings recorded showed 11.5% uncertainty towards the level of enjoyment. A possible explanation for this might be that the participants’ low levels of English language proficiency hindered them from expressing their views at length through poetry writing. It could also be a possibility that when writing longer sentences, the chances of making mistakes are higher. So this decreases the enjoyment of writing longer sentences. Furthermore, the lack of grammar confidence may affect their writing enjoyment.
Table 4: Enjoyment in writing poems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>I enjoyed writing</th>
<th>I enjoyed writing 2-word Poem</th>
<th>I enjoyed writing Everyday Poem</th>
<th>I enjoyed writing Haikus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Sure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levels of understanding grammar concepts

Table 5 indicates that 80.7 % of participants understood that nouns are names of things, places, people, animals and abstract ideas. However, there are 19.2 % of the participants who still did not understand the concept of nouns. When asked whether they understood that phrases could consist of nouns and adjectives, 69.2 % claimed that they did understand the concept, but 30.8 % of them were unsure of the concept. Half of the participants reported that they understood the differences between tenses. The other half were still unsure (46.2 %) or did not understand (3.8 %).

In response to being aware that words are made up of syllables, 76.9 % of the participants agreed that they were aware, but 23.1 % were still not sure that words consisted of syllables. Findings from this study which show that participants were able to grasp the concept of nouns and syllables from poetry writing support Susikaran’s (2013) beliefs that poems can be an effective tool in teaching certain grammar components. Nevertheless, the participants of this study still could not quite understand the notions of phrases as well as tenses. This result may be explained by the fact that the construction of phrases and tenses is more complicated and that they involve many elements.

Table 5: Understanding of grammar components

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I understand</th>
<th>I understand</th>
<th>I understand</th>
<th>Haiku</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nouns are names of things, places, people, animals and abstracts ideas that phrases can be made from nouns and adjectives the differences between present, past and future tenses makes me aware that words are made up of syllables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Not Sure</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Sure</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questions regarding the Big Book Approach

4 closed-ended questions were also asked to the participants as shown in Table 6. Of the four questions posted, two questions received complete agreement from the participants in terms of their preference of learning grammar in groups and that writing big books enhanced their creativity. In terms of learning different art techniques to help them in enhancing their creativity, 80.8 % agreed that it did. As for the rest, perhaps these art techniques are already familiar to them. In terms of having written their own big books, only about 38.5 % of the participants have attempted it. This is very encouraging for the KTP team as most of the participants were so shy about their abilities to speak and write at the beginning of Module 1, and that they have managed to write their own books outside class time is a moment of pride.
Table 6: Regarding the Big Book Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Closed-ended questions</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you prefer learning grammar in group?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did learning different art techniques enhance your creativity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>80.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did writing Big Book project enable you to apply your creativity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you written your own Big Book?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>61.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Indeed the unconventional approach of teaching English grammar and writing skills through a big book project has increased KTP Kindy participants’ competence to the extent that 38.5% has gained the confidence to write their own big books. The majority understood grammar concepts better, having followed this approach. Tenses and other grammar concepts will be addressed in future levels through other relevant activities to further enhance the participants’ grammar knowledge and awareness of the language they are using. Even though the number of participants who have dared to do what they would never have dreamed of doing is about one third of the participants, for the KTP Kindy team, that is already a big accomplishment. This illustrates that the approach of teaching English grammar through poetry writing and Haikus was successful because they learned in stages and the product is very relevant to their needs. Furthermore, getting the participants to learn grammar through working in groups boosts their confidence because they can collaborate on exercises that are meaningful. This approach has successfully attracted the participants in learning grammar and writing and it is hoped that KTP Kindy participants’ grammar and writing competence will further increase and improve at the completion of the programme in September 2017.

Acknowledgment

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References


Appendix A

Figure 1: Big Book (Individual)

Figure 2: Big Book Exhibition
Title
Students’ Perception of Online Reading Quizzes and Paper Based Test

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Abstract
The objectives of this study are: (1) to investigate the students perception toward different types of online reading quizzes relative to paper-based test; and (2) to investigate the students most preferred toward types of online reading quizzes. Design of this research is a mixed methods design. The researcher conducted this study at VIII 1 of SMP Negeri 1 Kendari. Techniques of procedures are first students are asked to do the paper-based reading comprehension test. Second, they take the online reading quizzes. Following the two tests, fill out the questionnaire for online reading comprehension. The study shows that the students like online reading quizzes better than paper-based test. They most prefer online reading quizzes type 4 (matching). The fact that students prefer online reading quizzes to paper-based test may be attributable to a number of factors. First, some of the students say that sometimes the questions involve pictures in paper-based test are unclear after photocopy. Second, students occasionally use correction pen to erase their errors on paper. It makes their worksheet are dirty. Third, paper-based test needs some times for corrections. Besides, there are some students which like paper-based test. They like paper-based test because it has been familiar for them, and it is easy to back and forth the papers.

Key Words: online reading, and paper-based test.
I. Introduction

In evaluation, quizzes are also used as an incentive to keep up with the material between exams. There are two kinds of quizzes, namely paper-based and computer-based quizzes. Paper-based quizzes have a number of advantages. To begin with, students are familiar with this type of test. Hence, they are not confused to do the test. Second, some of them used pens to help them read on the paper. They can underline certain lines, circle some words, or leave few marks on the paper. Besides the disadvantages of paper-based test are first the large numbers of students complicate teachers to examine student answer sheet. Second, sometimes students score out their worksheet hence their worksheet gets dirty. Third, some questions may not be readable due to papers being photocopied. Finally, students’ worksheet may sometimes be lost.

There are a number of advantages of computer-based quizzes. First, the teacher can examine students’ work in a matter of second. Second, it provides some pictures and animation. Furthermore, we can save a lot of paper without printing and we don’t need to worry about poor printing quality.

II. Literature Review

Online Reading

Online reading can offer new challenges and opportunities both of the teacher and students. It can provide some information on the screen of computer. (Tseng: 2008) states that online reading is non-linear activity; it enables readers pick and choose blocks of text by interacting the machine. Online reading consists of texts, pictures, sounds, graphics, and animations. (Hodgson, 2010).

There are five kinds of online reading quizzes which are focused in this study. Such as:

1) Multiple choice type 1
Quiz type 1 consists of some multiple choice questions in one page. The student answers some question by clicking one of the option. After doing the test, the students will get the score directly and know the key answer by clicking get score.

2) Multiple choice type 2

The student answers a question. After that, the student clicks one of the options. Directly, computer will comment whether the students’ answer is right or wrong. If the students’ answer is wrong the computer will comment “Sorry, you're wrong. The correct answer is: ...” meanwhile If the students’ answer is right the computer will comment “That’s right”.

3) Sentence Generation Exercises

The student answers a question by clicking ready. The student tries to write the answer, and then click ok. Student clicks check to know the key answer. Directly, computer will comment whether the students’ answer is right or wrong. If the students’ answer is wrong the computer will comment “Sorry, you're wrong”. Meanwhile If the students’ answer is right the computer will comment “That’s right”.

The student can know the key answer by clicking show me. However the computer automatically will give notification at the icon of look ups.

4) Matching

Quiz type 4 consists of question on the right hand and the key answers on the left hand in one page. The student answers the question by moving the cursor answer to the question. After doing the test, the student clicks check. Directly, computer will give the total of score.

5) Mix Quiz
Quiz type 5 consists of multiple choice questions, matching and short essay. The student answers the question. After that, the student clicks one of the options then click **submit**. Directly, computer will comment whether the students’ answer is right or wrong. If the students’ answer is wrong the computer will comment “wrong”.

**III. Methodology**

Design of this research was a mixed methods design. The participants were thirty two students. Their language proficiency level was junior high school. In taking the sample of this study, the researcher applied purposive sampling. The research instruments in this study were questionnaire and interview. Computing the questionnaire was analyzed by using Paired-Sample Test.
IV Findings And Discussion

4.1 Findings

Table 1 Paired Samples Test Part I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>It is easier to do the reading comprehension questions on paper.</td>
<td>3.3125</td>
<td>It is easier to do the reading comprehension questions on computer screens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>It is easier to do the reading comprehension questions on computer screens.</td>
<td>3.8125</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>If I have the choice, I would prefer to read articles printed on paper.</td>
<td>3.2813</td>
<td>Students would prefer to read articles on computer screens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>If I have the choice, I would prefer to read articles on computer screens.</td>
<td>3.6563</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>I like to read articles on computer screens.</td>
<td>3.8750</td>
<td>Students like to read articles on computer screens.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>I like to read articles on paper.</td>
<td>3.2500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, to know the students’ reactions toward online reading quizzes, the researcher compares the mean scores between Q1 and Q2, Q3 and Q4, and Q5 and Q6, (see Table 1). Mean score in Q3 (3.2813) > Q4 (3.6563), it concludes that students prefer to read articles on computer screens whether they are asked to do a reading comprehension test or read an article. Moreover, Q5 and Q6 show that mean score Q5 (3.8750) and Q6 (3.2500). It concludes that students are like online reading quizzes better than paper-based test.
**Types of Online Reading Quizzes Most Preferred**

Table 2 Types of Online Reading Quizzes Most Preferred

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Report</th>
<th>Q21</th>
<th>Q22</th>
<th>Q23</th>
<th>Q24</th>
<th>Q25</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>3.8125</td>
<td>3.5625</td>
<td>4.2188</td>
<td>3.5938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>.76200</td>
<td>.53506</td>
<td>.75935</td>
<td>.65915</td>
<td>.97912</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the table, the highest mean score is the fourth quiz (Matching). The second is the first quiz (Multiple Choice Type I). The third is the second quiz (Multiple Choice Type II). The fourth is the fifth quiz (Mix Quiz). The last one is the third quiz (Sentence Generation Exercises).

### 4.2 Discussion

Students use internet for browsing their tasks, chatting on social media, playing game, and watching YouTube. Moreover, they think when reading article online, it helps them to increase their knowledge, and do their tasks. However, the internet access is not always good. They most preferred online reading quiz is type 4 (matching), because it is easy to do. They just match the key answers to the questions. They think matching is like a game.

### V. Conclusion

To conclude, the study shows that the students are like online reading quizzes better than paper-based test. Most of them like online reading quizzes type 4 (matching). Online reading quizzes report the student’s score automatically after the end of every quiz. Meanwhile, there are some students which like paper-based test. They like paper-based test because it has been familiar for them, and it is easy to back and forth the papers.

### References


Title
The Translation of Person Deixis in *Harry Potter and the Sorcerers Stone* into
Indonesian

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to find out how power, distance and social status influence the translation of person deixis, “I” and “you” (singular pronoun) in the novel entitles *Harry Potter and the Sorcerers Stone*. The data were taken from the novel both in English and Indonesia. There are some findings after analyzing the data. The word “you” is translated differently as well as “I”. Power, social, status and distance of speaker and addressee determine the translation of the deixis.

Introduction
Language is a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permits all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. (Finocchiaro, 1974, p.3). In fact, there are many different languages used in the world so that in communicating with other people, one needs English as the most widely used in the world. Being an international language, English should also be used by Indonesian to
create interaction. Unfortunately, English as a foreign language in Indonesia becomes a barrier for Indonesian to communicate with others.

To overcome the problem, a translator is needed. However, to be a translator means a hard worker because to translate some texts is not easy as one expects. Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL). (Cat Ford, 1974, p. 20). In translating a text, one should be able to produce a natural text which can be accepted in the nature of both source language and target language. It should be also implemented when one translates person deixis because the translation of person deixis will influence the reader’s perception toward the characters in the texts.

“Each language has its own patterns to convey the interrelationships of persons and events; in no language may these patterns be ignored, if the translation is to be understood by its readers” (Callow, 1974, p. 30 cited in Baker, 1992, p.180)

Research Questions
1) How is person deixis, “I” translated in the novel entitles *Harry Potter and The Philosopher’s Stone*?
2) How is person deixis, “you” (singular pronoun) translated in the novel entitles *Harry Potter and The Philosopher’s Stone*?

Literature Review

Deixis

Deixis is pointing or indicating and has as prototypical or focal exemplars the use of demonstrative, first and second person pronouns, tense, specific time and place adverbs like now and here, and a variety of other grammatical features tied directly to the circumstances of utterance. (Levinson, 1983, p.54). Deixis is the property of a restricted set of demonstratives such that their reference is determined in relation to the point of origin of the utterance in which they occur. (Grundy,1995, p.15)

Person deixis

Person deixis primarily makes reference to the speaker as the deictic center of the speech event and the addressee; for example ‘I’, ‘you’ and ‘we’. (Marmaridou, 2000, p.74-93)

Power, Distance and Social Status

power relates to powerful participants controlling and constraining the contributions of non-powerful participants. (Fairclough, 1992, p.46). Holmes (2013) said that distance relates to
how well do the persons know each other. It determines the intimacy between them. Wardaugh (2006) said that social status can be looked from one’s education, occupation, and income. If one has high education, good occupation and high income, he will have high social status.

**Methodology**

**Data**

The all data are taken from a novel entitles *Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone* by J.K Rowling both in English and Indonesian. The data are collected from utterances containing of person deixis, “I” and “you” (singular pronoun).

