Unika SOEGIJAPRANATA
Talenta pro patria et humanitate

4th CELT International Conference
Culture, English Language Teaching & Literature

PROCEEDING

English in the Professional World: Issues of the teaching of English language and culture in the professional world

Soegijapranata Catholic University
Semarang - Indonesia
2014

PROCEEDING:
English in the Professional World: Issues of the teaching of English language and culture in the professional world

ISBN: 978-602-8011-69-3

Publisher:
Soegijapranata Catholic University
Jl. Pawiyatan Luhur IV/1
Bendan Duwur
Semarang – Indonesia
Telp. +62448441555
Fax. +62248415429
Email: penerbitan@unika.ac.id

4TH CELT INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

PROCEEDING:

English in the Professional World: Issues of the teaching of English language and culture in the professional world

Editors:
G.M. Adhyanggono
Antonius Suratno

FOREWORD

This book is a compilation of various topics highlighting "English in the Professional World: Issues of the teaching of English language and culture in the professional world." In this proceeding, linguists, teachers, researchers as well as practitioners of English for Specific Purposes express their ideas and interests on salient issues pertaining to the teaching of English language and culture for diverse fields. As communications between nations are increasing, so are the demands of university graduates and students who are capable of using English to perform their job-related tasks and communicate their professional goals. Education institutions have great responsibilities to bridge the needs of the professional world and the education of qualified graduates. Such awareness is reflected on the articles covering diverse topics that range from research, teaching, and work experience.

All contributors of the articles in this book have genuinely shared their innovative, inspiring and insightful thoughts as well as invaluable experience. Thus, the conference committee is deeply indebted to them for their manuscripts. Sincere gratitude is also addressed to the Rector of Soegijapranata Catholic University, Prof. Dr. Ir. Y. Budi Widianarko, M.Sc., for his encouragement and support; the Dean, Angelika Riyandari, PhD., for her determination to fully support the process of making this book. Last but not least, we also like to thank colleague lecturers and devoted students at the Faculty of Letters who have dedicated their time and energy in the preparation of this book.

Editors
G.M. Adhyanggono
Antonius Suratno

The Development of Moral Education through Early Childhood English Learning Model with an Interactive Method Based on Kindergarten Curriculum

Ririn Ambarini, Subur Laksmono Wardoyo, Sri Suneki
IKIP PGRI Semarang
yiyien.averrros@gmail.com; subur_wardoyo@yahoo.com; sri.suneki@yahoo.com

Abstract

Early Childhood Classes should produce students who are religious, principled, knowledgeable, skillful, creative, independent, democratic and responsible (Law No 20, 2003, Chapter II, Article 2). How is this possible when kindergarten teachers lack the method and material to do it? In response to this problem, this essay will share findings of material and method produced through a research on moral education through an interactive English learning based on the kindergarten curriculum. The method promotes Song & Movement, Game & Movement, CCS (Colouring, Cutting & Sticking), and TPR to develop moral values.
The validity of findings are supported by the first t-test sign of 7.945 with 15 df value which is higher than the t-table of 2.131 and the second t-test value of 10.941 with a value of df=15 which is also higher than the t-table of 2.131. Thus there was a significant difference between the control and the experimental class.

Keywords: moral education, interactive method, kindergarten curriculum

Introduction

In the law No. 20 of 2003, Chapter II article 2, unequivocally stated that national education aims to develop the ability and forming the character of a nation's civilization and dignity in the framework of the intellectual life of the nation, aims to the development of potential learners in order to become a faithful human and pious to God, and become a noble, healthy, knowledgeable, competent, creative, independent, democratic , and responsible citizen. Methods in the planting of moral value to early childhood are very varied, some of them are telling stories, singing, playing, rhyming and going on trips. Moreover, the implementation of

moral education guidelines integrated by learning English with interactive methods in the kindergarten are still undeveloped. (Jamaris, Martini dan Fahrudin, 2005).

Review of Literature

Kindergarten Learning English with Interactive Method

The learning perspective which is centered on the young learners of English learning especially for early children learners will help a teachers to apply English learning more effectively (Cameron, 2001).

The characteristics of early learners as Pinter (2006) said in his statement that early learners has a holistic closeness with language and has low awareness about himself/herself as language learners in learning process, and has low reading and writing skill with their first language.

KTSP Kindergarten Curriculum Base of Development

Development of KTSP (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*) refers to National Standart Education (*SNP*). With the appearance of National Standart Early Learning Education (PAUD) No. 58 2010, so kindergarten schools have to develop self curriculum. National Standart Early Learning Education (PAUD) constitutes considerable product done from Competence Standart of Kindergarten or TK/RA 2004 and Generic Learning Menu 2002 with the problems from document or the implementation.

National Standard Early Learning Education (PAUD) has a purpose that learning in the kindergarten will be reached if it constitutes the development of the attainment that explains the development aspects. In the kindergarten curriculum *KTSP* era there is four development range: (1) religion and moral value, (2) physical, (3) cognitive, (4) language, and (5) emotional social.

The Integration of Moral Education in English Learning

In the development range available in KTSP of kindergarten, one of the aspect is language approvement, so the step of development for TK A learners expected is learners can observe with the other people's saying (mother tongue or the other languages), understand two commands given, understand the story retelling, and know the vocabularies of adjectives. Suneki and Ambarini (2012), in their research said that TPR Warm Up Game is an English learning method which is interactive and it can make early age learners create to use English as a communication instrument to interact with their teachers or the other learners.

The Concerned Study of Moral Education Interegated in English Learning

The basic conviction said that every course has a knowledge spirit that includes the periodical spirit called as morality course (Mursidin, 2011). As stated by Paul T. Begley and Jacqueline Stefkovich (2007) in their paper that the moral interegated education in a learning is very efective to improve learners' personality and characteristics. Michael Bamidele Adeyemi (2009) demonstrated that every question about education policy in Bostwana pro with moral education interegated in learning based of occured curriculum. Phyllis Chim-Lian Chew (2008) said in her paper that language learning is very important to develop moral value for learners so they can communicate with the other learners by learning activity with a fable material, folklore for learners about what is goodness and loyalty.

The Purpose and Benefit of Study

The Purpose of Research

The research have a purpose to develop the learning material in English learning for early age with interractive curriculum-based on KTSP kindergarten curriculum. The earning material

is developed to measure up by learning material for early age with interractive method covered four main activities: game, movement song, Total Physical Response (TPR), and the coloring assignment, cutting, and sticking. Whereas moral values are developed in group when learners use learning model in group activities and the measurement is humanity, respect to the others, responsibility, loyalty, humbleness, and the skills of managing one self into group.

The Benefit of Research

1. Learners and teachers, to increase the creativity in English teaching techniques for early age learners, developing idea more creatively to increase the participation of learners with intearractive method and maximize four main activities in learning based on KTSP kindergarten curriculum and increase moral education for early age learners.
2. Researchers, to increase the knowledge in education research, especially learning material development in English learning for early age learners or *English for Young Learners (EYL).*

Research Method

Research Design

Research design is a Research and Development (R&D) with modification. The research data analysis uses composite method that is descriptive quantitative and qualitative. In this section, testing of model sets used experiment design. The design used determing certain subjects for two group, that is experiment group and control group.

Time and Place of Research

The data taken in the region of Central Java. For research planning, the development of material of English learning model with intearctive method based on KTSP Kindergarten curriculum, data analysis and the writing up of the research report in Central Java region in 2013.

Research Intsrument

The material of English learning model with interactive method based on KTSP Kindergarten curriculum developed and planned based on the research problems and steps of theresearch. The instruments are divided into two: 1) instrument in every research step to collect data, 2) instrument of English learning model with interactive method based on KTSP Kindergarten curriculum to develop the moral education of early age learners.

Method of Data Analysis

Method of data analysis used *triangulasi mix-method design* which analyzes stimulantly from quantitative data and qualitative data and composite data. Next, the use of analysis result was to comprehend the research.

The Results

Development Result

Based on the development procedure, the development of English learning material for early age learners with interactive method based on KTSP Kindergarten curriculum contains moral education done in some develpment steps, that are :

1. Steps of requirement analysis

   a. Problem analysis

   In this section that the investigation is about problems appearing in learning activity in the fieldwork and identification solution possible to solve the problems.

   b. Analysis of the content of learning design

   Composing of model design of English learning with interactive method curriculum-based KTSP of Kindergarten containing moral. The content of learning model refer to KTSP curriculum of kindergarten. English learning model for early age learners with interactive method contains four main activities: game, movement song, TPR, coloring assignment, and cutting where in every activity it contains moral development for early age learners.

2. Product Design Step

   In process of model design plan, English learning with interactive method with four main activities that are : game, movement song, TPR, coloring assignment, cutting when in every activity, it contains moral development of early age learners.

Data Analysis

The data analysis is done by using SPSS 16 processing data

From the first data taken from the control class in TK Sarimulyo Kabupaten Semarang and the experimental class in TK Masyitoh Kabupaten Kendal shows that the value of T-test shows a positive sign that 7.945 with 15 df value so the value of t-test is higher than t-table value that is 2,131 with df = 15. This means that there is a significant difference between the control class and the experimental class.

From the second data taken from the control class from TK Kartini Kabupaten Demak and the experimental class from TK IDATA 2 Kabupaten Grobogan, the value of T-test was 10. 941 with a value of df = 15. This means T-test values are higher than T-table that is 2. 131 with the same df value is 15. Value of T test is > T-table values, which means there is a significant difference between the control class and the experimental class.

The two data of the above experimental results are calculated in order to get the whole result by using non paramatic test. The data shows that the average (mean) of each class in each data showed similar results from previous calculations or analysis. The data also indicate that the distribution of the tests given by researchers to study the target is normal.

Conclusion and Suggestion

Conclusion

Based on the research result, it can be concluded that moral education development of early age with the interactive method in English learning based on KTSP Kindergarten curriculum is effective and suitable for cognitive development of early age requirement. English learning model with interactive method explains interest and joy so early age learners are not only playing game but also learning about the interaction with the teachers or the other people by using English or two language billingually.

Suggestion

Based from explaination and the conclusion, it is suggested that development of education for early age moral development can be done with the interactive methods of English learning that contains four main activities that are song, game, Total Physical Respone, and pshycomotor activity like a coloring, cutting, and sticking. The activities are very suitable to be used in Early age education because those are suitable with characteristics of early age learners who love anything about coloring things and movement.

References

Adeyemi, Michael, et.al.(2009). *Teaching Character Education Across the Curriculum and the Role of Stakeholders at the Junior Secondary Level in Botswana.* Kamla-Raj 2009 Stud Home Comm Sci, 3 (2): 97-105 (2009)

Begley, Paul, T. And Stefkovich, Jacqueline. 2007. *Integrating Values and Ethics into Post Secondary Teaching for Leadership Development Principles, Concepts, and Strategis* . Journal of Moral Education. Vol. 45 No. 4. 0957-8234

Cameron, Lynne. 2001. *Teaching Languages to Young Learners.*United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Chew, Phyllis, Ghim-Lian. 2008. *Competition or Cooperationn; War or Peace? Language and Education in Singapore.*The Asian EFL Journal. Vol. 10. No. 2. ISSN 1738-1460

Herlina, Yuke I. 2010. *Sejarah Perkembangan Kurikulum Taman Kanak-kanak di Indonesia dari Masa ke Masa.* Jakarta: Pusat Kurikulum Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan Kementerian Pendidikan Nasional

Jamaris, Martini dan Fahrudin. 2005. *Peningkatan Penguasaan Kosakata Bahasa Inggris Melalui permainian.* Jurnal Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini PPs UNJ.

Mursidin. 2011. *Moral Sumber Pendidikan; Sebuah Formula Pendidikan Budi Pekerti di Sekolah/Madrasah.*Bogor: Ghalia Indonesia.

Pinter, A. 2006. *Teaching young language learners*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Undang-Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional No. 20 Tahun 2003. 2003. *Sistem Pendidikan Nasional dan Penjelasannya*. Jakarta: Media Wacana.

Language of Generation Z: Developing Entrepreneurial Intention through Online Store Project with PRIME Model

Sandy Arief
Faculty of Economics Semarang State University
sandy@staff.unnes.ac.id

Abstract

Karangturi International School (KIS) with its vision as school of global entrepreneurial spirit committed to developing sense of entrepreneurship in inclusive activities. The paper intends to build integrated conceptual model of entrepreneurship curriculum to equip students to be innovator entrepreneurs with excellent character, to investigate the level of entrepreneurial intentions among students, and to analyze students' online store project in exploring entrepreneurial intention by using social media communication as generation Z traits. As an explorative research, this study was conducted through reviewing available literature and/or data, questionnaires among 50 students, in-depth interviews, and integrated students' project. As results, various ideas of creative and innovative model in entrepreneurship learning process can be formed for cross-curricular development.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, language, generation-Z, online store

Introduction

Karangturi International School (KIS) has a commitment in the effort of developing entrepreneurial spirit among its students. KIS' vision as school of global entrepreneurial spirit is a global movement for all school stakeholders. KIS shall always operate with honor and along the lines of good business practices. It shall be upgrading and updating its resources, tools, and strategies in teaching; and do its best to improve its facilities for the welfare of the students. The programs are offered by KIS are primary, secondary and A level. This study will focus on

secondary and A level as extensive 4-year course for secondary education (with International General Certificate of Secondary Education - IGCSE) level candidates or extended 6-year course for Cambridge University Advanced Subsidiary and Advanced level.

This exploratory study was conducted to address the current gap in entrepreneurship education and accounting research by answering the following questions: (1) What is the conceptual model of integrated entrepreneurship and accounting curriculum at KIS? (2) What is the level of entrepreneurial intention among students? and (3) What lessons can be learned as a practical implication from students' project on accounting through online store named B'shop at entrepren.webnode.com with PRIME model, an area where empirical research is much needed?

Theoretical Framework

Character Education

There are two of the most succinct and widely used definitions of character education come from leading authorities in the field. Thomas Likona, the author of *Educating for Character*, defines character education as the "intentional and focused effort to help students understand, care about and act upon core ethical values." Furthermore, Kevin Ryan with Karen E. Bohlen, authored *Building Character in Schools: Practical Ways to Bring Moral Instruction to Life*, defines character education as teaching students to "know the good, love the good, and do the good."Research done by the Institutefor Global Ethics in 2004, demonstrates that there are global understandings of what is consideredgood. These include virtues such as respect,responsibility, honesty, fairness, and compassion.

In this research, I used "Eleven Principles of Effective Character Education" instrument published by Character Education Partnership in 2004to classify the Priority, Relationships, Intrinsic Motivation, Modeling, and Empowerment(PRIME) model as character education traits. According to these principles, effective character education which is promotes core values; defines “character” to include thinking, feeling, and doing; uses a comprehensive approach; creates a caring community; provides students with opportunities for moral action; offers a meaningful and challenging academic curriculum; fosters students’ self-motivation; engages staff as a learning community; fosters shared leadership; engages families and community members as partners; and assesses the culture and climate of the school.

Teaching Entrepreneurship and Accounting through Online Store by Using PRIME Model

Enterprise systems provide support for managing business processes. Accountants need tounderstand these processes so they can understand the risks that are present and highlight theinternal control problems. This creates a significant opportunity for the accounting profession totake a central role in the configuration and management of processes within an enterprise system(Arnold & Sutton, 2007).

According to Arnold and Sutton (2007) suggest that accounting students should achieve an understanding of core business processes in both retail and manufacturing enterprises. Enterprise systems arecapable of modeling cross-functional business processes and tracking their execution.Consequently accountants need to be less concerned with individual transactions (Sutton, 2000),and more concerned with understanding business processes and how these function in atechnology enabled environment. Importantly, if processes are configured correctly, then eachcomponent transaction will be executed correctly, assuming no deliberate interference with thesystem or its data. For business this means more readily available data and analytical tools toinform timely decision making.

Character education is not simply “add-on”programs that contribute to the already heavyworkload of educators. These strategies areintended to become a comprehensive andintegral part of the school curriculum andclimate, permeating all aspects of school life.Each strategy seeks to create a safer and morecaring environment in which our students canget excited about the learning process andperform better academically. PRIME model as character education traits in this research was used as guidelines for students and me, as a teacher, in exploring their entrepreneurship intentions during the online store project and learning teaching process.

Based on my observation as an academia, I am dealing with students who are very young, energetic, and familiar with information and communication technology especially social media. Based on literature review, they are categorized as Generation Z. The Generation Z is smart, remarkable practical, and can be characterized with superficial and divided attention because they use more kind of media simultaneously. They are born into a visual era, and think not in trends but in scenes. Information and values of environmental protection are important for them (Tari, 2010).

According to Tabscott (2009) this generation has eight special characteristics, or norms. These are freedom, customization, collaboration, scrutiny, integrity, fun, speed and innovation. They prize freedom and freedom of choice. They want to customize things, make them their own. They are natural collaborators, who enjoy a conversation, not a lecture. They scrutinize and insist on integrity. They want to have fun, even at work and at school. Speed and innovation are normal for them, the parts of life. To engage and attract students’ interest, I designed comprehensive learning method by integrating entrepreneurship and accounting concepts through online store named B’shop at entrepren.webnode.com. This online store is made by IGCSE 9 Business stream students under my supervision as a teacher and consultant for this integrated project. Using blog as media and getting real life learning experience for students to be entrepreneurs and accountants are the main purpose of the B'shop. I as a teacher provided the template and design of the web and students managed this online store professionally with clear job descriptions based on their interests and expertise.

Research Design

This research designed using triangulation approach. Firstly, qualitative method is implemented with an open-ended questions and secondly by investigating the quantitative method using ANOVA as statistic tool. For this study, a questionnaire was given to all KIS students from secondary 7 up to advanced 12. The total number of students is 51 students. I collected the primary data through a primary survey in the form of self-administered questionnaires. All students completing the questionnaires but there is one student did not complete the questionnaires so the total number of respondents for this study is 50 students. I was careful to tell all students that there were no 'right' or 'wrong' answers and that they would not be evaluated as individuals in any way. The respondents' average age was 15 years old and 58.8 percent were females.

The questionnaires used and divided in two sections: open-ended questions and 26 items of question to measure entrepreneurial intentions. The items have been measured using 5-point likert-type scales denoting strongly disagree to strongly agree probability. I included five open-ended questions on entrepreneurship learning process and future career goal. The answers to these five questions complement the main question on entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, the five questions served as a good introduction to a topic and gave me insight into the reasons of students wishing or not wishing to start their own business. The answer rates for this study were

above 98%. In-depth interview was conducted to analyze the policy makers' perspectives on integrated entrepreneurship and accounting curriculum and its process. It was took place in school with principal and vice principal for academic affairs.