**Procedures**

In the study, there are five stages that have been done; they are

1. finding out utterances in the novel, contain person deixis, “I” and “you”
2. comparing the data between English and Indonesian
3. analyzing the data by looking at social status, power, and distance
4. making interpretation
5. drawing conclusion

**Findings and Discussion**

**First Person Pronoun, “I”**

“I” is translated into “aku” or “saya” because of:

1) social status with its various situations written bellow:
   a) The speaker is older than the addressee
   b) The utterances involves a husband and a wife either as addressee or speaker
   c) The speaker is a parent and the addressee is a son/ a daughter. It will show an intimacy and it is common in Indonesia.
   d) The speaker is an uncle/an aunt and the addressee is a nephew or a niece
   e) The speaker is a brother and the addressee is a sister or vice versa

2) power and its situation bellow
   a) The speaker has higher position than the addressee
   b) The speaker is a teacher and the addressee is a student (s)
   c) The speaker is a master and the addressee is his follower

3) and distance with the following condition
a) The speaker and the addressee are close friends
b) The speaker and the addressee are children
c) The speaker and the addressee are colleagues who have the same position

On the other hand, “I” is translated into “saya” because of ones’:

1) social status such as the speaker is younger than the addressee
2) power with these various condition:
   a) The speaker is a student and the addressee is a principal of Hogwarts
   b) The speaker is a student and the addressee is a teacher
   c) The speaker has lower position than the addressee e.g. The addressee is a principal of Hogwarts while the speaker is a teacher
3) and distance with this various condition:
   a) The speaker considers the addressee as a stranger
   b) The speaker and the addressee meet each other for the first time
   c) The speaker considers the addressee as a great hero and he deserves to be respected
   d) The speaker considers the addressee as a great hero and he deserves to be respected
   e) The speaker considers the addressee as a stranger and vice versa
   f) The speaker as a commentator and the addressees are the audiences in a competition

**Second Person Pronoun (singular), “You”**

“You” in Indonesian can be translated into some words such as “kau”, “anda”, mum, “paman” or “paman and bibi”. In this case, “you” (second person singular) is translated into “kau” because of :

1) social status and its various situations as follow
   a) The speaker is a husband and the addressee is a wife or vice versa
   b) The speaker is an uncle/an aunt and the addressee is a nephew or a niece
   c) The speaker and the addressee are cousins
   d) The speaker is a parent and the addressee is a son/a daughter
   e) The speaker is older than the addressee
   f) The speaker is a brother and the addressee is a sister or vice versa
2) power and its various situations as follow
   a) The speaker is a teacher and the addressee is a student (s)
   b) The speaker is a principal of Hogwarts and the addressee is a student
3) distance and its various situation as follow
   a) The speaker and the addressee are friends
b) The speaker and the addressee are children
c) The speaker and the addressee are colleagues who have the same position

While “you” (singular pronoun) is translated into “anda” because of

1) power and its situation bellow
   a) The speaker is a student and the addressee is a teacher
   b) The speaker is a student and the addressee is a principal of Hogwarts
   c) The addressee is a principal of Hogwarts while the speaker is a teacher

3) distance and its situation bellow
   a) The speaker considers the addressee as a stranger
   b) The speaker and the addressee meet each other for the first time
   c) The speaker as an announcer and the addressee is the passengers in a train

In addition, “you” is translated into kinship when there is a kin relationship between the addressee and the speaker such as “uncle/aunt and his/her nephew/niece, or dad/mum and his/her son/daughter. It is more acceptable in Indonesian than translating “you” into ”kau” which is less polite or “anda” which is too formal.

Conclusions

The finding show that “I” and “you” are translated into some Indonesian words. Their translation are influenced by power, social status and distance. Further, researchers recomended English teachers to explain this matter in translation class. Finally, future studies are needed to investigate on the translation of others person deixis into Indonesian.

References

The Implementation of Multimodal Assessment to Measure the English Learners’ Receptive Skills and Appraise their Academic Literacy

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Abstract

Multimodal assessment deals with the employment of inter-semiotic elements in measuring as well as appraising learner's competences. It focuses not only on verbal language but also on visual images. Although learning processes have benefited from the advancement of communications technology, such assessment generally remained mono-modal. This study aimed to reveal the learners’ perceptions about the implementation of multimodal assessment in measuring their receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy, which is relevant to the multidimensional teaching-learning processes. It includes (1) the need of implementing multimodal assessment in measuring the learners’ receptive skills, (2) the relevance of employing multimodality in teaching-learning processes, (3) the importance of multimodal assessment to appraise the learners’ academic literacy. Locating in Universitas Negeri Semarang, this study focused on the teaching-learning processes and multimodal assessment implemented to measure the learners’ receptive skills and appraise their academic literacy. Questionnaires were employed to explore the respondents’ perceptions regarding the implementation of the multimodal assessment and an interview to reveal their opinion about

1 This work was supported by Universitas Negeri Semarang Research Grant of 2016.
the particular type of assessment. The data were analyzed quantitatively as the basis of qualitative interpretation and inferences. Among the results were argumentative description and explanation about the need, the relevance, and importance of multimodal assessment in measuring the learners’ mastery of the two skills.

Key words: multimodal assessment, receptive skills, academic literacy

Introduction

This research was initiated by an assumption that a lot of studies have focused on the comprehensibility of written passages owing to facts that texts are generally presented in verbal form. Visual images are merely thought of as an additional ornament just to make the verbal text representation looks more eye-catching. The presence of visual entities is oftentimes reckoned solely as a complement to the verbal form in meaning-making. Assuming that visual images play a significant role in aiding readers to better understand the respective verbal texts, a number of multimodal studies have been conducted so far.

Multimodal Assessment focuses on inter-semiotic components including verbal facet and such elements as audio, visual, spatial, temporal, kinetic, aesthetic ones. Although learning processes have been following the development of teaching techniques which are based on the advancement of communications technology, such assessment generally remained mono-modal.

In line with the application of communications technology in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning, this study intends to reveal the implementation of multimodal assessment in appraising receptive skills and academic literacy which are naturally multidimensional. It aims to reveal the learners’ perceptions about the implementation of multimodal assessment in measuring their receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy including the need of implementing multimodal assessment in measuring the learners’ receptive skills, the relevance of employing multimodality in teaching-learning processes, the importance of multimodal assessment to appraise the learners’ academic literacy.

Literature Review

Exploring the multimodality in EFL teaching-learning processes, Bezerra (2011) studied the multimodal nature of communication. Liu & Qu (2014) explored the
multimodality with the purpose of comparing their verbal and visual modes. Souzandehfar, et al. (2014) showed the meanings of advertisements in specific contexts. The employment of multimodal resources had enabled the enhancement of language and literacy skills.

Studying the role of multimodal in EFL students’ autonomous listening comprehension and multi-literacy, Ruan & Leung (2012) showed that the new model proved to be capable of effectively improving the students’ independent learning ability. Then, integrating multimodality into classroom practices, Choi & Young (2015) suggested that little is known about how EFL teachers integrate multimodality into their existing curriculum.

Besides the aforementioned studies, Nørgaard (2010) studied the relations between multimodality and the literary text; Herman (2010) conducted a case study concerning word-image versus utterance-gesture in multimodal storytelling. Ajayi (2012) questioned, “how teachers deployed multimodal textbooks to enhance English language learning”. Huang (2015) conducted research concerning “the intersection of multimodality and critical perspective”.

In the field of multimodal assessment, a number of studies had been conducted by Jewitt (2003); Hsiu-Ting Hung, et al. (2013); Lee (2014); and Fang-O Kuo, et al. (2015). Other experts who strive to relate learning and multimodal as well as authentic and performance assessment include Finch (2002); Lynch (2003); Abedi (2010). Most of these studies show the importance of integrating verbal texts and multimodal perspectives in creating learning atmospheres that encourage the students to accelerate the process of effectively mastering the components of language skills.

In order to answer the question posed in the introduction, a number of references were taken into account as the referential basis of the study. Among such references are comprehensive studies found in Kress, et al. (2001); Kress, et al. (2005); Schalkwyk (2008); Page (Ed.) (2010); Kress (2010); O’Halloran & Smith (Eds.) (2011); Camiciottoli & Fortanet-Gómez (2015). Such studies were considered to be the theoretical basis to make the theoretical framework for this current study.

**Methodology**

This research took place at the English Department of the Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang, employing the lecturers and active students in the department as the research subjects. The object of this study was the need, the relevance, and importance of implementing multimodal assessment in measuring the learners’ receptive
skills and appraising their academic literacy. This study aimed to reveal the learners’ perceptions about the implementation of multimodal assessment in measuring their receptive skills and appraising their academic literacy, which is relevant to the multidimensional teaching-learning processes.

The main instruments of this study were (1) observation guide to record the application of teaching techniques and multimodal assessment, (2) questionnaires to explore the respondents’ perceptions regarding their needs, the relevance, and importance of visual images in the implementation of the multimodal teaching and assessment, (3) an interview to reveal the respondents' opinion about the assessment types. Data were analyzed quantitatively as the basis of qualitative interpretation and inferences. The expected results were argumentative description and explanation regarding the implementation of multimodal assessment.

Findings and Discussion

Findings

The dependence level of verbal passages on visual images was determined by considering the respondents’ answers to the questionnaires distinguishing very low, low, moderate, high, and very high levels of needs, the relevance, and the importance of multimodality. The indexes of the students’ needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in supporting the process of assessing receptive skills and enhancing the students’ levels of academic literacy were thus used for predicting the respondents’ levels in perceiving the three components of multimodal assessment, i.e. the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in supporting the comprehensibility of verbal passages.

Using very simple descriptive statistics it was found that the students’ needs, relevance, and the importance of visual images to understand verbal passages scores 142.45, 143.5, and 144.3 respectively (see Table 1).

Table 1. Average scores of the students’ needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in supporting their understanding of verbal passages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Needs of Visual Images</th>
<th>Relevance of Visual Images</th>
<th>Importance of Visual Images</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Scores</td>
<td>5698</td>
<td>5740</td>
<td>5772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>142.45</td>
<td>143.5</td>
<td>144.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 shows the average scores of the respondents’ perception about (1) the needs of visual images to support the process of receptive skills assessment, (2) the relevance of teaching-learning strategies implementing visual images to enhance their academic literacy, and (3) the importance of visual images in enhancing the students’ levels of academic literacy. If the three average scores are consulted to the table, the three components score high. It implies that visual images are not only highly required to help them make meaning but are also relevant to support them in enhancing their academic literacy.

**The Students’ Needs of Visual Images:**

Considering the students' needs of visual images in the reading and listening assessment, the ANOVA output for regression showed that the F-value was 1.605653, while the F-Significance based on df (0.05, 1, 18) was 0.221254. Therefore, the students’ need of visual images to understand verbal messages was unable to predict their needs of visual images to comprehend audio messages. It implies that the need of visual images to assess listening skill is not determined by their need of visual images in comprehending verbal texts.

Comparing the students’ need of visual images to understand reading and listening materials, it was found that the students’ need of visual images to understand listening materials was relatively homogeneous, while their need for visual images to understand listening material varies.

**The Relevance of Visual Images to Enhance the Students’ Academic Literacy:**

Considering the relevance of visual images to support the process of enhancing the students’ academic literacy, it was found that the F-value was 14.30374, while the F-Significance based on df (0.05, 1, 17) was 0.000228. It can be inferred that the degree of the relevance of visual images to understand verbal messages was capable of predicting the relevance of visual images to understand audio messages. It implies that the relevance of visual images to assess listening skill is partly determined by the relevance of visual images to comprehend audio materials.

Comparing the relevance of visual images to understand reading and listening materials, it was found that the relevance of visual images to understand reading materials were relatively similar to the relevance of visual images to understand listening material.

**The Importance of Visual Images to Enhance the Students’ Academic Literacy:**

Considering the importance of visual images to support the process of enhancing the students’ levels of academic literacy, it was found that the F-value was 2.510163, while the F-Significance based on df (0.05, 1, 18) was 0.130526. In other words, the degree of
importance of the visual images to enhance the students’ capability of understanding verbal messages was incapable of predicting the importance of visual images in understanding audio messages. In other words, the importance of visual images to assess listening skill is not determined by the importance of visual images to comprehend audio materials.

Comparing the importance of visual images to understand reading and listening materials, it was found that the relevance of visual images to understand reading materials were relatively similar to the importance of visual images to understand the listening material.

**Interactions among Variables:**

Based on the two-factor ANOVA with replication, the output for the sample (i.e. reading and writing), the F-value was 7.867, while the F-critical based on df (0.05, 1, 114) was 3.924 with the p-value of as much as 0.006 (see Table 2). It can be inferred that there is a significant difference in the respondents’ perception about the dependence of verbal texts on visual images between reading and writing.

Based on the ANOVA output for the three columns (i.e. the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images in receptive assessment and enhancement of academic literacy), the F-value was only 0.295, while the F-critical based on df (0.05, 2, 114) was 3.076 with the p-value of as much as 0.745. It implies that there is no significant difference in the respondents’ perception about the dependence of verbal texts on visual images among the average scores of the respondents’ perceptions about the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images on verbal texts.

Table 2. The interaction between variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>F crit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>918.533</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>918.533</td>
<td>7.867</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>3.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columns</td>
<td>68.867</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>34.433</td>
<td>0.295</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td>3.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>64.867</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32.433</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>0.758</td>
<td>3.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>13310.900</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>116.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14363.17</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As for the interaction between the receptive skills and the respondents’ perceptions about the needs of visual images to understand verbal messages, the relevance as well as importance of visual images to academic literacy enhancement, the F-value was only 0.278, much lower than the F-crit (3.076) or the p-value (0.758) was well higher than the alpha value of (0.05). Therefore, there is no interaction between the students’ needs, and the relevance as well as the importance of visual images to enhance their levels of academic literacy specifically in comprehending receptive skills, including listening and reading ones. Chart 1 shows that the needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images to understand written texts, represented in reading, are averagely much higher than to comprehend audio messages, which are represented in listening.