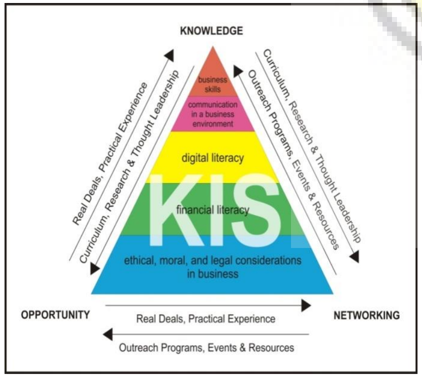
Results and Discussion

Integrated Entrepreneurship and Accounting Curriculum at KIS

At KIS, integrated entrepreneurship and accounting curriculum has not formed yet. In this study, I proposed the integrated curriculum on entrepreneurship and accounting for business stream mostly. The design of KIS integrated curriculum equips students with creative and enterprise skills that will be of significant benefit in both their educational and future working life. The curriculum is designed for students starting in grade 7 to learn about introduction to economics. In grade 8, students learn more on economics and factors influence the very beginning stages of planning new business with basic accounting skills. After passing the grade 8, students will be divided in two streams: business and science stream. This design, more focuses on business stream even tough could be executed also in science stream. In IGCSE 9 Business stream, students learn entrepreneurship and accounting through entrepreneurial selling and cyber marketing in the 1st and 2ndterm respectively. The whole design of integrated entrepreneurship - accounting curriculum implements cross curricular development emphasized student centered learning and multidisciplinary approach.

The design of this curriculum uses several methods in delivering its content, reading and lecturers by guest speaker and teacher on several topics such as business model canvas, building community, management course, exploration on site and project. It is aligned to Garavan*et al* (1994), which suggest that the best method suites to entrepreneurial learning style are active, applied and active experimentation and these also include concrete experience, reflective observation, and abstract conceptualization. On the other hand, this design creates creativity, multidisciplinary, process oriented approached and theoretical based practical application. It helps students to be more proactive, think about the problem solving, and have flexible approach to their project's problem rather than have rigid passive reactive concept and theory.

It is imperative to have in mind that integrated curriculum, from an early age in one's life, does not only concern business, start-ups, and new ventures. Integrated entrepreneurship and accounting curriculum prepared by KIS mostly to do with the ability that students have to turn their inspirations into actions. With more education and encouragement, students should be able to realize their entrepreneurial aspirations. This outcome will increase economic growth in communities and open new job and career opportunities, regardless of economic circumstances. Although not all students will become entrepreneurs, all students and society benefit when individuals have a solid education, that gives them entrepreneurial knowledge and skills to use over their lifetime. The diagram below shows the integrated entrepreneurship and accounting curriculum at KIS.



Level of Entrepreneurial Intentions among Students

Qualitative Data Analysis and Findings

Analysis of the qualitative data revealed that the attitudes of the students toward entrepreneurship were varying. Students who held this unique view of entrepreneurship shared the belief that with hard work and determination, everything was possible. The following comments from students illustrate their views:

> *"…The KarangturiIntegrated Entrepreneurship and Accounting curriculum encourages critical thinking and lays emphasis on theoretical and practical skills, making it a challenging, yet exciting academic curriculum…" (Student, grade 7).*

> *"…With KarangturiIntegrated Entrepreneurship curriculum, the teachers make you really understand the concepts. You have to apply what you learn to real life…" (Student, IGCSE 9-Business stream).*

The following remarks from students typify different perspectives on entrepreneurship and accounting:

> *"…I want to be an entrepreneur, because I will get a lot of money and don't need to be always in the area of work, can stay at home and get the results of the company by mastering basic accounting skills easily…" (Student, grade 8).*

> *"…I expect that school can give the basic in entrepreneurial mentality, not about the technical aspects…" (Student, O level).*

> *"…What is great about Integrated Entrepreneurship and Accounting curriculum in school is having many activities in real life learning like: financial portfolio, field trip, internship program, company visit, and many more…" (Student, IGCSE 9-Science stream).*

As the result, the following entrepreneurial factors related to accounting are collected after encode the open-ended questions: creativity, fun, real-life learning, achievement, motivation, experience, enjoyable, leadership, focus, risk takers, innovative.

Quantitative Data Analysis and Findings

Table 1. Test of Normality and Homogeneity of Variances

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov [a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
STUDENT SCORE	.097	50	.200*	.979	50	.503

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

STUDENT SCORE

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.033	5	44	.410

Table 2. Level of Entrepreneurial Intensions among Students

Descriptives

STUDENT SCORE

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum	Between-Component Variance
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Sec 7		3	93.67	3.215	1.856	85.68	101.65	90	96	
Sec 8		13	107.69	12.168	3.375	100.34	115.05	82	129	
Sec 9-BS		7	110.29	9.878	3.733	101.15	119.42	94	122	
Sec 9-Sci		12	110.58	7.845	2.265	105.60	115.57	92	121	
10 - Sci		13	98.23	11.805	3.274	91.10	105.36	80	118	
A - Sci		2	92.50	7.778	5.500	22.62	162.38	87	98	
Total		50	104.84	11.736	1.660	101.50	108.18	80	129	
Model	Fixed Effects			10.437	1.476	101.87	107.81			
	Random Effects				3.167	96.70	112.98			36.082

ANOVA

STUDENT SCORE

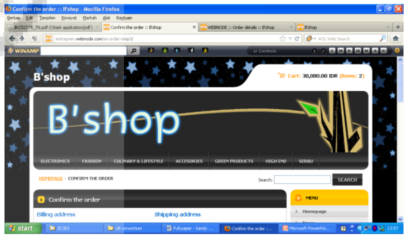
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1956.131	5	391.226	3.592	.008
Within Groups	4792.589	44	108.922		
Total	6748.720	49			

All of the questionnaires collected were properly answered, and thus all were used for data analysis. First, I tested the normality of the data by using Shapiro-Wilk. Then, I tested the homogeneity of variances before doing ANOVA test. Based on the results, data was ready to be performed to identify whether any significant differences exist among the six groups: secondary 7, secondary 8, IGCSE 9 Business stream, IGCSE 9 Science stream, O level, and A level Science

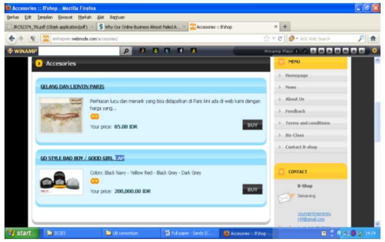
stream. From table 2, it can be explained that there are differences among six groups on entrepreneurial intentions by the F-value of 3.592 compared to critical F statistic. Furthermore, by analyzing table 2, it is explained that the highest score on entrepreneurial intentions was IGCSE 9 Science stream followed by Business stream, respectively.

B'Shop as Integrated Learning Method in Entrepreneurship and Accounting subjects.

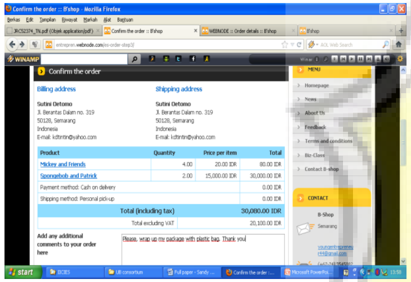
To integrate and make innovative learning teaching process in a business class, I assigned IGCSE 9 business stream students to create business blog when they learned cyber marketing and e-commerce concept. The business blog transformed into online store named B'shop stands for Business stream shop with full address: http://entrepren.webnode.com. This online store is complemented by Facebook on B'shopsKarangturi and Twitter: @TheBshop. By using this approach, students are very excited and motivated to learn about integrated concepts between business studies and accounting under solid theories such as theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) and Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989) as the most popular theories used to explain online shopping behavior (Limayem et al, 2003). Therefore, the theoretical framework of this study is based on these theories.



Picture 1. Homepage of B'shop (online store blog)



Picture 2. Products displayed in online store menu



Picture 3. Products' order displayed in online store

After engaging depth-interview with students about online store project which integrates the concept of entrepreneurship and accounting, several advantages and disadvantages for using this project have been found. One significant advantage is that the online store advances in the intellectual and social partnership created by technology. Students using the equipment engaged additional social skills when they spontaneously took leadership roles in relation to other students. The technology used increased group cohesion and mutual support especially in the small classroom. Its suitability for small-group work and its interactive mode both contributed to the development of skills using information and communication technologies. The classroom also developed a range of communication and social skills that allowed the students to overcome

their relative isolation by communicating with students in similar situations. A second educational advantage lies in the online store project provides an alternative, more inviting atmosphere to many. Students learn the accounting process in real life learning to get experience in dealing with accounting flow of transactions was made by the 'customers' in interactive way. Creating the sense of real entrepreneurs is also considered to be an advantage. They now realized that being entrepreneurs need comprehensive knowledge in particular accounting to make sustainable business. The online store project also increased students' motivation in learning accounting which always assumed by them as 'hard and boring' subject.

The online store project has its advantages however unfortunately it also has some disadvantages. One of the most persistent problems has been the factor of time. I considered the students' material must be aligned with the Cambridge curriculum and lesson plan to prepare them for examination. Running this online store takes time and energy in managing orders, invoices, updating the blog with products and information, and many more. This process does not occur overnight, it requires time, dedication, and some patience. Another drawback related issue deals with lack of products. Most of products sold on online store come from internal school such as teachers, students, families, and friends. Lacking of supply of products affect customers demand to buy the products. Even tough, the ultimate goal of this learning method is to familiarize them with real concept of entrepreneurship and accounting, few customers make them less motivated to explore the project. Although online store project offers students flexibility, this project requires good time management skills.

Conclusion

Karangturi International School (KIS) is trying to build comprehensive entrepreneurship curriculum which is modified from Cambridge curriculum as our reference. The integrated entrepreneurship and accounting curriculum offer a range of courses, all built on the belief that effective learning in all subjects of the discipline depends on the development of knowledge and skills in five critical areas: business skills; communication in a business environment; digital literacy; financial literacy; and ethical, moral, and legal considerations in business. The curriculum comprises a set of interrelated courses that extend and deepen students' understanding and skills in these critical areas as they progress through the grades, enabling them to apply the relevant concepts and skills with increasing sophistication to a broad range of business-related issues and problems. In order to promote sense of entrepreneurship at school, research findings revealed that the entrepreneur needed to be well acquainted with accounting knowledge and skills. The interactive learning process using online store project named B'shop for IGCSE Business students demonstrated the integration between entrepreneurship and accounting. Some advantages outweigh disadvantages to achieve real life learning experience for students. Limitation of this study includes transferability, or the generalization of the study for National curriculum.

References

Arnold, V., Sutton, S. G., (2007), "The impact of enterprise systems on business and audit practiceand the implications for university accounting education", *International Journal ofEnterprise Information Systems* , vol. 3, no. 1.

Character Education Partnership, (2004), "Defining and Understanding CharacterEducation."Retrieved July 10, 2012, fromhttp://www.character.org/resources/qanda/.

Likona, Thomas, (1992),*Educating forCharacter: How Our Schools Can TeachRespect and Responsibility*. New York:Bantam Books.

Ryan, Kevin and Karen E. Bohlen. (1999), *Building Character in Schools: PracticalWays to Bring Moral Instruction to Life.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Sutton, S. G., (2000) "The changing face of accounting in an information technology dominatedWorld", *International Journal of Accounting Information Systems* , vol. 1, pp. 1–8.

Tabscott, J. (2009), *Grown up digital: how the net generation is changing your world*. New York, McGraw-Hill Professional.

Tari, A., (2010), *Az Y ésmögötte a Z generáci, English version* [pdf] Available at: http://www.budapestedu.hu/data/cms47443/okopannon_tari.pdf [Accessed 10 February 2012].

Intercultural Competence in Translating Idioms

Rahmanti Asmarani
Dian Nuswantoro University
rahmanti.asmarani@dsn. dinus.ac.id

Abstract

Translation is an issue in applied linguistics that has developed rapidly as a process of transferring a writer's idea to target readers. Translating is a challenging work which produces a unique and artistic work since it contains the cultural concepts, either abstract or concrete. In translating idiom texts into English, students often face cultural problems such as equivalence and form since idiom is as culturally bound words.

This study is aimed to describe the students' intercultural competence of Dian Nuswantoro University in translating idiom and to investigate what the students do to solve the problems dealing with cultural equivalence. The data were taken from the students' assignment in translating texts. The results of the translated text were then compared with the source text and were analyze containing some idioms.

Keywords: cultural concept, cultural problem, intercultural competence, untranslatable words

Introduction

Translation has been growing up rapidly recently, especially in Indonesia. There are many translated work applied in books, literary works, movie, television program even songs. Translation is a process of not only changing language from one to another but it's also transferring the idea of an author to the target readers. Newmark (1981: 7) described that translation as "a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language". Translation is also a craft to replace one's idea into another language and to get the similar meaning or equivalence.

There are some steps in conducting the work of translating, such as analysis, transferring and restructuring which each has a particular problem. In analysis a translator should deal with the complexity of the source text in grabbing the idea of the author. In transferring process, he should be able to have the proper equivalence and in the restructuring step, the translator will deal with the naturalness, acceptability and the readability of the target text. In each step of translating process, the cultural concept blends in it. Basnett - Mc Guire said that "Translation involves the transfer of meaning contain in one set of language signs into another set of language signs through component use dictionary and grammar, the process involves a whole set of extralinguistic criteria also. (1980 : 13) Hence a translator will also deal with the extralinguistic problems, in other word, the extralinguistic here is dealing with the cultural problems. It often makes some untranslatabilities of some cultural categories which they have no equivalence in a target text. A text includes the setting which it is made, and who produces the text. It will have a particular style which belongs to the translator. For example the Indonesian traditional food such as *lontong*, *lemper*, *onde-onde* which are possible to change the names into English.

One problem which a translator will face in translating a text dealing with cultural problem is translating idiom. Idiom is a unique phrase, clause, even sentence which cannot be translated literally. A particular strategy should be applied in translating idiom since idiom refers to culturally bound words. Nida stated that"...people of any language-culture have sufficient imagination and experience to understand how the people of another language-culture may rightly differ in their behavior and values." (2001: 79). Based on that, cultural translation on will be possibly done well if the translator has no intercultural competence. Competence, the synonym of ability, should be with a translator in doing his work of translation.

Barrett and friends (2013:7-8), define that:

> Intercultural competence is therefore a combination of attitudes, knowledge, understanding and skills applied through action which enables one, either singly or together with other to…respect means that one has regard for, appreciates and values the other; the term appropriate means that all participants in the situation are equally satisfied that interaction occurs within expected cultural norms and effective means that all involved are able to achieve their objective in the interaction at least in part.

While Unesco (2013:13) stated as follows :

> Intercultural competences refer to having adequate relevant knowledge about particular cultures, as well as general knowledge about the sorts of issues arising when members of different cultures interact, holding receptive attitudes that encourage establishing and maintaining contact with diverse others, as well as having skills required to draw upon both knowledge and attitudes when interacting with others from different culture.

From those statements above, it can be said that cultural competence is as an ability to deeply comprehend one's culture, and intercultural competence is needed by a translator when he finds the cultural problem and gets a way out to overcome it. A translator is as a bridge of communication where two languages and two cultures involved in a process of transferring the author's idea so that's why a translator should posses the intercultural competence.

Method

This study was a descriptive qualitative research because it is intended to describe the intercultural competence in translating idiom. The data has taken from the students' work in translating idiom in the class of *Translation and Culture*. There are twenty students involved the class and did the work of translating idiom. A narrative text entitled "Revenge of the Baby Sitter" was given to the students to recognize, identify the idioms then transfer them into Indonesian as a target text.

Finding and Discussion

Intercultural competence as an ability in understanding the knowledge of one's different culture should be possessed by a translator to transfer the author's message into another language. Two different languages involve in a process of translation which also present different culture. Idiom refers to culturally bound word which in not easily recognized, hence it needs an intercultural competence to get the best equivalence of the target text. The data were taken from the students of fifth semester, who took the translation section. A text which presents some idioms was given to the students to be translated. The tasks then were reviewed and discussed. There are 24 idioms found in the text entitled "revenge of the Baby-sitter". All of them were not translated literally by the students. 17 of 24 were translated with non idiom of target language and 7 of them were translated with idiom of target text.

Example 1:

SL : *I came over prepared* ***with everything but the kitchen sink****, ready for everything.*

TL: *Aku datang dengan persiapan matang,* ***hampir semuanya kubawa****, dan aku siap untuk apapun.*

The students have identified "the everything but the kitchen sink" as an idiom, therefore they didn't translated it literally as *semuanya kecuali bak cuci di dapur.* The idiom means almost everything whether needed or not. As we know that a kitchen represents many tools for cooking and having meal and kitchen sink is an innovative feature sink which is usually used in a modern kitchen. When a man will move to another house/ apartment, he usually bring them up but not the kitchen sink. Kitchen sink has a different feature with *bak cuci dapur* in Indonesia although it has been popular right now. The students found hard to get the idiom of target language, whereas it will be strange if it was translated literally. Here the students tried to get the idea only and transferred it non-literally even in idiomatic expression.

Example 2:

SL : *They were being very well behave and I sensed that something was wrong but I was stupid and* ***just buried my head in the sand***

TL : *Mereka berkelakuan sangat baik dan aku merasa ada yang salah tapi aku terlalu bodoh dan menganggap* ***sebagai angin lalu***

Western people love spending time outdoor in summer, especially at a beach. "just buried a head in the sand' is usually done when people enjoy the sun shines at the beach . In other word they just enjoy themselves and refuse to think about an unpleasant situation. In this case the students translated the idiom by giving the idiom of the target text, *menganggap sebagai angin lalu*. Both idioms have same meaning although each of them has represented the different culture, since Indonesian people rarely do as the western people such as burying their head in the sand, but Indonesian people love the wind blowing. As the result two different idioms have a similar meaning or same equivalence.

Example 3:

SL : *They were up to the usual* ***monkey business***

TL : *Mereka seperti mempunyai* ***akal bulus.***

Both iditom use animals to represent the writer's idea. But in English, monkey is well known as animal whose many tricks. They are funny animals. In target language, monkey is well known as a fool, without having many tricks but *bulus* (turtle) has. It is because that turtle can do a trick to hide the head into its body. Source language and target language have a different conception about the animals, but each represents the characteristic of a tricky animal. The idiom expression

of source language has been transferred well into target language by giving the idiom expression too to represent the idea of full of tricky.

Example 4:

SL : *I thought I was* ***behind the eight ball****, but I remembered that I could my mom so I did.*

TL : *Aku merasa seperti* ***telur di ujung tanduk****, tapi aku masih ingat bahwa aku dapat menghubungi Ibu dan aku pun melakukannya.*

A behind the eight ball comes from the billiard game. It appears when a player of billiard has eight balls to be played, or it is a difficult time or position for a player to win the game. A billiard is a popular game for western many years ago but not for Indonesian. It has been recently a popular game although it is a kind of an expensive game for Indonesian since just few people own the game, or it needs money to play billiard. Therefore it will not be wise if the term "billiard' will be used in target language, although it is not a strange term for the target readers. In a target language, getting a difficult position, or in danger, has been represented *"seperti telur di ujung tanduk"*. By using the idiom, the writer's idea has been transferred well, and it will be easily read and understood by the target readers, since the idiom is a popular term for the target readers. Here the students have tried to get the best equivalence by giving the popular idiom to represent "behind the eight ball" or in a difficult position.

Conclusion

Idiom, as a culturally bound word has appeared not in short time. It becomes popular among a particular people in a region. It is not easily recognized and transferred into the target text. Two languages, with different cultures, have a unique idiom to express a certain idea. There are some strategies in translating idiom moreover intercultural competence is an important matter in translating text especially translating idiom. Intercultural competence is as an ability to understand two different cultures of two languages involved in a process of translation.