![Chart 1. The interaction between the students’ needs, the relevance, and the importance of visual images to comprehend receptive skills.](image)

**Discussion**

Answering the question of the need for the application of multimodal assessment in measuring the receptive skills of English learners, the need for visual images to understand the verbal messages can not be used as a basis for predicting their need of visual images to understand messages delivered in listening skill. It implies that text understanding either in the reading or listening skill does not depend on the presence or absence of visual images even though the visual images are needed by the language learners. This is in line with Wyatt-Smith & Kimber’s claim (2009) that ‘the valuation is still dominated by the use of printed materials that represent the verbal language.’

However, the respondents’ response to the high level of visual images required to understand the text conveyed verbally and text presented in listening skills are relevant to Matthiessen’s statement (2007: 4-6) about the existence of ‘inherent multimodality of
language as demonstrated by the 'body language' and 'paralanguage'. Thus, as stated by such experts as Scollon & Scollon (2003), O'Halloran (2004), Baldry & Thibault (2006), Kress & van Leeuwen (2006), Bateman (2008), and Unsworth (2008), there is a close relation between the use of verbal language and that of semiotic elements to support the delivery and understanding of the verbal language more effectively and efficiently. Therefore, the absence of a significant relation between the need for visual images to the effectiveness and efficiency of understanding verbal texts can be traced to other factors. In addition, multimodal assessment is necessary to gain an insight into the expectations of the quality of the learners’ performance.

Concerning the relevance of multimodal techniques, it was found that the relevance of visual images to understand verbal text is able to predict the relevance of visual images to understand the message delivered with the help of the audio device. This implies that the relevance of visual images to assess listening skill is partly determined by the relevance of visual images to understand the teaching materials equipped with the audio images. The high perception of the relevance of these two aspects demonstrates that the relevant assessment includes elements presented in the learning process.

Furthermore, the importance of visual images to enhance the students' skills in understanding verbal messages was unable to predict the importance of visual images in understanding the messages delivered by audio devices. Although the multi-literacy theory in learning processes has been implemented in these last two decades, it did not necessarily apply to the learning and assessment of listening and reading skills. Thus, the concept of conventional reading and writing, digital literacy, visual literacy, and critical literacy is an important aspect of the multi-literacy practice despite the theoretical concept faces several non-academic constraints.

Concerning the interaction between the needs, the relevance and the importance of visual images for the students to mastery of listening and reading skills in order to increase their academic literacy, there are significant differences in the verbal text dependence on visual images between reading and writing. First, there was no significant difference regarding verbal text reliance on visual imagery between the needs, the relevance and the importance of visual images in verbal texts. Secondly, there was no significant difference regarding verbal text reliance on visual images between the needs, the relevance, and importance of visual imagery in the verbal text. Thus, Van Dyk & Wiedeman’s claim (2004) is not always realized in learning and assessment activities of listening and reading.
Conclusion

Visual images are not only highly required by the students to help them make meaning but are also relevant as well as important to support them in enhancing their academic literacy. While the students’ needs of visual images to understand listening materials were relatively homogenous, their needs of visual images to understand listening material vary.

The relevance of visual images to assess listening skill is partly determined by the relevance of visual images to comprehend audio materials. The importance of visual images to assess listening skill is not determined by that of visual images to comprehend audio materials. There is no interaction between the students’ needs, and the relevance as well as the importance of visual images to enhance their levels of academic literacy specifically in comprehending receptive skills, including listening and reading ones.

References


A Case Study of Cross Cultural Adjustments among Indonesian Scholars in the United States

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Abstract
The development of joint degrees and other international education programs between Indonesia and the United States often aims at recruiting both degree-seeking and short-term post-graduate students. Living in a new cultural environment, Indonesian scholars are bound to face challenges in adjustments in order to communicate well (Ward & Rana Deuba, 2000; Zakaria, 2000). Challenges are inevitable due to differences in cultural backgrounds. This investigation adopts a case study approach to enable the researcher to focus on particularities and complexities and, thus, to better understand an activity and its significance (Stake 1995). Two primary methods are used in data collection: interview and observations conducted at a mid-sized public university in the United States where eight Indonesian visiting scholar participants were living for three months while they pursued mentored research sponsored by Indonesia’s Ministry of National Education. The findings reveal that obvious misunderstandings in cross-cultural adjustment are language barriers, academic stress, food, climate, religious differences, and forms of address, nonverbal communication, and time. Cultural misunderstandings are at their height in the beginning of the academic sojourn, a result of struggling to cope with language barriers and the unfamiliar academic and sociocultural environment. This is not a generalizable process; there are differences not only in experience among the students but also in the individual subjective senses of success in
different aspects of life in the new country. The adjustment journey as a dynamic process experienced differently among sojourners, and fluctuating throughout the sojourn as a result of individual, cultural, and external factors.

**Keywords:** cross-cultural adjustment, a case study, cultural misunderstanding, dynamic process.

**Introduction**

The development of joint degrees and other international education programs between Indonesia and the United States often aims at recruiting both degree-seeking and short-term post-graduate students. This expansion has also been accompanied by a growth in educational research looking at how international students fare when abroad. Van Hoof and Verbeeten (2005, p. 54) provide some justification for this:

It is important for the study of international education to start analyzing the perceptions of the students involved in such programmes, not only to corroborate predominant ideas about the benefits and challenges of international education but also for purely practical reasons.

One reality of the international education experience is the presence and the perception of cross-cultural misunderstandings. Even when we are thoroughly aware of all the barriers to effective cross-cultural communication and make use of available aids and tools to assist us in communicating with people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, misunderstandings can still occur. An important skill for international academic sojourners is to know how to respond when misunderstandings occur and to learn from these events.

Asian international students appear to experience more academic and nonacademic challenges than do students from other regions (Church, 1982; Fritz, Chin, & DeMarinis, 2008; Li & Gasser, 2005; Nilsson, Butler, Shouse, & Joshi, 2008; Poyrazli, Kavanaugh, Baker, & Al-Timimi, 2004; Sato & Hodge 2009; Trice, 2004). While a substantial number of previous studies have addressed academic and nonacademic challenges experienced by many international students, most of them have focused on the international students in general and tend to place Indonesian students in one group with other Asian students (Fritz, Chin, & DeMarinis, 2008; Liu, 2001; Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008; Trice, 2004; Zhai, 2002). For example, Fritz, Chin, and DeMarinis (2008) found that Asian students had difficulties in
dealing with the new language and in making new friends. Meanwhile, Liu (2001) reported that linguistic, sociocultural, cognitive, pedagogical, and affective factors influenced Asian international graduate students’ classroom engagement. The participants in this observational study were all academic pursuing doctoral research and sponsored by the Indonesian government.

There is so much to take into account when communicating with somebody coming from a different cultural perspective, and it is important not to jump to hasty conclusions. As even early cross cultural theory tells us, culture shock isn’t like the mumps. You get it repeatedly. The most effective way forward is to develop the habit of looking for the resolution of misunderstandings arising from perceived differences through reflection, increased understanding, and the creation of helpful solutions (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963).

Living in a new cultural environment, Indonesian scholars are bound to face challenges in adjustments in order to communicate well (Ward & Rana Deuba, 2000; Zakaria, 2000). Challenges are inevitable due to differences in cultural backgrounds, and American social culture is decidedly different from Indonesian social culture. Patience and a desire to observe and adjust are required for a successful academic stay. Cross culture adjustment theorist such as Grove and Torbjorn (1985) and Lysgaard (1955) tell us that sojourners usually bottom out after several weeks or months in their new environment. Awareness of such a phenomenon could be created through various efforts to lessen the challenges for Indonesian scholars living in the USA during a short term academic program.

The discussion below is based on results from a qualitative case study examining the perceptions by Indonesian students of American culture in relation to learning experiences while spending three months in the United States. As Gao (2002) notes, a transfer of the culture of one language into the other may very likely lead to language misunderstanding, confusion, and even conflicts. Cross cultural misunderstandings or cultural clashes that occurred in the process of adjustment can help to identify issues that may cause conflict in communication. Ultimately, a structured cross cultural understanding program could be devised to improve sojourners’ functional skills and minimize clashes.

**Language and Culture**

Language is inseparable from culture. Language is itself a cultural entity. Conversely, the influence of language on culture is that, without language, a certain level of cultural
knowledge or cultural development could never arise (Langacker, 1994: 30). As early 20th century language theorists have noted, knowledge of a language implies awareness of the totality of associations carried by expressions in the language, particularly in the context of situation and context of culture (Malinowski, 1935, pp. 51-2; Firth 1957, p.36). One example might be the degrees of indirectness used in English requests (Clark & Schunk, 1980, p. 111), including imperatives (“Tell me the time.”), indirect requests (“Can you tell me the time?”), and statements (“It must be getting late.”)

In discussing the communication problems in relation to language differences, Pederson (1983, p. 405) presents the following example:

- Even when the words in Chinese and English were the same the contexts in which the words were interpreted were completely different. Some of the more common counseling words such as concern (e.g., “I am concerned about you.”) simply do not exist in Chinese.

The ability to recognize these differences, to make correct interpretations, and to react properly to people or situations in these communities constitutes the essence of cross-cultural understanding. As Elashmawi (1993) states, when an individual experiences difficulties understanding the effect of his or her own cultural values towards his or her behavior, that individual will have a problem understanding another person’s behavior.

**Cross Cultural Adjustments**

Researchers interested in cross-cultural adaptation have examined the psychological phases people go through when entering a foreign culture, the traits that contribute to adjustment in a new culture, and the process of becoming an intercultural or bi-cultural individual (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Furnham, 1988; Kim & Ruben, 1988; Nwanko & Onwumechili, 1991; Searle & Ward, 1990). Most of this research addresses the issue of adaptation from the perspective of long term adjustment to cultural differences (Freedman, 1986; James, 1992; Kohls, 1984; Oberg, 1960). For example, Kim and Ruben (1988) argue that a person goes through a process of stress and adaptation that leads to growth in intercultural communication skills over time. They contend that most individuals in most situations adapt to the stress of cultural differences.
Cultural Competence

Cultural competence involves a process of developing cultural awareness, knowledge, and skills (Campinha-Bacote, 2011; Luquis & Pérez, 2006; Pesquera, Yder, & Lynk, 2008). Campinha-Bacote’s model of cultural competence includes five constructs:

- Cultural awareness is the self-examination of beliefs, values, and personal biases.
- Cultural knowledge is acquired to understand other cultural aspects.
- Cultural skills are abilities used to collect assessment information.
- Cultural encounters are direct interactions as learning situations.
- Cultural desire is a motivation to become involved in the learning experience.

Throughout the analysis of introspective data collected for this research, these constructs have been kept in mind and implicitly guide the organization of the discussion.

Methodology

This investigation adopts a case study approach because it enables the researcher to focus on particularities and complexities and, thus, to better understand an activity and its significance (Stake 1995). Two primary methods are used in data collection: interview and observations.

Research Site and Participants

The study was conducted at a mid-sized public university in the United States where the Indonesian visiting scholar participants were living for three months while they pursued mentored research sponsored by Indonesia’s Ministry of National Education (Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi, or DIKTI). To be eligible for this international research opportunity, participants met rigorous selection criteria set by DIKTI, including academic qualifications and English language proficiency (TOEFL minimum of 500). The host university has a long-standing relationship with Indonesian scholars and a multi-year history of hosting visiting scholars through similar programs. In addition, it has a large international student population and several academic specializations that include a Southeast Asian focus. This setting is, therefore, somewhat atypical in its enduring interest in regional studies in Southeast Asia, but also very typical in its location and mission as a public university enrolling over 20,000 undergraduates.

In contextualizing the comments of the participants, it’s important to understand some of the generally accepted socio-cultural differences between the Indonesia and the US.
Indonesia is considered a collectivist society or high-context culture, whereas the United States is considered an individualistic society or low-context culture. High-context cultures have more internalized understanding of one another through “shared physical context, implicit communication, and greater concern for interdependence,” (Stobbe, p. 115) indirect face negotiations, and focus on mutual or other-face maintenance. Low-context cultures are characterized by concern for privacy and autonomy, explicit communication, greater concern for independence, direct face negotiations and focus on self-face maintenance (Augsberger, 1992; Jandt, 2004; Stobbe, 2006). Misunderstandings and conflict can result if one does not understand these cultural characteristics. The level of culture shock experienced by these scholars from Indonesia was dictated by their preparation, their understanding of the process, their willingness to take risks, and their acceptance of the need to modify their behavior.

Participant demographics are presented in Table 1. All participants were adult (over Age 25) faculty members at Indonesian universities in pursuit of their doctoral degrees in Indonesia. To ensure anonymity, they are referred to in this study as Participants 1-8. During the time of their stay, participants were housed in a large residence hall populated almost exclusively by undergraduates. They took their meals in the dining area and had access to all the other residential life facilities. While the housing situation may not have been ideal for international scholars, it did provide them with numerous opportunities for cross-cultural encounters.

Table 1. Participants

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**Data Collection**

Each individual participating in the study was contacted and arrangements for a 30-45 minute interview were made. These interviews took place between mid-November and mid-December near the end of the participants’ sojourn in the US. Although framed with a set of semi-structured guiding questions, the interviews were open-ended, allowing the participants to tell their stories in their own way. The guiding questions generally focused on cross-cultural scenarios or cultural clashes that may have been encountered by the participants; they also asked about participants’ perceptions about studying in the US. Digital audiotape recording was used to record the conversations and interviews in the study. The interviews provide rich information regarding the Indonesian scholars’ experiences during their sojourn. Each individual story reveals cultural differences, misunderstandings, and growth in adjustment. Participants were also observed interacting in organized culturally-related events and other daily activities...