Getting the best equivalence of idiom is not easily done, but by doing some practices of translation will help the students to sharpen the intercultural competence. Idiom of source language does not always have the similar meaning with the idiom of target text. Each idiom has a unique characteristic since it comes from a particular culture for a certain times. At last, some strategies which were applied in translating idiom with the intercultural competence will make the translation work will be easily read and understood by the target readers, especially by presenting the popular idioms to preserve the culture of Indonesia.

References

Bassnett-McGuire, S. 1980. *Translation studies*. London: Methuen.
Barret, Martyn and friends. 2013. *Developing Intercultural Competence through Education*. Europe: Council of Europe
Bell, R.T. 1991. *Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice*. London: Longman Group.
Fernando, C. 1996. *Idioms and idiomaticity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Makkai, A. 1972. *Idiom Structure in English*. The Hague: Mouton & Co. N.V.
Newmark, Peter. 1981. *Approaches to Translation*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
-------------------. 1988. *A Textbook of Translation*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.
Nida, Eugene A. and C.R. Taber. 1982. *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E.J. Brill.
Oxford dictionary of idioms 2000. Oxford: Oxford University Press
---------------. 2001. *Context in Translating.*USA: John Benyamin Publishing Company.
Unesco.2013. *Intercultural Competences*. France : Unesco
Yarosh, Maria and Larry Muies. 2011. *Developing Translator's Intercultural Competence: A cognitive Approach*. Redit, Numero, page 38-56. Bilbao : University of Deusto
http://staff.4j.lane.edu/~holte/2003website/idiom_stories/idioms_short_stories.html

Teaching Recount through Reading to Learn Programme: A Classroom Action Research

Setyo Prasiyanto Cahyono and Nina Setyaningsih
Dian Nuswantoro University, Semarang Indonesia
setyo.cahyono@dsn.dinus.ac.id

Abstract

This research aims at investigating a model of teaching recount writing at a university level through *Reading to Learn program* with one teacher and twenty five students as the participants at Genre-based Writing class. In conducting this research, the researchers employed a classroom action research by doing observation and documentation during a semester. The result reveals that *Reading to Learn program* has a significant positive impact on students' recount writing, showing gains in the control of schematic structure as well as linguistic features of recount writing. Futhermore, *Reading to Learn program* does not only provide students with insights into cultural expectations of writing but also increase the students' ability in reading and understanding English text. In addition, it encourages the students to participate actively in the class.

Keywords: genre, reading to learn, recount

Introduction

Writing is the most neglected language skill in schools. Most university graduates are not equipped with writing skills (Alwasilah, 2001: 15). Compared to other skills—listening, speaking and reading—writing is perceived as the most difficult to acquire by students and to teach by teachers. Writing is considered as one way communication, in the sense of that, it is the commuication between writer and the potential readers. The difficulties the students often face in writing is mainly in the text flow, grammar, and logic; therefore, it makes the writing not coherent. In relation to this, the researchers conducted a resarch on Reading to Learn (R2L) in the process of teaching and learning writing.

R2L is a set of strategies that enable teachers to support all the students in their classes to read and write at the levels they need to succeed (Rose, 2012:1). The strategies vary according to the needs of the students, their year levels, the subject area, and the kinds of texts they are expected to read and write. But the purpose of this strategy is for the students to be reading and writing at the levels they need to succeed in their grade and subject areas. Through R2L, the researchers observed and implemented reading to learn program to increase the students' writing ability more structured.

Register and Genre

According to Halliday (2004), there are types of context: context of culture (genre) and context of situation (register).

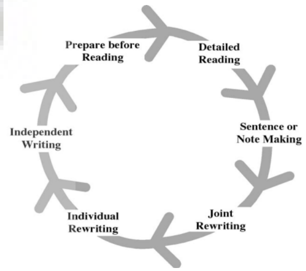
Context of culture or genre is also called as text types (Christie, 1990; Macken Horarik, 1998). Meanwhile, genre also can be defined as the ways that we get things done through language – the ways we exchange information, and knowledge and interact socially (Callaghan, Knapp, dan Knoble, 1993:193). In another word, *Genre is a stage-goal oriented social process* (Martin, Christie, Rothery, 1987:59; Christie, 1991:236; Martin and Rose, 2008).

Reading to Learn

Genre based writing gives students access to many sources to facilitate them to write. However, the skill of writing involves that of reading. The students should be able to not only read texts but also study the generic structure, grammatical or linguistic features, and the type of discourse.

In the learning process, reading is important. According to Bernstein (in Martin & Rose, 2005:4), "beyond the book is the textbook, which is the crucial pedagogic medium and social relation". Whereas writing may play a role in reinforcing knowledge which is acquired through reading, we consider its primary function is to assess that acquisition (in Martin & Rose, 2005:4). In addition, there were considerable groups of students for whom genre writing pedagogies did not provide enough support to read and use model texts in their own writing, for example those who come from oral cultural backgrounds. Therefore, teaching writing by employing R2L is expected to increase students' ability in writing.

R2L consists of three conceptual frameworks, they are spoken and written language model, reading model, and learning model (Rose, Gary & Cowey, 1999). In language model, language is learned through texts and these texts involve three organizational levels, namely discourse semantics (sequences of meanings in a text), lexicogrammar (words and wordings), and graphophonics (sounds and letter patterns) (Avecedo & Rose, 2007:2). R2L program consists of six learning cycles as seen in the following figure.



R2L Cycles

Source: Martin & Rose (2005:10)

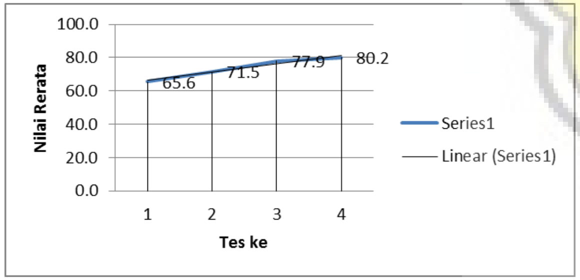
Research Method

In conducting this research, the researchers employed a classroom action research in Genre Based Writing class by implementing R2L. The subject of this research were 24 sophomores of Faculty of Humanities, Dian Nuswantoro university taking Genre Based writing subject. It was conducted on March 2013 until October 2013. The implementation of this research was based on R2L cycle covering 6 cycles such as preparation before reading, detailed reading, preparation for writing, joint rewriting, individual rewriting, and independent writing.

Findings and Discussion

The entry point for teaching reading and writing is through the phases in which a discourse unfolds. These phases are used to scaffold learners into recognising patterns of field and tenor unfolding through a genre, and to produce such patterns in their own writing. The following figure below is the result of the students' test score.

Figure 1. The Result of the Students' Test Score



The figure above shows the mean score of the 24 students who took writing test. The students were asked to write a recount text and they could choose their own topic. Test 1 was the pre test the students took before getting the knowledge about R2L and its implementation. The average of the score of this pre test is 65.58. The second test was joint rewriting. In this cycle,

the students were asked to work in pairs and the result of this test increased with 71.50. Afterward, the third test was individual rewriting. In this stage, the students rewrote the text with the similar topic in the second phase (joint rewriting) individually. The result shows that the score rose significantly to 77.87. The fourth test (post test) was done to obtain the final score. Here the students were given an assigment freely, meaning that they could chose the topic they want or based on their experience since they wrote a recout text. After their assignments were scored, it reveals a very significant development. The students' average mean score of their post test was 80.20.

The program was implemented after the students did the pre test through the six cycles of R2L. They are:

1. Preperation Before Reading

   In this cycle, the lecturer gave a recount text entitled "Jamie's Weekend" and asked the students to understand the content of the text by highligting the text they discussed, explaining the topic of the text they read by giving some examples based on the text, and asking the students to underline the difficulty vocabularies.

2. Detailed Reading

   The lecturer helped the students to analyze the text they read in order that they understood the text in detail. This cycle helped students to describe the text and create a text by using the pattern they had learned.

3. Preparation for Writing

   The lecturer asked the students to write the schematic structure, linguistic features and vocabularies by using their own words in the whiteboard as a pattern to create a new text with different character or setting, and description lexis.

4. Joint Rewriting

   Before students created their own texts individually, they could start rewriting the text they had read in group by making sentences (*Sentence Making activities*) from the note they had written on the whiteboard. This step could enhance students' understanding of the text and writing texts by using vocabularies and help them with spelling.

5. Individual Rewriting

   Students apply or use the note as a pattern to rewrite the text they have read individually.

6. Independent Writing

   The post test occurred in this cycle in which the students are assigned to create their own texts. The lecturer then give score to students final assignment result.

Conclusion

After conducting this research, it can be concluded that R2L has a significant positive impact on students' recount writing, showing gains in the control of schematic structure as well as linguistic features of recount writing. Futhermore, R2L does not only provide students with insights into cultural expectations of writing but also increase the students' ability in reading and understanding English text. In addition, it encourages the students to participate actively in the class

References

Acevedo, C., & Rose, D. (2007). *Reading and Writing To Learn.* Pen 157. Marrickville: PETA.

Alwasilah, A. Chaedar. 2001. *Language, culture, and education: a portrait of contemporary Indonesia.* Bandung: Andira.

Christie, F., and Unsworth, L. (2000). *Developing socially Resposible Language Research.* In Unsworth, L. (Ed). (2000). *Researching Language in School and community.* London: Casell.

Emilia, E. (2008). *Linguistik Sistemik Fungsional dan Program Reading to Learn dalam Mengajar Membaca dan Menulis.* Proceeding of Conference on Applied Linguistics 1 (CONAPLIN 1). Balai Bahasa Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.

-----. (2011). *Pendekatan Genre – Based Dalam Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris: Petunjuk untuk Guru.* Bandung: Risqi Press.

Gerot, L and Wignell, P. (1992). *Making Sense of Functional Grammar.* Australia: Gerd Stabler.

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D.(2003). *Working with Discourse.* New York: Brown and Company.