**Data Analysis**

Following Miles and Huberman’s (1994) within-case and cross-case displays and analyses, the interview data were analyzed contemporaneously with the data collection. This allowed for transcriptions to be reviewed and checked with participants to ensure accuracy of representation and to aid in explication of patterns and themes emerging from the data. All interview data were treated in the same way in efforts to find similarities and differences and to organize, group, or cluster the significant statements among the participants into themes and to reduce the repetitive data. To ensure the validity of the interpretations, emergent
themes were checked with the participants; rich and thick descriptions (Merriam, 1998) of events and narratives also included verbatim examples from the transcribed interviews. Because one of the researchers shares a common language with the participants, interpretation of both language and cultural items was reliable, resulting in a more nuanced perspective.

During the data collection period, brief field notes were kept and initial coding was begun. The coding scheme was subsequently verified using the audio recording, observation notes, member checking, and peer consultation in order to maintain and strengthen the validity and reliability of the data.

**Results and Discussion**

The findings reveal that obvious misunderstandings in cross-cultural adjustment are language barriers, academic stress, and food. Other subtle differences include climate, religious differences, forms of address, nonverbal communication, and time.

**Language Barriers**

None of the Indonesian visiting scholars participating in this study had English as a native language. Satisfying a minimum TOEFL requirement, however, does not guarantee a mastery of English. As the participants expected, difficulties with both spoken and written English frequently got in the way of (or was perceived to be getting in the way of) successful interaction with native English speakers. Misunderstanding occurred not only in the academic activities but also in general interactions and when travelling, banking, and shopping. The following excerpts provide examples of the sorts of communications the participants encountered as well as their assessments of the encounters

Participant 1 notes:

“I have to pay attention more when interacting with young Americans in the residence hall because they speak less formal, and we have different culture.”

“To avoid misunderstanding, I mostly use my point (finger) pointing a certain food directly without asking because I do not know the name of the food.”

“When we arrive here, we actually do not clearly understand what the students here in the housing tell us, say something because they tend to use the daily talk or daily way of thinking. We have to pay attention very close. We have to pay attention in order to understand them what they are actually talking about. Because our hearing and the
way how we talk in our country is very different because what we learn actually from
the class until from the lower level up to the tertiary level, it is very formal but here in
our daily speaking or daily communication they use somewhat less formal. I believe
they have their own special dialect especially from African American group
community.”

This participant’s sentiments were shared by many, indicating an initial language
barrier leading to miscommunication as a result of being prepared for a different kind
of English—the more formal version learned in school in Indonesia. Informality and
new vocabulary were required for daily communication in the residence hall.
Participant 2 has different story of language barriers when communicating with young
Americans in the residence hall as noted below. This is a difficulty that, stemming
from vast differences in academic focus may not be specific to international visitors,
but which is likely exacerbated by linguistic interference.

“I think it is challenging because of different age, it might be because I do not know
their level of communication it is difficult. I want to communicate with them but it
seems very difficult to make approach to them. When I told them I am a PhD student,
they don’t want to talk. Later on they do not want to talk.

Participant 6 relates one encounter from her first day in the country, clearly indicating
that misunderstandings can come at a high cost:

“Something funny happened when the immigration officer checked me at Chicago
airport. Immigration officers have the task of deciding whether you’re permitted to
enter the US and have the necessary documentation, including a visa if necessary.
Even with a visa, you don’t have the right to enter the US; only the immigration
officer can make that decision and I was asked something that I do not understand. He
says “bla bla …money”. What I was thinking at that time, the officer asked how much
money I have, then I showed him all my money in my purse and he said; “you make
me confused” then I replied: “me too.” Finally I showed him my LOA [letter of
acceptance to study] and other documents needed.

This participant uses the word, “funny” here, but was more typically experiencing
anxiety, fear, and embarrassment because of her English language limitations as noted
in the following excerpts about her experiences in service and school encounters:
[realizing that she had taken someone else’s omelet from the service line in the
residence hall food court] “I did not know that the omelet was not mine. I thought it
was mine because I had ordered it and I saw the omelet in front of me but when I ate it, I just realized it was not mine as the ingredients were different with mine. I had no idea to ask because of my bad English I thought it was mine.”

“When I was in the bank, I had communication problem. I would like to withdraw the money but I had written what I wanted to say. I wrote that I wanted to withdraw the money but I did not know how.”

“I wanted to exchange what I have bought but I didn’t know how to tell”

“I thought it was an ESL class not…. I misunderstood; I thought it was a class of writing.”

Language barriers made Indonesian students feel helpless, and they caused students’ anxiety. The better English they had, the less likely they were to report encountering problems or feeling negative emotional responses. However, the language barrier still remains until their English skills improve. In general, Indonesian visiting scholars who are not familiar with slang and colloquial expressions or with U.S. cultural or historical events have difficulties understanding interactions outside the classroom with American people.

**Academic stress**

Greater academic stress is experienced by Indonesian visiting scholars who have language barriers. Differences between the American education system and the Indonesian one include unfamiliar administrative procedures such as registering for a library card or attending lectures or regularly scheduled class sessions. Some of the scholars also had difficulties meeting unfamiliar expectations from instructors and participating in discussions with fellow students when they sit in classes.

The linguistic barrier is one of the contributing factors posing a challenge preventing these visiting scholars from engaging actively in classroom activities such as comprehension of long lectures, class participation, discussion groups, presentations, and one-on-one mentor meetings:

“If I don’t understand sometimes I just nod my head pretending to understand.” [Participant 3]

“I got shocked because I had a lot paper to work and I had to revise again and again because my mentor asked me to change my paper again and again!” [Participant 5]
Most of the participants reported that they had problems from the start not only understanding classroom instructions and discussion but also with academic writing and expectations for academic research, including protection of human subjects and clear reporting of course materials.

For Indonesians, confrontation is seen as face threatening, and it is negatively perceived. Related to this are values of respect for seniors or elders and avoiding embarrassment to others by “saving face.” Because of this cultural norm to avoid conflict, it became difficult for many of the participants to engage in discussions of problems, whether academic or personal. They reflected that they would attempt either positive or impartial responses. For example, financial problems were often left unresolved, out of a reluctance to talk openly. Or scholars might ask their colleagues rather than their mentor about some class material they did not understand. This type of behavior is consistent with Hofstede’s (1980a; 1980b) dimension of uncertainty avoidance, whereby members of the society feel uncomfortable expressing their views in situations which are unstructured, unclear, and unpredictable.

The peak of academic stress was came late in the sojourn on the day when the visiting scholars presented their research progress to members of the university community. A great deal of daily discussion centered on this activity, as represented in this excerpt from Participant 4:

“I’ve been practicing my presentation whole day and I think I am still not sure about it! Have you practiced? Have you sent your power point to you our mentor? What does she suggest you?”

In short, most of students admit that their proficiency in English has affected their academic performance; even Participant 8, whose English proficiency is higher than most others had the worst academic stress on the day of the presentation.

**Food**

It was difficult for these Muslim visiting scholars to find halal foods, especially in the small Midwestern city where these scholars lived. Most of them found it difficult to adjust to the food of their host country. (Granted, residence hall food is not always of the best and most tasty quality.) The best way to avoid non-halal food was to eat only fruits, bread, and vegetables provided without dressing. They wound up cooking their own rice and boiled eggs:
“Food differences that is the most problematic things whether the food is halal or not. Some of the name of the food are uncommon so we have to know whether it contains pork and not. I try to avoid it by eating vegetables, peanuts and eggs.” [Participant 1]

For Participant 2 a misunderstanding took place with the food server. While pointing to one item, he names another. The communication failed because there was no clarification or repetition from either of them:

“Just not accustomed with the food, we have to change our custom. It might be …..When I have chicken tender, I wait for long time for the chicken, it seemed grilled chicken in my mind is chicken tender but the person gives me grilled chicken. I point the chicken tender while saying ‘grilled chicken’ I have to wait for long time because they grilled my chicken. We have to enjoy the food. Pork is taboo for me.”

Even seemingly helpful behaviors such as re-using a plate in the food service line become points for misunderstanding as the food service regulations require using different plates for different foods:

“I think this is good experience because you know I do need to use the same plate when I asked potato on my plate containing other food. He told me I could not use the plate. He took another plate.” [Participant 3]

And, of course, the large servings Americans are fond of are points of cultural difference, as noted by Participant 8:

“When I want little fries and wings they always give me more. I do not understand”

Nevertheless, even as they complained about food, all of the Indonesian visiting scholars gained weight during their sojourn, a fact perhaps accounted for as they eagerly try all various foods they have never found in Indonesia.

Climate

Because their research sojourn took place in the autumn, the Indonesian visiting scholars experienced the first tastes of winter. They found it difficult to adjust to the climate differences and to the unpredictable weather which increased their anxiety and depression. They had to adjust living in a completely new environment with its cold climate and open spaces, and they often forgot to check the weather forecast---something equatorial Indonesians are not accustomed to doing. Changing weather required changes to modes of dress and a reliance on inconsistent public transportation:

Participant 1 said it was a nightmare waiting for a bus in a bitter cold snap:
“I am going to die! It is extremely cold. I just thought to call one of you to pick me up. My cheeks are freezing cold then I covered my cheeks by pulling my sweater up so I could breathe!”

There was a lively debate when all the participants walked a mile for shopping on a snowy holiday weekend:

Participant1: “I think we are crazy enough! Nobody walks! This is a dead town.”

Participant 3: “Are we sure that we can continue to walk? I am deadly cold.”

Participant 8: “I am wearing 3 jackets at once! What a cold!”

It is common to experience temporary periods of anxiety, depression, and stress in adjustment of climate differences. The Indonesian scholars learned a lot about the local climate differences in three months. They bought coats, socks, boots, scarfs, and also hats to protect themselves from the cold. They became accustomed to checking the weather forecast before they pursued outdoor activities, and the eagerly-awaited first snowstorm lost much of its magic after about 10 minutes and a few tossed snowballs.

While language barriers, food availability, and climate differences occupied much of the discussion from these visiting scholars, they also indicated other linguistic and cultural sites for potential culture-clash.

Religious Differences

Participants were asked where they thought tensions between the Muslim and Western worlds originated, and answers varied. Of those who say Muslim countries have unfavorable views of America, they probably say it is based mostly on misinformation provided by the media and government in those countries about life in the US.

Notably, all the scholars felt welcome in the US despite religious differences. Here is what most of the participants describe in the discussion. [Note that a new mosque was being built just 2 blocks from campus during the scholars’ sojourn. During this time a local church and a campus building offered space for daily and Friday prayer.]:

“They don't have a problem with the opening a mosque in DeKalb, just in front of one of our mentor’s house. It doesn’t bother the surroundings because Americans think we have a right to practice our religion. It is not what I’ve been imagining for years by reading the media that hatred grows against Muslims in America. We can even do Friday prayer in the church. Alhamdulillah! The tolerance is incredible!”
“Americans give us chance to do Friday prayer and Christian community also supports, and the committee says: you can do that in the upcoming event. So tolerance is there. The problem is not the society but the government, the politics, the policy.” [Participant 1]

“I think [it’s] welcoming, we can pray Friday prayer in church.” [Participant 2]

“Everybody respects when I say my name is Mohammed. It is not the same on TV that American society does not like Muslim.” [Participant 3]

“My imagine about America, Americans is closed society but they very welcome with different religion. I think it is good experience when I take Jumat prayer in the church.” [Particpant 4]

“It seems they welcome us wearing hijab. They appreciate us.” [Participant 6]

“They are very welcome. I have ever been complemented by student in Ibu A’s class. They admire my hijab. They accept me, they don’t mind to have me in the classroom!” [Participant 8]

The religious tolerance that the US is purported to value was, in fact, made apparent for these participants.

**Forms of Address**

“This is I think I have some experiences with my mentor. The first is the use of “Sir” for addressing people. “Sir” here is giving respect, and my mentor did not want to be respected. He just makes me like friend. When I first time said: “Good morning, Sir.” He replied me while smiling: “Good morning, Sir?” so his intonation is rising. This is makes me, what happens with him?...my mentor didn’t agree about that.”

Participant 3 here points to a cultural mismatch between Indonesia and the US. In general, Indonesians do not address people by directly calling people by name, preferring versions of “Sir” or “Madam” as a sign of respect. The informality of American posed challenges to Indonesian visiting scholars since they are accustomed to acknowledging the title or position of the person with whom they are speaking. Such clashes of formalities and intimacies may also act as a gap or a barrier in communication, and in some instances make the social interaction uncomfortable. For Americans, informal address often indicates the value of equality. Participant 4 acknowledged the communication difficulty that can ensue:

“Hmm...ya, I also sometimes we do not know how to call a person I mean our partner
when speak with us, should we call them by what for example a mentor, should we call Mr. or Professor or only the name, that’s the problems sometimes we face in doing conversation….”

In Indonesia, when addressing people for the first time, the expectation is to adhere to a power distance and be polite and respectful, always use the formal terms of *Bapak* for males and *Ibu* for a woman before their given names.

**Non-Verbal Communication**

When meeting, Indonesians touch their heart in greeting, often after a handshake. It is a respectful gesture also used when meeting officials also. At the same time, physical distance is greater in the US culture than in Indonesian and most of the scholars did not immediately notice that they had to carefully maintain the same physical distance from each other during a given interaction. This was particularly noticeable when in encounters outside the university such as shopping or banking, and participants reported a number of times that they forgot to keep the space with Americans. Americans might find themselves backing away trying to regain space, while Indonesians move closer Americans to maintain their social space. As Participant 1 says:

“Actually we have already known because we have study especially American culture but we usually do it by unexpectedly, we did it by unexpectedly, incidentally, that is because it is common to us…”

Another body language behavior that surprised the Indonesian scholars is was they call “cowboy style”: putting legs on the table, while sitting in the chair can be considered relaxed and comfortable for Americans, but to an Indonesian, it is arrogant and impolite:

Participant 1 says:

“In the residence hall also it happens while we are eating in the dining room, sometimes we can see the students… let I what just say now they raise their foot and put on the chair while eating talking and the other students did not bother they don’t care, but we are still uneasy about that…”

Participant 2 says:

“In Indonesia we seat neatly, here students freely to sit. Might be they put their legs on the table. I have a friend got seminar in Ambon, one of them put the foot on the table.”
Time

The importance of punctuality is not universal and varies from culture to culture, and this fact was reflected in the scholars’ occasional late arrivals to mentoring meetings, classes, public lectures, and private events. In Indonesia, those of higher status (e.g., bosses, elders, professors) might exercise the privilege of being on “jam karet,” --- literally, “rubber time,” time that can be stretched. A number of comments from participants recognized this potential cross-cultural violation of norms:

“We have to come on time otherwise we got reprimand. One of presenter is talking in front us then we start keep talking. Here is not the custom. We cannot behave like that because they feel unrespected by us. And it happens many times.” [Participant 1]

“I think I always came late...but the end of the class [meaning three-month sojourn]... recently I came earlier. This is I think not good for people who come late.” [Participant 3]

“Ya, it is about time, still sometimes influenced by Indonesian culture that if we make agreement, appointment I mean, in Indonesian culture, it might be canceled from one side but here…” [Participant 4]

“When I attending the concert, one of the concert in [University] because I am with my friend at that time. We are coming late at the time and the concert has begun at the time and the gate, I mean the door has been closed and the front desk prohibits us to have get in the hall. Because we were late and we wait until break for the first performance, we wait until the door open.” [Participant 5]

The scholars also found some opportunities for cultural faux pas in such things as adhering to deadlines for assignments, jay-walking, and taking photographs without permission, seen as an issue of privacy in US law.

General Impressions

While the participants’ comments above situate them as navigators in a new cultural milieu, they were also willing to share some general impressions about living in this US setting and their reactions to how their interactions with the culture satisfied their wants and needs. Overall, the participants positively ranked the following features of the US culture as perceived through their lived experience:

1. the higher education system
2. human rights
3. cleanliness
4. discipline
5. security
6. hospitality and helpfulness

As noted in the participant comments, food and climate were the most difficult aspects of their lives in the US to navigate and to adjust to.

**Conclusion**

Previous studies have documented that the characteristics and degree of Asian international students’ educational and sociocultural experiences vary for many reasons: race/ethnicity (Abe, Talbot, & Geelhoed, 1998; Sato & Hodge, 2009; Trice, 2004; Zhao, Kuh, & Carini, 2005); length of stay and major of study (Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008); social support and social contacts (Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008; Trice, 2004; Zhao, Kuh, & Carini, 2005); and English language proficiency (Fritz, Chin, & DeMarinis, 2008; Liu, 2001; Sumer, Poyrazli, & Grahame, 2008; Trice, 2004). Although these studies provide readers with useful information about what Asian students experienced during their transition processes in American higher education, few researchers (e.g., Awasilah, 1991) have specifically examined the lived experience of Indonesian visiting scholars. The Indonesian scholars who come for short-term sojourns, such as those who participated in this study, have particular needs as they have limited time to adjust personally and limited opportunities to familiarize themselves with a new environment. The intent of this study was to better understand the experiences of these visiting scholars in both academic and daily life contexts. How they negotiate cultural misunderstandings and miscommunications in the United States can inform their ultimate success as short-term sojourners. Their assessments of their own success in navigate this unfamiliar setting can also inform a developing awareness of cultural difference. Most of the participants intended to share their cultural experiences with their Indonesian students --- as lessons in cultural diversity, as a means for helping them develop intercultural competencies, and as a window into a culture whose broader media representation is not consistent with their lived experiences. As university teachers, the participants returned to their home institutions with a renewed commitment to encouraging students to consider international travel and study abroad. Participants also expressed a tendency to be more tolerant and optimistic in their attitudes towards cultural differences that
occur in a cross-cultural environment. They understand that cross-cultural misunderstandings are common occurrences and that they are not insurmountable problems.

Chesterton (1936) observed that people first use their own culture as a lens to understand the world around them. The first-hand observations of the visiting scholars afforded them insights into both the Indonesian and the US systems. The sojourner knows the value of setting a direction and charting a course, but also recognizes the value of observing the way of life, the attitudes, the landscape, and the unexpected (Hwang & Fesenmaier, 2011). Participants in this study confirm that the experience increases their global views and reduces negative stereotypes.

Ultimately, this small-scale case study provided insights into the meaningful experiences and challenges of adjusting to the US academic culture and its physical and social environment. The findings have implications for programs that aim to enhance intercultural friendship formation to promote understanding by explicating some of the issues involved in adjusting to a new culture. Of course, as an introspective, ethnographic endeavor, this study may be questioned as to the possibility of reporting bias. However, bias was purposefully not controlled for, but the researchers are confident that participants made honest reports and evaluations of their cross-cultural encounters. However, the outcomes of the interviews and their resulting narratives, as well as of the general assessment of aspects of US culture, provide numerous threads from which more objective surveys could be developed. Finally, it must be made clear that cultural adjustment is a dynamic and often reflective process that is manifest differently in different individuals at different times in their sojourn.

Acknowledgments

I wish to thank my mentor, Doris Macdonald, an Associate Professor of Northern Illinois University, United States for her support, insightful comment and advice in this research.

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Title
Need Analysis to Cross-Cultural Understanding Syllabus for English Department of
Pancasakti University

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Abstract
This study aims to identify the quality of the existing cross-cultural understanding syllabus, and to investigate needs-based course design to improve more effective cross-cultural syllabus. There are 47 students, 6 teachers of the cross-cultural understanding class involved in the study conducted in Pancasakti University from August to December 2015. This study collected data through classroom observations, teachers’ questionnaires to know their perception about the existing syllabus, and students’ appraisal form to provide feedback on teaching performance. The findings show that the existing syllabus lacks of 1) basic information, 2) clear of the distinction among objectives, competences and learning outcomes, 3) recommended or supplementary texts and other materials, 4) guidance for teachers, students’ center learning process, and 5) clearly defined assignments and assessment. The most important finding is teachers consider it is important to incorporate the richness of students’ cultural backgrounds into the cross-cultural understanding syllabus. Using cross-cultural comparison to compare students’ cultural backgrounds with the target language’s culture is not just to understand two divergent cultures and describe the similarities and differences between them. The purpose is to answer sociological questions by
examining different societies. With an understanding of their own culture as a starting point, learners gradually decenter from their own culture (Byram, 1989; Kramsch, 1993) and develop necessary skills and knowledge to achieve decentering (Liddicoat et al., 2003).

**Keywords:** cross-cultural understanding syllabus, cross-cultural comparison

**Introduction**

Approximately 375 million people speak English around the world and there are more than 50 English speaking countries, where English is either the official or the primary language. Global awareness and international collaboration encourages students to see things from different perspectives and helps them to make informed decisions, acquires skills that will be useful to them and will remain with them for life. However, they still need to be guided through the process of discovery so that a deeper understanding of their own place in the word is developed. Fostering global awareness and international collaboration in the classrooms are so beneficial to our students.

In EFL classrooms where what is communicated, practiced, and perceived greatly affect and influence students, it is imperative that teachers learn how to effectively communicate cross-culturally in diverse contexts. Classroom teachers should adequately prepared to teach students to interact with culturally and linguistically diverse population.

It has been suggested that language learning is enhanced by the study of the culture associated with it (Risager, 2007). This provides a mixed picture of English use, as it is used both to communicate with native speakers and with non-native speakers, who may not share the cultural assumptions of native speakers, therefore, cultural awareness to communicate the intended message to bridge culture gap is necessary.

In an EFL class, students are usually monolingual and they learn English while living in their own country (Krieger, 2005). They have a little access to the target culture and therefore a limited ability to become culturally competent. Importantly their aim for learning English is not only to communicate with native speakers of English but also with non-native speakers of English, which is why EFL learners such as students in Pancasakti University Tegal are typical learners of English as an International Language (EIL). By learning English, they become users of International, or rather intercultural, communication. The target language becomes a tool to be used in interaction with people from all over the world where communication in English takes
place. It is obvious that in order to successfully function in a culturally diverse environment, students need to develop intercultural communicative competence (Alptekin, 2002).

So far, there has not been a standard model of training or a rigorous cross-cultural understanding (CCU) syllabus in Pancasakti University Tegal, which is manifested in well-developed materials that prove effective in terms of intercultural awareness. As a result, providing an effective cross-cultural understanding syllabus that meets the learners’ needs is necessary for a cross-cultural understanding class through need analysis.

Due to knowing the needs of teachers and students in a cross-cultural understanding course, need analysis concerns with the investigation of the present cross-cultural understanding syllabus as well as students’ needs and wants is conducted. One of the basic assumptions of curriculum development is that a sound educational program should be based on an analysis of learners’ needs (Richards:2001). This phase is to help determine if an existing cross-cultural understanding syllabus adequately addresses the needs of the students and to collect information about particular problems experiencing for the future construction of a course for improving effective cross-cultural awareness skills as well as provide a better base of understanding cross-cultural communication skill particularly in English Department of Pancasakti University.

**Problem Statement**

It is necessary to provide EFL students in Pancasakti University with a systemic cross-cultural understanding class, and not only the culture of the main English speaking countries if they are to become successful intercultural communicators. They will gain a solid knowledge of the different world cultures to develop the ability to compare their own native culture to other cultures, to evaluate critically and interpret the results of such comparison to apply the knowledge successfully in both verbal and non-verbal communication.

To achieve successful intercultural communicators in cross-cultural understand class in Pancasakti University, need analysis was conducted to get students’ and teachers’ perspective about learning process is needed. Assessment of need from the individual learner’s perspective is an important part of any instructional program design and it can benefit both teachers and students alike (Lytle, 1998). The learner-centered approach to language learning builds on the premise that teaching/learning programs should be responsive to the learners’ needs. By using needs analysis, this study attempts to identify what kind of
syllabus that meets the students’ needs in a cross-cultural understanding course in English Department of Pancasakti University.

Research Objective

In line with the background of the study, the objectives of this research were formulated is to find out teachers and students’ needs in cross-cultural understanding class to develop a useful cross-cultural understanding syllabus aiming at intercultural competence as well as provide a better base of understanding cross-cultural communication skill at English Department of Pancasakti University.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following research question is what are teachers and students’ needs in cross-cultural understanding class to develop a useful cross-cultural understanding syllabus aiming at intercultural competence as well as provide a better base of understanding cross-cultural communication skill at English Department of Pancasakti University?

Review of Related Literature

Need Analysis

Needs analysis is a procedure for collecting information about learners and classroom activities to design a syllabus (Nunan 1988). It is an important part of designing a language course. When a language course is designed, it is important for a teacher to have reliable information on their learner variables so that it can reduce any gap among learners, teachers, and teaching materials. West (1994) states that it helps the syllabus designer to find out the discrimination among various types of learners and to design courses based on their common needs. In other words, it can be used to gather different perspective among learners about information of learning process to know the learners needs to design the syllabus.

Richards (2001) claims that in a language teaching program NA can be used for the following purposes. a) To find out the required language skills for a learner to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, a university student. b) To find out a gap between their present proficiency level and required proficiency. c) To find out problem areas of the learners. It is highly important to consider the ‘need’ in relation to the unique characteristics of the educational context in which the study takes place (Holmes & Celani, 2006). Students’ needs in different contexts are diverse and the analysis of needs can be effective if the
academic language needs are accurately defined and seek utmost specificity within the specific target use (Deutch, 2003).

From the above discussion, it can be said that needs analysis is a process that gathers information from learners, teachers and language courses to find out what language skills the learner’s need to develop, why they should develop those skills and how they develop those in the best ways. When need analysis is done well it can be beneficial to curriculum development, particularly in syllabus design.

**Cross-Cultural Understanding**

Cross-cultural Understanding is the ability to understand others’ culture. Cross-cultural understanding develops in situations that require negotiation of meaning and identity in the context of another culture. It is the ability to listen and accurately understand the thoughts, feelings, and otherness. According to Jant (2004: 39), cross-cultural generally refers to comparing phenomena across culture. Thus, a cross-cultural study of women’s roles in society would compare what women actually do in diverse culture. The difficulties in communication with people from other culture are not only the problems in understanding their languages that we do not master but also those in understanding their cultural value.

Our success in communication depends on how far we understand others’ feedback (Mulyana, 2005). This competency measures complexity and depth of understanding of other people, also including cross-cultural sensitivity. Information about other ways of life does not necessarily lead to constructive and mutually satisfying relations between men of diverse cultural backgrounds. Such relations can only occur when the individuals involved have some understanding of their own and each others' values, beliefs, perceptions of reality, needs, fears, and premises for a living.

In order to be able to communicate effectively, language learners need intercultural competence that has four components, knowledge, skills, attitude, and critical cultural awareness; It ability to ensure a shared understanding by people of different social identities, and their ability to interact with people as complex human beings with multiple identities and their own individuality (Byram; Gribkova; and Starkey: 2002)

**Syllabus**

Syllabus is a description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). According to Richards and Schmidt
language teaching syllabi can have their bases on such different criteria as grammatical items and vocabulary, the language required for different types of situations, the meanings that underlie different language behavior or the text types language learners need to master. Richards and Schmidt (2010) also define the term syllabus design, as a phase in curriculum development that deals with procedures for developing a syllabus.

Richards and Rogers (2001) state that the term syllabus traditionally refers to “the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course method” (p. 25). As they contend, the term this term is more closely associated with methods that adhere to product-centered rather than process discipline rather than a product-centered one. Likewise, Nunan (1999) defines syllabus as the subcomponent of a curriculum which is concerned with the selection, sequencing, and justification of experiential and linguistic content and makes a distinction between syllabus design and methodology. He defines syllabus design as being concerned with selecting, and sequencing, linguistic content and methodology as being concerned with selecting and sequencing pedagogical procedures.