----. (2005). *Designing Literacy Pedagogy: Scaffolding Asymmetries.* In J. Webster., C Matthiessen & R. Hasan (eds). (2005). *Continuing Discourse on Language.* London: Continuum.

-----. (2012). *Learning to Write, Reading to Learn.* MPG United Kingdom: Books Group.

Halliday, M.A.K. and C.M.I.M. Matthiessen. (1999). *Construing Experience Through Meaning: A Language-based Approach to Cognition.* London: Continuum.

Hammond, J. et.al. (1992). *English for Social Purpose: a Handbok for Teachers of Adult Literacy.* Macquarie University: Australian print Group.

Rose, D. (2005). *Learning to Read, Reading to Learn.*Submission to the National Inquiry into the Teaching of Literacy Department of Education, Science and Training.

Teaching Children English through Bilingual Picturebooks:

A Popular Culture and Visual Language Case Study[1]

Ekawati Marhaenny Dukut (English Department)
Maya Putri Utami, Adi Nugroho (Visual Communication Design Department)
Novita Ika Putri, and Probo Y. Nugrahedi (Food Technology Department)
Soegijapranata Catholic University
ekawati@unika.ac.id; angeliamaya@unika.ac.id; adi.nugroho@unika.ac.id; novitaika@unika.ac.id; probo@unika.ac.id

Abstract

Food is popular culture. What someone chooses to eat may be a reflection to the kinds of food popularized through e.g. advertisements on television (TV). It is believed that most children are TV addicts, so the kinds of food they like to eat may be influenced by what is on TV. Because of this, there is a research finding that 50% of children all over the world do not enjoy eating vegetables, although nutrient wise, vegetables are vital source of fiber nutrients for the body. A questionnaire distributed to children aged 5-8 years old at Don Bosco Kindergarten and Elementary School showed that a group of children is at a stage where eating vegetables is something they dislike. At the same time, however, it is also in this age group that learning the English language is best delivered. Based on this fact, some bilingual (Indonesian and English) picturebooks are created to attract school-age children into consuming vegetables. Along with colorful and attractive vegetable cartoon characters, the simple Indonesian vocabularies with English translations written in the picturebook is believed to not only help children like to eat vegetables, but more importantly it is also an interesting media to teach Indonesian children how to read and eventually speak English well. The sharing of knowledge in producing the picturebook, which is full of visual language, hopefully can inspire others that there is more to just having a profession as English language teachers.

Keywords: popular culture, vegetables, children, bilingual picturebooks, visual language

Popular Culture of Food and Picturebooks

Popular culture is a culture, which is currently being enjoyed by a group of people at a certain period of time. The kind of culture enjoyed may be a certain art form, lifestyle pattern, or any other expressively learned human product. According to Danesi (2008, p. 2) it is a system that includes beliefs, rituals, performances, art forms, lifestyle patterns, symbols, language, clothing, music, dance, and any other mode of human expressive, intellectual, and communicative behavior that is associated with a community during a particular period of time.

Most of the time, a product quickly becomes popular with the help of various media such as those from a radio, newspaper, television and internet. A picture story book or picturebook is a form of popular culture. What is being written in the book may be about a particular phenomenon, which is relevant only to a particular culture and period of time. Similarly, the kind of food enjoyed by a particular society at a certain time is also a sample of popular culture. The food may become popular because it is being broadcasted by television and henceforth may influence the audience seeing it to demand the availability of a massive production of the food in neighboring supermarkets.

School children studying in kindergarten or at primary schools are often the ones directly influenced by food shown on television. Unfortunately, what is shown on television advertisements may not all be healthy. There seems to be a lot of junk food and not enough on various kinds of vegetables that contain the fiber a body needs. Consequently, these school children would often prefer consuming noodles and fried chicken or meat burgers that are seen on television rather than eating vegetables for their regular meal.

Recently, there have been a number of cooking or culinary adventure programs on television. Indonesian television programs such as Trans TV increasingly have viewers who rate Farah Quinn's *Ala Chef*, which is also aired at Asian Food Channel TV station, and also RCTI's *Master Chef* cooking competition or Bondan Winarno's *Wisata Kuliner* also at Trans TV; as programs worthy of watching. If they are not worthy, the programs would not have deserved a

[1] This article is written for 4th Celt International Seminar: English in the Professional World, 12-13 March 2014, held by the English Department, Faculty of Letters, at the Theatre Room, Thomas Aquinas Building, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang, Indonesia. It is also written for the actualization of the *Ipteks bagi Masyarakat* funding received from the Ministry of Higher Education in Indonesia.

primetime schedule (Irawadi, 2012). Due to the popularity of the shows, Farah Quinn, Bondan Winarno and chefs who are the judges as well as some participants from the *Master Chef* TV program are now enjoying as much popularity as any box office film stars. It is through their programs that vegetable menus are served on the dining table with attractive colors, which can entice viewers to taste it and try out the same way of cooking and serving. However, impact of these programs seems to be much less significant than the food advertised during TV programs intended for children.

According to Bararah (2010), 50 percent of young children do not enjoy eating vegetables. A questionnaire given out to a selection of parents of 5-8 year olds studying at Don Bosco Pangudi Luhur Kindergarten and second grade of elementary school shows that 80 percent of their children dislike vegetables. When interviewed, however, 13.33 percent of the elementary school and 46.66 percent of the kindergarten kids themselves do not like vegetables. Inspecting in more detail about the parents of these children, it is interesting to note that 30 percent of the parents do not like vegetables, either. Somehow, for them, eating vegetables has not become a healthy lifestyle.

The ineffectiveness of the TV cooking and culinary programs means that another type of popular culture with higher impact on children is needed as a way of changing the children's dislike into liking vegetables. Based on the understanding that picturebooks can be a media to compliment the TV cooking and culinary adventure programs, the researchers decided to create a number of 'I Love Vegetables' book series. Discussions on the importance of understanding and the benefits of certain vegetables as well as picturebooks as effective visual language media for children are elaborated in this paper.

Importance of Consuming Sufficient Vegetable Nutrients for School-aged Children

Children within the ages of 6-12 years old are claimed as school-age children. According to Hidayati (p. 2) school children need to consume enough nutrients and vitamins through a well balanced meal, which include vegetables. Sufficient and balanced nutrients may make children reach the kind of human resource quality expected by society. However, a previous study reported that preschool-aged children consumed only 25% of the recommended vegetable servings/day (Dennison, Rockwell, & Baker, 1998).

If the children's habit of not wanting to consume vegetables goes on to adulthood, a decrease in body endurance and increase in children's vulnerability towards deceases (Hidayati, p. 7) will occur. Especially for school-age girls, when they reach adulthood, there may be an increase in mother and baby deaths (Hidayati, p. 3).

Dennison, Rockwell and Baker believe that children of "2 years old and over should eat more fruits, vegetables, and grain products" (1998, p. 372), with a daily eating pattern of "2 to 4 servings/day of fruits and 3 to 5 servings/day of vegetables", which is dependent on someone's total calorie intake. One way of getting them to consume regularly is to have children drink fruit or/and vegetable juice. Children love to drink juice because it is sweet and easy to swallow. Dennison, Rockwell and Baker (1998, p. 372) support this way because especially for vegetables, a half cup of cooked or raw vegetables or one cup of leafy raw vegetables is equal to one serving of vegetables. Consumption of fruits, however, contains very little dietary fiber in comparison to vegetables. With the necessity of consuming 3 to 5 servings of vegetables each day, how then can we make children like them?

In answer to the above question, Dennison, Rockwell and Baker (1998, p. 377) suggest that parents and day care providers should offer a variety of vegetables each day for the children's meal ever since preschool. In addition to that, parents and day care providers have to be the children's good role models for vegetable consumption, because they are the gatekeepers of the availability of foods. Therefore, serving a variety of vegetables several times a day for snacks, lunch and dinner becomes the best solution. It is consequently advantageous to have parents and day care providers, who already have the habit of eating lots of vegetables during their own childhood.

Having adults liking vegetables and knowing how to attractively serve a variety of vegetables seems to be the key in increasing school-aged children's nutrition. Resnicow et.al., supports this idea of having "key environmental factors, such as parental and family dietary habits" to ensure the availability of vegetables "in the home" and "at school" (1997, p. 275). Not only will it benefit those in the U.S. like discussed by Dennison, Rockwell and Baker, but also to Indonesian children such as discussed by Hayati above.

The promotion of liking to eat vegetables to school-aged children, thus, depends more or less on how the parents, day care providers or any adults nearing the children could benefit with the popularity of culinary adventure and cooking programs or competitions shown on TV or any kind of media that is easy to access. This is because, the parents has an influencing role in internalizing knowledge on how beneficial it is in consuming vegetables. In order to internalizing this knowledge to children, book reading is one of the effective options.

Advantage of Bilingual Picturebooks as Attractive Media for Children's Visual Language Learning

As elaborated in the previous paragraphs, the habit of liking vegetables to increase school-aged children's nourishment is crucial to the quality of the world's human resource.

Though the popular culture of culinary adventure and cooking programs or competitions are available these days on TV, the programs are viewed with restricted timing in comparison to those written out in book form. This is because with it being written in a book, readers can have the enjoyment of re-reading what was interesting for them at numerous times.

Since school-aged children are the goal of the vegetable consumption program, the kind of book that can be easily understood is picturebooks. Citing Owen and Nowel, Faizah writes about the advantage of the following characteristics of or "picture storybooks" or picturebooks:

1. They are brief and straightforward,
2. They contain a limited number of concepts,
3. They contain concepts that children can comprehend,
4. They are written in a style that is direct and simple,
5. They include illustrations that complement the text (2009, p. 252)

From the characteristics above, it is understood that a picturebook is a book that contains a story with simple language, where most of the time the style is a day-to-day conversation with pictures or visual languages that can complement a story. If there are no pictures, then the book may well be filled with a very complex story line and difficult words that children may not understand. For example, the following sentence in explaining how an animal cartoon character feels when his best friend opened up his most hidden secret to other friends, which consequently made him run in shame because his friends mock him for it; will most likely contain so many difficult words for children to try and visualize the character's reaction of:

> The wind whipped a tear from Tono the cricket's eye, but he ran anyway, embarrassed and angry all at once.