Method

Research Site and Participants

This study was conducted at the English Department in Pancasakti University located in Tegal, Central Java, Indonesia. This study took place from August to December in the third semester in Pancasakti University. There were 6 cross-cultural teachers and 47 students of third semesters involving in this study. To protect their privacy and to ensure the ethical purposes of the study for the participants, pseudonyms was used to ensure their anonymity.

Research Procedure

To answer the question in this study I largely collected through questionnaire, and classroom observation (in which recording and note taking were done). In addition, the documentary sheet and interview were also used to enrich the data.

To know the quality of the existing syllabus, I analyzed through documents. I used two kinds of rubrics, the first was rating scale rubric used to know its strength and weak points of the document, and the second was checklist rubric; a simple list of requirements and whether the requirement of a syllabus was met adapted from (Altman & Cashin, 1992; Bauer, Gabriele, 2008; & Grunert O’Brien, J., Millis, B., & Cohen, M, 2008).

To design the syllabus needed for effective cross-cultural understanding skills, a five-point Likert rating scale system with closed-end and open-ended questions written in English
adapted from, (Bada, E. 2000; Brace, I. 2004; Foddy, W. H. 1994, Hinkle, D. E., Oliver, J. D., & Hinkle, C. A. 1985) was used. The questionnaire had two parts specifically designed to relate to the purpose of the study. The first part was composed of 9 items requesting information of satisfaction, acceptability, impact, helpfulness, effectiveness, cultural awareness, content, outcomes, and overall rating of the existing syllabus in Pancasakti university. The second dealt with the current level of need such as suggestions of topics, materials, teaching learning process, assessment, and how well current syllabus meet the objective of the course for more effective cross-cultural understanding syllabus development.

To know teachers’ teaching performance and students’ feedback as the important elements in the ongoing process of assessing and improving teaching in CCU class, students’ appraisal adapted from Richard (2003) was used.

To see real life learning process situation in cross-cultural understanding classes, the observation was conducted in Pancasakti by using Sorcinelli observation guide adopted from Weimer (1991). Each class had been observed four times by directly attending the classes and video tapping. The purpose of doing the observation was to know the implementation of the existing syllabus of CCU in the classroom as explained by Weimer (1991) used for collecting evidence of students learning during the instruction to improve teaching practice.

Findings and Discussion

In line with the objective of the study, the findings were as follows;

1. Overview of the existing cross-cultural understanding syllabus structure of English Department in Pancasakti University

a. Syllabus Evaluation

The purpose is to evaluate the syllabus and develop the needed one based on the findings.

Tabel 1 Syllabus Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Criterion</th>
<th>Beginning</th>
<th>Emerging</th>
<th>Exemplary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Course Description</td>
<td>Instructor name &amp; contact info, class time and location.</td>
<td>in addition: course prerequisites (if any) course description</td>
<td>in addition, how the course fits into the larger program/department curriculum, field, supplemental readings, and resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall tone</td>
<td>Mechanical, dictatorial</td>
<td>teacher-oriented</td>
<td>student/learning oriented (eg: first person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Course Outcomes</td>
<td>not articulated</td>
<td>stated in general, but vague and unmeasurable terms</td>
<td>listed with appropriate, descriptive verbs that lend them to measurement and seek higher levels of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Course Format</td>
<td>vague, or cryptic descriptions of course expectations and how class time will be used</td>
<td>mutual role expectations for students and instructor are explained, together with various teaching methods and modes</td>
<td>methods and modes role expectations and class format are explained in such a way that students understand the underlying rationale and benefits for them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Instructor Beliefs &amp; Assumptions</td>
<td>little or no accounting of the instructor's teaching philosophy, beliefs or assumptions about learning</td>
<td>the section describing the instructor's beliefs or assumptions about teaching and learning that guide the course</td>
<td>well articulated and thought out the rationale that includes the values and/or experiences that guide the instructor's teaching practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Class Schedule</td>
<td>little or no information on what course topics will be covered each week</td>
<td>course topics are broken down by class period</td>
<td>fully articulated and logically sequenced course schedule with chronological topics listed for each class, along with required readings and preparation necessary from students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Assignments Required</td>
<td>course assignments listed</td>
<td>course assignments listed</td>
<td>assignments listed with due dates, with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Academic Policies &amp; Procedure</td>
<td>little or no information</td>
<td>with clear due dates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>description of academic integrity policy</td>
<td>explanation of late policy and other requirements that might affect grades</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Assessment of Students' Learning</td>
<td>little or no information about how the students will be graded; any information that is included reinforces a grade-focus</td>
<td>Each graded assignment is clearly described with its relative value towards the overall course grade</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Each assignment includes descriptions of its the rationale for inclusion in the course and what the student should get out of completing it; use of rubrics with quality criteria specified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Alignment</td>
<td>no clear connection between stated course goals/outcomes and assessment schema</td>
<td>the connections between some assignments and stated course goals/outcomes are apparent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>all assignments are linked with a specific course goal/outcome and are likely to provide sufficient evidence to adequately assess each goal/outcome</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Diversity of Teaching &amp; Assessment Methods</td>
<td>course teaching and assessment methods are similar; eg: all lectures; all tests</td>
<td>Evidence the instructor has employed a diverse set of teaching and assessment methods</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Diverse assessment methods and evidence that the instructor has taken into account the diversity of students in choosing teaching and assessment methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the findings indicated in bold typed highlighted by green color in table 1, it can be seen that first, the teacher needs to provide more detailed basic information to make the students have easy access to contact the teacher. Second, the syllabus provides indicators that do not show student-oriented learning process. Furthermore, eight out of the 14 meetings are used for lecturing. It does not set an active, investigative tone for the course because based on the syllabus document it can be seen that students will hear teacher’s talk more; instead, they find the answers themselves, leading to deeper understanding.

Third, much confusion exists about the definition of competency, objectives, and learning outcomes so it is important to understand the differences in these terms (Hartel and Foegeding: 2004). The syllabus uses competence standard and its indicators to achieve to competence not using learning outcomes to achieve the objectives and it covers cognitive domain only so it will be hard for students to have the intercultural competence that covers knowledge, skills, and attitude. A good syllabus covers all domains in Bloom’s taxonomy.

The teacher also needs to specify verbs used in describing competencies. The word ‘to comprehend, to understand’ are too general particularizing competencies. To recite or to identify are suggested instead of to understand or to comprehend. Those words are helpful to measure an observable action to avoid misinterpretation since learning outcomes” means
statements of what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process, which is defined in terms of knowledge, skills and competence (Moon:2002). Bloom’s taxonomy’s verbs can be used for curriculum mapping, assessment design, lesson planning, personalizing and differentiating learning.

Fourth, course format does not provide enough basic information and a list of book titles to indicate where students can purchase, borrow, copy, and/or download. It also lacks classroom courtesy of their students’ behavior during the class, no additional information for the assignments for example deadline management so teachers can effectively manage their own workload. There is no explanation to schedule a make-up session for any subsequent lost or canceled class and how class time will be used.

Fifth, Instructor beliefs & assumptions indicate that teacher needs to develop a deep understanding of individual differences. Experienced teachers know that using the best of a variety of approaches benefits many learners. Instructional tools must be carefully and intentionally adapted to accommodate individual learners to achieve the objectives of the course.

Sixth, course topics of CCU syllabus are broken down by class period but it is not completed schedule of teaching and learning activities. The syllabus only provides a list of topics, total meetings, and teaching strategies. Teachers need to use some strategies to plan their course schedule (Fink, 2003).

Seventh, the assignment is listed but it does not have due dates. In facts teacher needs to consider intended assignments in relation to the academic calendar and decides how they can be reasonably spaced throughout the semester, taking into account holidays and key campus events. The assignment must be in line with the learning objectives to know what teacher wants the students to learn. Specific parameters for the assignment (e.g., length, size, formatting, and citation conventions) should be in assignment description. Then, to assess appropriately, teacher needs to use rubric or scoring guide.

Eight, the syllabus lacks additional information about academic integrity policies such as academic dishonesty and its sanction. Any violation of academic integrity is a serious offense and is, therefore, subject to an appropriate sanction or penalty. Every teacher in Indonesia has his/her own policies for its implementation.

Ninth, assessment of students’ learning has little information of how students will be graded each assignment does not include descriptions of its rationale for inclusion in the
course and what the student should get out of completing it; use of rubrics with quality criteria specified.

Tenth, the syllabus has no clear connection between stated course goals/outcomes and assessment schema. In fact, all assignments should be linked with a specific course goal/outcome and are likely to provide sufficient evidence to adequately assess each goal/outcomes because aligning assessments with learning objectives increases the probability to provide students with the opportunities to learn and practice the knowledge and skills that will be required on the various assessments design. When objectives and assessments are misaligned, many students will focus their efforts on activities that will lead to good grades on assessments, rather than focusing their efforts on learning that is important.

Eleventh, the syllabus lacks diversity of teaching & assessment methods. Course teaching is not similar but mostly lecturing and it has no clear explanation especially about the assessment method; in fact offering variety gives students with opportunities to learn in ways that are responsive to their own communication styles, cognitive styles, and aptitudes. In addition, the variety helps them develop and strengthen other approaches to learning. Recent work by Cheminais (2002), Reid (2005) and Burnett (2005) identifies learning style as an important idea for inclusive learning and teaching in the classroom.

Twelfth is continuity of feedback to students on their learning. Based on the syllabus, there is little or very infrequent venues for giving students feedback on their progress in the course. Hattie and Timperley (2007) note that the most improvement in student learning takes place when students got “information feedback about a task and how to do it more effectively” and is clearly related to the learning goals (p.84). By contrast, the impact of feedback on learning achievement is low when feedback focussed on “praise, rewards and punishment” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.84). Hattie and Timperley (2007) also note that feedback is more effective when it addresses achievable goals and when it does not carry “high threats to self-esteem” (p.86).

The last is opportunities for students to provide evaluative course input. The teacher has developed and scheduled a mid-semester course evaluation opportunity for the students but students are not encouraged to provide the teacher with regular input on how they are experiencing the course throughout the semester. Administering an end-of-course evaluation that allows students to provide an anonymous evaluation of the course content and the quality of instruction is fruitful for the teacher to improve teaching process. Receiving student feedback can help teachers know what they are doing that facilitates the learning of the
students and it will help make them aware of any difficulties they may be having with their instruction (Black, 2000).

b. Syllabus Check List

I simply reviewed the course objectives, course policies, course assignments, and the course schedule of the existing syllabus; in additions the course structure, topics outline, texts, materials, assignments, exams, additional course requirements, and additional course policies and other activities of the existing syllabus.

Tabel 2 Course Syllabus Production Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Items to Consider</th>
<th>Have you included this?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes (√) No (×)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Course Details**

1. Course name, number, & term                                      √
2. When and where the class meets                                   ×
3. Instructor’s name                                                 √
4. Instructor’s office location & phone number                       ×
5. Instructor’s office hours                                        ×
6. Teaching Assistant’s name, office location, office hours, contact information ×

**Course Overview**

7. Course descriptions (e.g. course catalogs)                       √
8. Teaching Approaches/activities (how will students learn the material, in class/outclass, online/hybrid?) √
9. Learning goals (what will students know; be able to do as a result of taking the class?) √
10. Related, what skills will students develop?                      √
11. How does the course fit within the program of study?             ×
12. How do the course goals support the program goals?               ×
13. How do the course goals align with the general education goals?  ×
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>✔️</th>
<th>✗</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Course Requirement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Course prerequisites (what prior knowledge, skills do students need for success?)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Textbooks and other required materials</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Detailed description of how grades is calculated</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>How will student assessment occur? (tests, quizzes, homework, papers)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>How do assignments, exams relate to learning goals? (e.g., why weekly quizzes: how do they support student learning?)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Grading policies: How will assignments be graded? Rubrics to guide assignment development, clarify expectations?</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Class management policies: What is expected from the students? (Attendance, makeup exams, late policy, academic honesty, participation, extra credit, cell phones &amp; personal computer usage during class, clickers)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Course calendar: In what sequence will the course content be taught? e.g., exam dates, due dates for major projects, other special dates (guest speaker, field trip), required readings, service-learning component, internships.</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other Information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>✔️</th>
<th>✗</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Recommended readings</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>How will students receive timely feedback on their performance? (Instructor/TA? Self-assessment? Peer review? Online? In class?)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Related, how will students be informed about their progress and grades?</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>What resources are available to assist students? (Online lecture notes, study guides, sample quizzes, study groups, Academic Enrichment Center, Writing Center)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>How will students be able to provide feedback about their learning experience? (e.g., student feedback early in the term, midterm? Short written</td>
<td></td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
28. Are assignments connected to learning goals and teaching methods? ✕
29. How detailed and explicit should the syllabus be? ✕
30. Will there be some flexibility built into the schedule? ✕
31. Is the syllabus “user-friendly?” ✕
32. Is the language encouraging, does it invoke excitement for the course, does it communicate instructor passion for the material, concern for student learning? ✕


It can be seen from table 2 that the existing syllabus has not met yet some requirements for a good syllabus. The teacher needs to complete the syllabus to make students understand how the course fits into their educational plan and how it can eliminate misunderstandings and clarify policies, thus reducing student confusion and the incidence of the allegation. The teacher needs to clearly and efficiently communicate necessary information about the course, assignments, exams, and due dates clearly and efficiently. Specify titles and edition numbers of required texts and readings. Using gender-neutral and culture-neutral language as much as possible are also recommended to avoid expressions and abbreviations that some students may not understand.

2. Teachers’ Perception of the Existing Syllabus

Table 3 shows the finding taken from the questionnaire addressed to six teachers to know their perception about the existing cross-cultural understanding of the English Department in Pancasakti University.

Table 3 Teachers’ Perception of the Existing Syllabus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Satisfaction</td>
<td>Satisfied  (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding syllabus used in your university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Acceptability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Helpfulness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Cultural Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Overall Rating</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the questionnaire addressed to six teachers of cross-cultural understanding, here are the findings:

1. Three teachers were satisfied, one was very satisfied, and two teachers had no answer. The three teachers are satisfied enough with the syllabus used in Pancasakti University but it is doubtful that the syllabus has met the requirements of a good syllabus that understand the needs of the students. There are two teachers left with no answers and secondly, all teachers involved in this study recommended to have some revisions and improvements for better cross-cultural understanding syllabus by giving suggestions discussed later.

2. The important finding is teachers consider it is important to incorporate the richness of students’ cultural backgrounds into the cross-cultural understanding syllabus. It can be said that when students study and compare culture, they actually begin a search for their own identity. The cross-cultural understanding course helps students better understand the culture that has formed them in relation to ‘other’ cultures by studying how one particular culture has itself been formed. Placing cultural texts in their social environments, this course is believed primarily introduce students to the international perspectives of comparative cultural studies in relation to other forms of presentation. This enables them to appreciate how a particular form of writing encodes, transmits and questions cultural values and hence to understand the forces that shape our world.

3. Teachers also realize that practice of English language teaching can unintentionally have the potential to affect students’ attitudes. If teachers are to become effective cross-cultural communicators, it is essential to understand the role that culture plays within the multicultural school setting. Lustig and Koester (2003) define culture as "a learned set of shared interpretations of beliefs, values, and norms, which affect the behaviors of a relatively large group of people." Similarly, Samovar and Porter (1991) explain culture as a medium that touches and alters all aspects of human life, including personality, how people express themselves (which includes displays of emotion), the way they think, how they move, and how problems are solved. Indeed, culture goes far beyond the climate, food, and clothing of a student's native country.

4. Teachers believe that the use of local literature and of cultural comparison is helpful and effective in promoting Indonesian culture. Activities and materials should portray different aspects of the culture. In other words, teachers need to see different views of the culture to their students. Introducing deliberate contrasts within a culture can be useful
In multilingual and multicultural settings such as Indonesia, English can actively take part in promoting the unity of the ethnic groups in Indonesia, as learners will have a wider view of the world around them. The learners will appreciate the culture of people whose language they are learning. Eventually, they have a positive attitude towards other cultures. This opens their mind that culture is universal in the human life, meaning that each ethnic group has a culture; one culture is different from the others.

5. The use of local literature and cultural comparison between Indonesia and English speaking countries is highly effective to create students’ cross-cultural awareness. The teachers’ opinion is in line with Hodgkinson, 1991 stated that in order to improve our cross-cultural interactions; teachers must learn not just the basic facts but even important nuances of their students’ cultures. Challenges vary in achieving cross-cultural communication. The more teachers learn about their students of diverse backgrounds, the better they become as cross-cultural communicators and the more likely they will be to contribute to optimal student learning outcomes. Banks concurs: "If teachers are to increase learning opportunities for all students, they must be knowledgeable about the social and cultural contexts of teaching and learning" (Banks et al., 2001).

6. Teachers consider that the existing cross-cultural understanding course helps students raise awareness about both your own and other cultures. Increasingly, language teachers are recognizing the need to incorporate sociocultural factors into their classrooms (Palmer and Sharifian 2007); however, there is a lack of consensus on how to introduce cultural elements into the lessons. In fact, teachers can also find ways for their students to contribute their own cultural experience in the classroom. It means asking students to show how a topic connects to their lives or to give an example of a particular idea as they experience it in their native country.

7. Teachers consider it is very important to compare and contrast Indonesian Culture and the target culture to shape students awareness of both cultures in the content of cross-cultural understanding course but teacher faces are what approach to take. Many EFL teachers have had no formal training in incorporating cultural elements, and there is no universally accepted set of criteria that teachers can use as a guide (Byrnes 2008). One approach, though, would be to adapt Michael Paige’s (in Cohen et al. 2003, 53) dimensions of culture learning model. Paige groups culture learning into categories; 1) the self as cultural, 2) the elements of culture, 3) intercultural phenomena (culture-general learning), 4) particular cultures (culture-specific learning), and 5) acquiring strategies for
culture learning. By exploring these dimensions, teachers can help students connect to the target culture, raise their awareness of cultural differences, and improve their “intercultural communicative competence” (Byram 1997).

Teachers should realize that all students are members of at least one culture. The culture they belong to affects how they think, interact, communicate, and transmit knowledge from one generation to another. The ability to ask and answer questions based on their own culture facilitates the process of making connections across cultures. English teachers can help students activate their “cultural antennas” by making them aware of important elements of their own culture and helping them understand how their culture has shaped them (Byram 1997; NSFLEP 1999, 9). Kramsch (1993) calls this learning process establishing a “sphere of interculturality.”

Increasing cultural awareness means to see both the positive and negative aspects of cultural differences. Cultural diversity could be a source of problems; it increases the level of complexity and confusion and makes agreement difficult to reach. On the other hand, cultural diversity becomes an advantage when teachers expand its solutions and its sense of identity and begins to take different approaches to problem solving. Diversity in this case creates valuable new skills and behaviors.

8. Teachers believe there should be an improvement of the outcomes resulted by the existing syllabus. Using student learning outcomes in program evaluation has required an analytic model that links teacher preparation programs to student achievement outcomes (Gansle and colleagues: 2012, and Goldhaber and Liddle: 2012). Teachers need to communicate their expectations in several ways. Studies show when teachers provide objectives through multiple channels like syllabus, assignments, grading metrics, and then drive it home during office hours, students will grasp the goals of the course earlier and feel more empowered to reach them.

9. The last is three teachers say an overall rating of the existing syllabus is above average, two teachers feel that it is average, one is left with no answers, it does not mean the syllabus is not necessary to be developed because teachers give suggestions on the next discussion to improve cross-cultural understanding syllabus in Pancasakti University.

3. Teachers’ suggestions to improve cross-cultural understanding syllabus

   Teachers suggestions of most important topics based on the list provided for students in CCU class are land, people, and history, thought and religion, literature and art, cuisine and
traditional dress, gender, courtship, and marriage, festival and leisure activities, music, dance and traditional theater, and social custom and lifestyle. Other topics suggested by them are making initial contact across culture, Time management across culture, negotiation across culture, hospitality across culture, and stereotype across culture.

Teachers’ suggestions to improve the materials are first, combining local and target language culture, exposing students to real-life examples and current trend, and encouraging students to make judgment about their own cultural identity. Second, the need of cultural material comparison of CCU course to adopt the necessary one, inviting native speaker related to foreign culture, making comparison between Indonesian cultures with others, and comparing the syllabus with other universities. Third, focusing on a theme, helping students more aware of culture shapes so much about their personality, perception, and their perspective, developing basic understanding how language and culture influence each other and the last is the importance of needs analysis for the students to improve the learning process.

Teachers’ suggestions to improve teaching-learning process are designing cooperative learning in a group discussion by using student-centered method to have more interaction between teachers and students in the classroom. Learning sources such as textbooks, cultural video or movie, cultural articles on the newspaper, and cross-cultural studies must be provided to support the learning process. Visiting abroad to learn the real culture is also suggested to enrich both teachers and students knowledge about different cultures.

Teachers’ suggestions for the assessment of the course is providing a more structured rubrics to assess students’ performance in the form of oral and written test such as personal reflective essay about cultural awareness by using portfolios of students perceptions of other cultures such as students worksheets, written work, video or photo events, students’ presentation, and role-play.

4. Students’ Feedback about Teacher’s Teaching Performance

Table 4 Students’ Appraisal Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

165
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Acceptable</th>
<th>Very good</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Has communicated class materials clearly</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Has been well prepared for classes.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Has organized class time effectively</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Has stimulated my interest in the subject</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Has been responsive to students problem</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Having considered various aspect of the performance of the nominated teacher, how would you rate the teaching overall?

2 7 30 7 1 4 7

Adapted from Richard (2003)

The findings show that 33 students state that they strongly disagree that teacher has communicated class materials clearly and 14 students strongly agree that teacher has communicated class materials clearly. It means that teachers need to pay attention more to the organization and clarity. 30 students strongly disagree that the teacher has been well prepared.
for the classes and 17 students strongly agree that teacher has prepared well the classes. It means that more students agree that teacher is not well prepared for class. The teacher needs to provide an overview of the class to make students understand the materials. He also needs to be able to present and explain content clearly. The teacher should provide transitions from topic to topic, make distinctions between major and minor points, periodically summarize important concepts or ideas in the lecture, and use examples and illustrations to clarify difficult or abstract ideas.

There are 38 students strongly disagree and 9 students strongly agree that teacher has organized class time effectively. Teachers need to manage time for an effective classroom environment. It is possible to keep up with the educational needs of every student, manage urgent situations immediately and avoid falling behind when unexpected events occur. Time management is an important part of providing quality education and meeting the needs of every student.

There are 25 students strongly disagree and 22 students strongly agree that teacher has stimulated students’ interest in cross-cultural understanding class. It means it is a great challenge for the teacher to create and maintain an interesting and intellectually stimulating classroom environment in which students eagerly learn and grow. The teacher needs to examine the teaching practice frequently to reflect critically in order to introduce changes needed for example the changes of teaching materials and teaching strategies.

There are 26 students strongly disagree and 21 students strongly agree that the teacher has been responsive to students’ problem. It means teacher should establish more ties with all students. Teacher is to see and honor the individual. Always show students the courtesy of listening to and responding to their answers when they offer an idea. He should be supportive, encouraging, and respectful of student ideas in class. He can correct wrong answers or point out weaknesses without discouraging your students.

Having considered various aspects of the performance of the nominated teacher, 9 students rate poor, 30 students rate acceptable, 7 students rate very good, and 1 students rate excellent performance of overall teaching performance. Performance within this function area is consistently adequate or acceptable. Teaching practices fully meet all performance expectations at an acceptable level. Teacher maintains an adequate scope of competencies. However, teaching practices require considerable improvement to meet minimum performance expectations.
There are 40 students rate the content of the topic are very useful for them in understanding cross-cultural material, unfortunately, teacher provides very limited sources. 7 students agree that cross-cultural materials are not useful enough for them because they do not have enough learning sources. 20 students state that providing a textbook will be very useful for them to know more others’ cultures especially American culture. 27 students declare that the lack of textbook makes the teaching-learning process is not useful. It is the duty of teacher to provide students with a wide range of materials at varying levels of difficulty, with a diversity of appeal, and representative of different points of view.

Students’ suggestions to improve learning are:

a. Introducing more comparison of Indonesian culture and other countries’ culture in the classroom,

b. Providing sources and textbooks of cross-cultural understanding,

c. Giving topics in text book one week before the class, providing volunteers of many countries in cross-cultural understanding class,

d. Providing more examples of cross-cultural understanding, and

e. Visualizing the explanation with the real pictures or video of cross-cultural understanding materials.

5. Classroom Observation

Here are the results of classroom observation for teaching enhancement;

**Knowledge of subject matter:** teacher exhibited mastery of the content but failed to convey the message to the students since teacher used explanation without providing the clear example of cross-cultural understanding such as providing a video of cross-cultural topics in order to make students will understand the materials easily. Teacher gave general explanation and did not manage the time well for the students so the goals did not achieve well although teacher invited a guest speaker from German who speaks English well but it did not help students much in cross-cultural understandings.

**Organization and Clarity:** Structure: The teacher was well prepared for class but the teacher did not provide an overview of the class. Students complained that the teacher was unable to present and explain content clearly since teacher rarely used examples and illustrations to clarify difficult or abstract ideas and teacher’s voice was fast and low.

**Teaching Strategies:** Most of teacher’s teaching methods were lecturing then it really caused boredom in the classroom. There was a little discussion or questioning. Students were
very quiet. Because of lack of students’ response in the previous meetings, the teacher decided to ask the students to make a presentation of the visible and invisible of Indonesian culture. Students’ presentation was for the three meetings in the syllabus but it failed to meet the goals since the lack of time management so not all students were able to do a presentation in the classroom. In short, the use of various teaching strategies (lecture, handouts, media) was not effectively integrated.

**Closure:** the teacher summarized and integrated major points of the lecture or discussion at the end of class but it was only at glance with no homework or reading assignments announced.

**Presentation and Enthusiasm:** According to the students, the teacher demonstrated enthusiasm for the subject but the voice sometimes could not be easily heard. The teacher raised or lowered voice for variety and emphasis. The rate of speech was fast although teacher maintained eye contact with students and he used facial expressions, posture, or motion to sustain student interest.

**Student Behavior:** Survey the class on occasion and note what students were doing shows that students took few notes, wrote down very little what teacher puts on board and they did not copy each other's notes in order to keep up with lecture. Not all students were listening attentively, they had random conversations among students, and some of them busy texting on their cellphone.

**Conclusion and Suggestions**

Based on the findings, the existing syllabus needs to be developed since it has not met the needs of the learners. The new developed syllabus of cross-cultural understanding course should consider the findings of the need analysis in this study. One of the ways to apply the approach to the EFL classroom is through topical or content-based syllabus since the teachers suggest themes, topics, or other units of content that serve the best basis for teaching skill areas. The emphasis is incorporating students’ cultural background into cross-cultural comparison to get the similarities and the differences between the two cultures and deepening students’ appreciation of the other culture and its speakers, and expand their understanding.