However, if there is a picture in exchange for the above text, all of the words can be represented by a picture with only the following sentences: “Tono was embarrassed and angry. He ran with tears”

A picturebook would not be interesting if there is no characterization and morals in it, which would help the development of the human quality of school-aged children. This is because, according to Hsiu-Chih (2008, p. 51) a good picture story book should at least have two functions: 1. Give an overall comprehension of the story, and 2. Give stimulation to the readers’ imagination. With those two functions reached, school-aged children could obtain the satisfaction they need from a story.

Reading a picturebook is advantageous because the pictures coupled with simple words can give the children benefits that they may not have noticed. Faizah (2009, p. 253) points out that visual illustrations can increase children’s memory by 14 to 38 percent. The words as a visual language can also increase by around 200 percent in vocabulary. In explaining a story line, there is about 40 percent decrease in time when using visual language. Thus, by creating bilingual picturebooks in Indonesian and English language, not only can the pictures help children understand the story well – it also trains the children to memorize and learn English vocabulary quickly in an enjoyable way. There is a saying that ‘a picture is worth a thousand words’. Not only are pictures effective in expressing words that are difficult to express, but pictures with some words – or visual language are effective media in increasing school-aged children’s intelligence, like the case of quickly learning and memorizing English vocabularies as translations of the Indonesian text.

School-aged children, according to Faizah (2009, p. 254) usually love picturebooks because of a number of reasons. Citing Hurlock, she explains that first, through a picturebook there is an opportunity for children to learn better about their personal and society’s problems. Second, picturebooks can also attract children’s imagination and the curiosity for supernatural things. Third, it is a good let out to children’s everyday problems. Fourth, it is a media for easy reading, since children who are not proficient in reading yet can understand the story by seeing the pictures. Fifth, picturebooks are usually not expensive and some of the characters are found in television, too. Sixth, it also encourages the habit of reading that may not be found in any other reading books. Seventh, it gives hope for a continuation especially for those which are published in serial form. Eighth, the character may do or say something that children are usually afraid about, thus it can give satisfaction to the children upon seeing the realization in picturebooks. Ninth, the characters in picturebooks are often strong, courageous, and handsome or pretty looking that the children can easily see them as their hero/ heroin. Tenth, the pictures are usually colorful and easy to understand. Overall, these ten reasons support the idea that picturebooks are the right media for school-aged children to learn about something.

How then should bilingual picturebooks be created to influence school-aged children to love eating vegetables? The following discussion will explain.

How to create Picturebooks on Vegetables

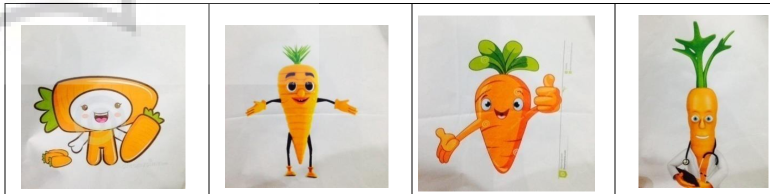
Children are visual, much more than verbal, in capturing information from their environment (McNeal & Ji, 2003). Henceforth, creating drawing or picture for children’s book needs to be visually appealing. The main aspect of visual appeal for children is a juxtaposed and entangled relationship between words and images like suggested by Wolfenbager and Sipe

(2007). Thus we believe, in creating the pictures there should be an emphasis in using a certain character, which represent the image of the vegetables with the context of current children's lifestyle. To learn more about school-aged children's preferences on how a picturebook could fascinate them, a small research was conducted utilizing samples of existing children's book available on the market today. Insights gathered from this research were used as a basic inquiry on how to draw the character that will be favored by our target audiences in our picturebook. The main points of the research were about the book type, illustration, drawing style and typography preference, in addition to the books' practically. In the research, several of the children's insights while reading books were also noted. The research was conducted using four different books: (1). A 12 page picturebook with sponge media entitled *Sayang Binatang, Anjingku* (Loving Animals, My Dog), (2). A fancy paper and thick 308 page book, entitled *Dongeng Mini: Cerita Binatang* (Mini Tales: Animal Stories), (3). A fancy paper and 24 page book, entitled *Seri Mengenal Profesi: "Guru"* (Knowing Professions Series: "Teacher"), and (4). A 32 page bilingual picturebook with a popular cartoon character entitled *Step Into Reading 2: Barbie, I can be A Baby Doctor*. The following table shows the details of the books' characteristics:

	Picture of the book/Year published	Dimension	Color	Material	Pages	Illustra-tion	Typography
1	 Published in 2012	14 cm x 14 cm	Full Color	Sponge book	12 pages	3D Cartoon	Sans Serif 36 pt
2	 Published in October 2013	13 cm x 17 cm	Full Color	Fancy paper with soft cover and adhesive binding	308 pages	3D Cartoon	Combination of Serif 14 pt and Sans Serif 18 pt
3	 Published in December 2010	20 cm x 19 cm	Full Color	Fancy paper with saddle stitch binding	24 pages	2D Cartoon	Sans Serif 24 pt
4	 Year published November 2013	25 cm x 23 cm	Full Color	Fancy paper with saddle stitch binding	32 pages	2D Cartoon semi-realist	Serif 24 pt

Table 1: Characteristics of picturebooks used for research

This research was tested to roughly six children aged from 3-9, with a middle to high class group of economy in Semarang, using a purposive sampling depicting our target audiences for the picturebook. The first thing we asked them to do was to read and interact with the sample books. Then the participants reading activities were recorded using a video camera recorder. Later the children were asked which book they would prefer, how they fancy each picture of every book, the practicality of every book, and what type of typeface and how big the size of the typeface they consider were easy to read. Afterwards, the participants were asked to compare and choose the one book they favor in comparison to the other four. In the end, we interrogate their preferences on the visual style of a character. We put out four different types of illustration of a carrot character (see figure 1); subsequently we asked them to choose one they favor the most. The result of this research can be seen in the table 2.



A	B	C	D

Figure 1: Four different types of carrot character used in the research.

No	Participant Name	Age	Sex	Book Preference	Illustration Preference	Typography Preference	Book Practicality	Vegetable Character Preference	Favorit Vegetable Preference	Insight(s)
1	Abam	3,7	M	Book 1	Book 4	Book 1	Book 1	C	None	Atracted to popular character easily, e.g: Planes from Disney.
2	Jojo	5	M	Book 1	Book 1	Book 1	Book 1	B	N/A	
3	Mina	3,9	F	Book 1	Book 4	Book 1	Book 1	A	N/A	Able to identify animals, but not vegetables. Attracted to popular character easily, e.g: Barbie.
4	Reno	6	M	Book 1	Book 1	Book 3	Book 1	A	Spinach	Does not like small typeface. Does not like carrot, thinks that cucumber is not healthy.
5	Sonny	9	M	Book 3	Book 3	Book 2	Book 1	C	Broccoli, Carrot	Compared to other participants, subject 5 are able to read well due to his education (*SD kelas 3*, elementary school 3rd grade).
6	Fefe	7	F	Book 4	Book 4	Book 3	Book 1	B	Cucumber, Carrot, Broccoli	Attracted to popular character easily, e.g: Barbie, able to identify vegetables easily.

Table 2: Result of initial research on book preference

Based on the result that two out of six students each prefer to have a feminine character such as A and a masculine character such as in B, we decided to do two types of visual approach for the character being used in the picturebook. The first one is to draw a character of a person-like figure wearing a vegetable costume. Second, we use a personification and provide an anthropomorphic feature to a vegetable. Using a predetermined storyline, the character is incorporated into the picturebook to help convey the message as discussed earlier. The following are samples of the vegetable characters for A: Rocco the Rocking-Roll Broccoli and B: Tommy the Tomato-Actor.

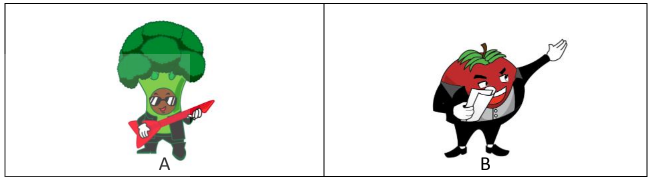


Figure 2: A is a person-like figure wearing a broccoli costume;
B is a tomato character with an anthropomorphic feature.

The dimension of the book is pronounced to be in the field of 12,5 cm x 12,5 cm, considering several things like the insights gathered above as well as practicality and printing issues. To make it more appealing, the book is designed in a half page, bright flat color, filled with images. Whereas, the other page is filled with texts using two types of Sans Serif typefaces (see Figure 3). Given that this is an ongoing project, the final design of the book itself is still being improved.

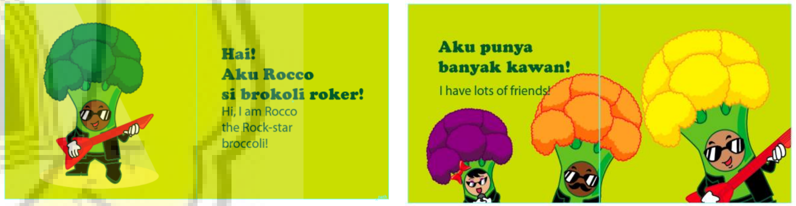


Figure 2: Sample pages of the on-going picturebook project of Rocco the Broccoli Rock-star

ENGLISH-INDONESIAN VEGETABLE PICTUREBOOKS PLUS

Creating picturebooks as a popular media for school-aged children turns out not to be as simple as it seems. In order to reach a popularity of its targeted market segments, a small research that deals with the creation of the characters, typeface and size of the book had to be done. Picturebooks is not only a media to entertain the children but more importantly it is a way in giving a number of 'plus' knowledge to them.