In short, a good syllabus communicates to students; 1) basic information about the course and contact information; 2) course purpose including goals and objectives; 3) instructor’s teaching philosophy and beliefs; 4) assignments and course calendar; 5) required and optional materials including textbooks and supplemental readings such as journal
articles; 6) methods of instruction and course delivery; 7) grading procedures; and 8) learning resources for students (see Altman, 1989; Appleby, 1999; Davis, 1993; Matejka & Kurke, 1994; McKeachie, 2002; Slattery & Carlson, 2005; Suddreth & Galloway, 2006).

References


In Frary R. B. A Brief Guide to Questionnaire Development.


Title
Knowledge Sharing Practices in EFL Classroom
at Higher Education in Indonesia

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Abstract
This study aims at exploring the knowledge sharing practices in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom at university level in Indonesia. To explore knowledge sharing practices in the EFL classroom, the author conducted research on this topic at undergraduate and postgraduate programs at the State University of Makassar in Indonesia in 2015/2016 academic year. There were sixty five students from English Literature Study Program and Graduate Program Universitas Negeri Makassar as subjects of this study. The subjects of the study were chosen purposively and the instrument was close and open ended questionnaire in which the subjects were asked to write down their perceptions about the knowledge sharing practices in EFL classroom at higher education and the subjects were asked to respond the questionnaire. This study has sought to explore knowledge management practice as the most intriguing issue in the industry and needs to be implemented in educational domain. The pedagogical implication of this study is to encourage teachers, lecturers, educational practitioners, educationists, and policy makers in education to implement the knowledge sharing in the classroom and they hopefully will conduct the study on the same topic in
knowledge management process. For further studies, we will focus on knowledge acquisition, knowledge creation, knowledge utilization, and knowledge storage.

**Keywords**: Knowledge sharing, EFL classroom, higher education, Indonesia

**Introduction**

Education is future investment and the governments who place education as their first priority will achieve prosperity. Good condition of a nation depends on how the government pays attention on the quality of education. The quality of education in many aspects is also determined by a wide variety of aspects. One of the very important aspects is the teacher at a schools and the lecturer at tertiary levels.

Weda (2016) argues that the most intriguing element is the role of the faculty members (lecturers) at higher education to employ good method in transferring knowledge to students. This is because lecturers take very vital role in enhancing students’ knowledge. Weda (2016) further explains that, higher education in Indonesia is very much hope to adopt the learning management as implemented by the industrial company. In the international context today, various management practices have been employed by large industries in order to achieve their goals. Those management practices are management strategic, knowledge management, knowledge leadership, and strategic planning under the umbrella of learning organization.

As a learning organization, university needs to adopt knowledge management practices at teaching-learning processes in the classroom setting. The knowledge management (KM) has a wide variety of tasks, namely knowledge creation, knowledge sharing, knowledge utilization, and knowledge documentation. Knowledge management enables individuals, teams and entire organizations to collectively and systematically create, share and apply knowledge to achieve their strategic and operational objectives (North, Klaus and Kumta, Gita, 2014) as cited in Weda (2016). One of the most important parts of KM is knowledge sharing. Therefore, the objective of this study is to explore the knowledge sharing practices in the EFL classroom at higher education in Indonesia.
Review of Literature

Knowledge management (KM) may simply be defined as doing what is needed to get the most out of knowledge resources (Fernandez and Sabherwal, 2010). They (2010) therefore argue that KM is viewed as an increasingly important discipline that promotes the creation, sharing, and leveraging of the corporation’s knowledge.

KM involves systematic approaches to find, understand, and use knowledge to achieve organizational objectives (Moffett and Walker, 2015). Moffett and Walker (2015) therefore add that KM is based on the idea that an organization’s most valuable resource is the knowledge of its people, the essence of KM is ‘getting the right information to the right people at the right time.’

LEE, Chi-Lung, et al (2010) propose procedures of the knowledge management process model for schools, which include knowledge generation and acquisition, knowledge sharing, and the SECI model: externalization of knowledge, internalization of knowledge, socialization of knowledge, and combination of knowledge.

With regard to the relationship of people, when knowledge creation depends on information being shared between and among people, it is very availability depends on communication, interpretation, and meaning (Nasiripour, 2012).

Methodology

Participant

To explore knowledge management practices in the EFL classroom, the author conducted research on this topic at undergraduate and graduate programs at State University of Makassar in Indonesia. There were eighty English learners as participants of this research. There were two classes or sixty students from English Literature Study Program, Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar, and one class or twenty students from Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) Study Program of Graduate Program, State University of Makassar in 2015/2016 academic year as revealed in table 2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Semester</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10 males, 40 females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td>Literature</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>TEFL</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5 males, 10 females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instrument**

The instrument of this research is questionnaire consisting of Likert scale and showing 23 5-point Likert type questions about knowledge sharing practices in EFL classroom. All Likert scales were scored from 5 (strongly agree), 4 (agree), 3 (Neither agree nor disagree), 2 (disagree), 1 (strongly disagree). The second instrument is the questionnaire consisting of open questions in which the subjects are asked to write down their perceptions towards the knowledge sharing practices in the EFL classroom at the Faculty of Languages and Literature and Graduate Program Universitas Negeri Makassar.

**Procedure and Analysis**

The questionnaire items were written in Indonesian. This means to give opportunity to students or participants responding the questions easily and comprehensively, especially for the open questionnaire. The data obtained from the questionnaire is then tabulated and analyzed using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics Version 20 to see descriptive statistics. Additional information obtained through open questionnaire is coded and analyzed to find out the knowledge sharing practices in EFL classroom at higher education.

**Results and Discussion**

*Results on Students’ Perception*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Knowledge Management Practices</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1 (%)</th>
<th>2 (%)</th>
<th>3 (%)</th>
<th>4 (%)</th>
<th>5 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KSP-1</td>
<td>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists among students in the classroom.</td>
<td>4.3333</td>
<td>.70892</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSP-2</td>
<td>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from students to community outside the university.</td>
<td>3.7576</td>
<td>.84235</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSP-3</td>
<td>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from other organizations or communities to students at the university.</td>
<td>3.8030</td>
<td>.84525</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSP-4</td>
<td>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from students as individuals to other students in the classroom.</td>
<td>4.0152</td>
<td>.86811</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSP-5</td>
<td>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from students as individuals to other students in the classroom.</td>
<td>4.0909</td>
<td>.71742</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from class learning to students as individuals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KSP-6</th>
<th>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from other people or organizations outside the university.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.8333  .77625  0  3.0  30.3  47.0  19.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KSP-7</th>
<th>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from outside the classroom.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.0455  .73237  0  1.5  19.7  51.5  27.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KSP-8</th>
<th>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from classroom to other organizations or people outside the university.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.6364  .77730  0  6.1  36.4  45.5  12.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KSP-9</th>
<th>In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from among students as learners.</th>
</tr>
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<td>4.5152  .58815  0  0  4.5  39.4  56.1</td>
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As revealed in table 1 above and chart 1 below, the highest mean score is Knowledge Sharing Practices (KSP-9): “In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from among students as learners.” The second mean score is KSP-1: “In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists among students in the classroom.” The third mean score is KSP-5: “In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from class learning to students as individuals.” The forth means score is KSP-7: “In learning English in EFL classroom, knowledge sharing exists from outside the classroom.”

Chart 1. *Mean Score of Knowledge Sharing Practice (KSP)*

The question as revealed in the questionnaire “Is there any knowledge sharing in your classroom?,” there were 58 or 89.2% of the students said “yes” and 7 or 10.8% said “no.” This information reveals that the knowledge sharing practices have been implemented by classroom members (students and teacher) as stated in chart 2.

Chart 2. *Knowledge Sharing Practice in EFL Classroom*
Generally, the analysis has shown the following, which reveals the students’ perception on knowledge sharing in the EFL classroom, either between students and teacher or students and students. Regarding students who gave reasons toward the types of knowledge sharing in the classroom, there were 28 (43.07%) students gave reasons that the knowledge sharing practices in the classroom setting was “discussion.”

Excerpt (1) “Knowledge sharing in the classroom emerged when the lecturer gave explanation and when the discussion took place in the classroom.”
Excerpt (2) “Knowledge sharing in form of discussion in which the students were involved in the discussion as place for exchanging ideas to others.”
Excerpt (3) “Knowledge sharing emerged when we maintained classroom discussion. Not only from lecturer to students, but also from students to students.”
Excerpt (4) “We always share knowledge in the discussion in the classroom setting.”
Excerpt (5) “For example discussion, forming group to complete the task and sharing knowledge in doing individual task.”
Excerpt (6) “After receiving knowledge in the classroom, my friends and I then discussed the materials that had been explained by the lecturer.”

From these reasons, it can be identified that the students notably responded that discussion in a wide variety of forms in the classroom illustrate that if we would like to nurture students’ knowledge sharing, discussion will be the first priority to implement. This is because the students can share with others about the subject materials.

As previously stated in the Procedures of the Knowledge Management Process Model for Schools through a KMS, the documented knowledge is announced and shared. An environment that allows the “internalization and socialization” of inter-member discussions and observations is provided. In order to provide the school with the necessary correct knowledge, the senior knowledge managers determine what knowledge is to be shared, and these documents are only shared after being approved by the knowledge management team (LEE, Chi-Lung, et al., 2010). Obviously, the term sharing and discussion are illustrated as two sides of coins which intertwined each other. There is no one side without the existense of the other.

The second priority was the question and answer session in which the members of the classroom can share knowledge. The students who gave reasons toward the knowledge sharing practice in the classroom through question and answer session were 9 or 13.85% students. The following excerpts illustrate the students’ reasons.
Excerpt (7) “Through question and answer session or sharing knowledge with lecturer or friends.”

Excerpt (8) “Question and answer between lecturer and students, or between students and students.”

Excerpt (9) “There is question and answer session for friends who present their paper and they therefore answer the questions.”

Excerpt (10) “Question and answer between lecturer – students in the classroom, and from students to students.”

Excerpt (11) “Sharing between lecturer and students, which usually takes place in question and answer.”

Excerpt (12) “Knowledge sharing when the question and answer process exists in the classroom in which the students ask the lecturer or the students ask their friends who presented the material. In this activity, knowledge sharing emerged about the responses from the audiences.

Excerpt (13) “If there are some students do not understand the material and they ask other students to explain again.”

Some students gave responses that the knowledge sharing practices in the classroom setting were conducted when the lecturer presents the material in front of the classroom. There were 4 or 6.15% students said that the knowledge sharing emerged in the classroom through subject presentation by the lecturer as revealed in the following excerpts.

Excerpt (14) “When the lecturer presents the material subject.”

Excerpt (15) “Knowledge sharing based on the existing data or facts, through explanation or material presentation in the classroom.”

Excerpt (16) “Classroom presentation by the lecturer or between students and students.”

Excerpt (17) “Knowledge sharing from lecturer or teacher to learners or knowledge sharing among students and via internet.”

Traditionally, the teacher is a facilitator in the classroom, so that he or she should be competent in transferring knowledge to his or her students. The teacher needs to employ good teaching strategies in order to lead his or her students to understand what he or she explains.

Since the material presentation places the third rank of students’ responses toward students’ perception on the knowledge sharing practices in the classroom setting, the teacher
should have good competence (knowledge, skill, and attitude). This is because the teacher becomes very vital role model in the classroom.

Some other reasons of knowledge sharing practices in the classroom based on the students’ per seption are presented below:

Excerpt (18) “Sharing knowledge among students in doing the tasks.”
Excerpt (19) “Knowledge sharing emerged through interaction between teacher and students or among students in the classroom.”
Excerpt (20) “The way of understanding the material in the classroom by each student is different and this causes various knowledge. If there is different opinion, the students exchange their thought with explanation according to the theory.”
Excerpt (21) “Knowledge sharing between lecturer and students. So we can know something which we do not know and we can maintain mutual understanding and understanding each other.”
Excerpt (22) “Clearly, knowledge sharing through other students’ opinion.”
Excerpt (23) “Knowledge sharing from the lecturer and the students.”
Excerpt (24) “Mutually knowledge sharing by offering opinion.”
Excerpt (25) “Knowledge sharing practices when student explain his experience and other students listen to the explanation.”

Based on the students’ perception in open and close questionnaire, the results on table 1 and the results on qualitative data analysis, as previously stated, indicate that the knowledge sharing in the classroom exists through interaction between teacher and students, and students and students through discussion, material presentation from the lecturer, and question and answer session after presentation, either presentation from the lecturer or presentation from the students through group discussion.

Conclusion

The objective of the study has been to provide an analysis of students’ perception of knowledge sharing in the EFL classroom at higher education. In particular, the data obtained from the students support the following conclusions.
The study reveals that there were 58 or 89.2% of the students said “yes” and 7 or 10.8% said “no,” towards the question “Is the knowledge sharing employed in your classroom?”. If the student’s answer “yes,” it is followed by the following question “How is the knowledge sharing employed in the classroom setting?”. The answers of this question are varied. Most students responded that the knowledge sharing in the classroom setting was ‘discussion’ in various discussion activities, followed by question and answer session, material presentation from the lecturer, and other knowledge sharing activities done by the students as members of the classroom.

As one of the very vital parts of knowledge management, knowledge sharing needs to be employed through discussion based on intriguing topics or issues in the society. This knowledge sharing provides opportunity to all students to be involved in the classroom activity in order to nurture their motivation and learning outcome. Therefore, the pedagogical implication of this study is that the students’ knowledge sharing is the most intriguing issue to develop in the classroom, so that the lecturer, teacher, educational practitioner, and educational policy maker need to employ knowledge sharing in the curriculum, syllabus, and teaching-learning process in the classroom.

Other researchers are recommended to conduct further investigation on the same topics in different locus or focus on knowledge acquisition, knowledge creation, knowledge utilization, and knowledge storage.

**References**


**Journal Article**


**Conference Proceedings**