The first 'plus' is, the picturebook supports the intention of making children love vegetables. This is due to the finding that most children do not like vegetables because most TV channels would show more on junk food advertisements, which are packaged attractively for children to enjoy; rather than on TV cooking shows that would show how to cook healthy vegetables for children's nourishment. This is a shame since vegetables are a high source of fiber and nutrients that can increase the quality of the human resource. Therefore, with a picturebook on vegetable characters, it is hoped that children would be attracted to consume more vegetables.

The second 'plus' is it becomes an effective visual language media for school-aged children to read the Indonesian language fluently, and at the same time learn to read the English language translation in a fun, yet professional manner. Since the picturebook is bilingual, the third 'plus' is not only for Indonesian children to quickly learn English vocabularies but it can also benefit foreign children who wants to learn the Indonesian vocabularies creatively.

Last but not least, to English language teachers, it can be a source of a fourth 'plus', i.e. providing an additional income. Not only can teachers get accredited for being good English language teachers, but they will also be credited as creative visual language story writers. In other words, there is more to just teaching the English language if an English teacher would care to make the 'plus' purpose of also teaching children to love vegetables through bilingual vegetable picture story books such as exemplified.

References

Bararah, V. F. (2010, Januari 20). *Kenapa Anak Kecil Tak Suka Sayuran?* Retrieved Mei 26, 2013, from Detik Health: http://health.detik.com/read/2010/01/20/163054/1282637/764/kenapa-anak-kecil-tak-suka-sayuran

Danesi, M. (2008). *Popular Culture: Introductory Perspectives.* USA: Rowman & Littlefield Publisher, Inc.

Dennison, B. A., Rockwell, H. L., & Baker, S. L. (1998). Fruit and Vegetable Intake in Young Children. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition , 17* (4), 372-378.

Faizah, U. (2009). Keefektifan Cerita Bergambar untuk Pendidikan Nilai dan Ketrampilan Berbahasa dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Indonesia. *Cakrawala Pendidikan , XXVIII* (3), 249-256.

Hidayati, R. N. (n.d.). *Hubungan Asupan Makanan Anak dan Status Ekonomi Keluarga dengan Status Gizi Anak Usia Sekolah dii Kelurahan Tugu Kecamatan Cimanggis Kota Depok.* Retrieved Februari 15, 2014, from ejournal.stikes-ppni.ac.id/article/9/1/ article.pdf

Hsiu-Chih, S. (2008). *The Value of English Picture Story Books.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Irawadi, H. (2012, Oktober 27). *Nonton Acara Masak di TV ONE jam 7.10-7.30 Setiap Sabtu.* Retrieved Mei 26, 2013, from Kompasiana: http://wisata.kompasiana.com/kuliner/2012/10/27/nonton-acara-masak-di-tvone-jam-710-730-setiap-sabtu-498764.html

Kurniasih. (2010). *Sehat dan Bugar Berkat Gizi Seimbang.* Jakarta: PT Gramedia.

Resnicow, K., Davis-Hearn, M., Smith, M., Baranowski, T., Lin, L. S., Baranowski, J., et al. (1997). Social-Cognitive Predictors of Fruit and Vegetable Intake in Children. *Health Psychology , 16* (3), 272-276.

Soekirman. (2006). *Hidup Sehat Gizi Seimbang dalam Siklus Kehidupan Manusia.* Jakarta: PT Gramedia Pustaka.

The Impact of Learning Style on Language Learning Strategies of L2 learners

Fauziah
Indonesia University of Education, Bandung
fziah05@yahoo.com

Abstract

Individual's learning style differences have been shown to have a strong effect on learners' use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS). Learners typically use learning strategy that reflects their basic learning style. Knowledge of strategies is important, because the greatest awareness of what learners are doing, then learning will be more effective. The purpose of this study was to find out the impact of learning style on LLS in EFL setting. This study applied a qualitative research in which the data were collected by questionnaires and interview. Two types of questionnaire were used: Learning Style and LLS. Interview was conducted to support the detail of data collection. By using the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) test, the result indicated that compensation & metacognitive strategies were dominantly used over other strategies. Compensation strategy interpreted right hemisphere characteristics, good at interpreting body language, guessing at the meaning, reliance on images in thinking and remembering.

Keywords: LLS, SILT, compensation & metacognitive strategies

Introduction

Learning styles are individual differences in learning. An individual's learning style "is the way he or she concentrates on, processes, internalizes, and remembers new and difficult academic information or skills" (Shaughnessy, M. F. 1998, p. 1 as cited in Csapo, N & Hayan, R, 2006). Individuals approach learning differently due to differences in their learning styles. A person's approach to learning is a relatively stable indicator of how they perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment.

Knowledge of strategies is important, because the greatest awareness you have of what you are doing, if you are conscious of the processes underlying the learning that you are involved in, then learning will be more effective (Nunan, 1999). Learning strategies are related to learning styles but are far more specific. Students typically use strategies that reflect their basic learning style. Utilizing learning style theory in the classroom is extremely beneficial at all educational levels for a variety of reasons. The purpose of this study was to find out the impact of learning style on language learning strategies of L2 learners.

Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Definition

There is no general consensus in the field of second language acquisition with respect to the appropriate way of defining language learning strategies (Ellis, 1994; Cohen, 1995; Bremner, 1999 see also Csapo, N & Hayan, R, 2006).

Learning effect of LLSs has been underlined by various researchers. Rigney (1978), for example, defines LLSs as the often-conscious steps and behaviours used by learners to enhance acquisition. Tarone (1981) too defines LLSs as attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language. Likewise, Rubin (1987) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) present learning strategies as important contributors to language learning.

More recent definitions reflect a greater emphasis on the effects of LLSs on the processes of language learning than on language learning as a product. Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as:

> Specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language.

> Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability.

She conceptualizes LLSs as multifaceted process-oriented tools that facilitate language learning and are of significance not just for autonomous learning but also for the achievement of communicative competence. Given its comprehensiveness and detailed presentation of LLSs (Tamada, 1997 see also Oxford, 1990), Oxford's definition is adopted in this study.

Taxonomy of LLSs

While early classifications of LLSs simply list strategies based on the performance of good learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1973), more recent taxonomies classify them either based on their direct/indirect contribution to language learning, or the level and type of information processed by language learners when they use such strategies (O'Malley et al., 1985a; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper and Russo, 1985b; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1990), for example, identify 26 strategies classified under three main groups of metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies.

Oxford (1990), on the other hand, in her classification of learning strategies, draws upon and expands previous models. Like Rubin (1987), she divides LLSs into two major groups of direct (including memory, cognitive, compensation) and indirect (metacognitive, affective, social) strategies. She defines direct strategies as those that are involved in conscious mental processes, while indirect strategies are not consciously applied but are essential to language learning. She also modifies O'Mally et al.'s (1985b) classification by adding two strategy categories, namely, memory and compensation, and by presenting social and affective strategies

as distinct. Each strategy category in Oxford's classification consists of several individual strategies.

According to Oxford, the six strategy categories are interrelated and interact with one another. Cognitive strategies enable learners to interact in the target language; metacognitive strategies help learners to control and regulate their learning; affective strategies help learners deal with their feelings and emotions; and social strategies promote learning through interaction with the speakers of the target language. Memory strategies help learners store and retrieve information; compensation strategies, on the other hand, are employed when learners need to keep communication going despite a gap in their linguistic knowledge. Given that compensation strategies are primarily geared to facilitating communication, they are not perceived as directly linked to learning as other strategies are.

Oxford's classification of learning strategies encompasses all aspects of strategy use and is the most comprehensive classification through factor analysis measures and has proved to be the most valid classification of language learning strategies. The strategy categories (i.e., cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social, memory and compensation) in Oxford's classification will, therefore, form the framework based on which the LLSs reported by participants in this study will be categorized and analyzed.

Learning Style

Learning is the complex process in our brain because neural tissue that makes learning possible is exceedingly complex. How the brain, mind and body act in terdependently to create learning style is not known, but the Dunn provide a few clues about five learning style domains;[2] emotional domain, psychological domain, social domain, physiological domain and environmental domain.

1. Emotional Domain

LeDoux, professor at the Centre for Neural Science at New York University, believes the four basic emotions (fear, anger, disgust, and joy) are located in different emotional systems. His work focused on fear, which is mediated by the amygdala (an almond-sized structure toward the brain centre which acts like a permanent type recorder, especially when significant event occur). “Fear of bad grades, reprimand, or punishment can motivate students to preserve, but fear tends to decrease student effectiveness rather that increases it.”[3] Further, students may get the job done, but fail to develop self-motivation in process.

2. Psychological Domain

Since the split brain research on epileptic patients, much has been written about the role of each hemisphere in learning. Even though language, analytic thought, logic and sequencing are primarily produced in the left hemisphere and creative thought, music, random or simultaneous order are characteristic of the right hemisphere, learning is coordinated dance of neural electro-chemical activity between the two.

3. Social Domain

The relationship of evolution to social preferences (working alone, peers, or an authority) is unclear, but evolution’s role suggested that social preferences may have a neurological base.

However, social interaction can change brain functioning. For instance serotonin (a neurotransmitter or chemical messenger) is a product of social environment. Serotonin levels change, dependent upon perceived leadership and perceived power. In the Dunn’s model, small groups provide safe opportunities for serotonin production and attainment of social status. Thus high serotonin production may result from frequent leadership opportunities, and this alone could enhance students’ positive attitude toward school.

4. Physiological Domain

Preference for mobility, therefore, may serve to stimulate in active brain cells so cognition can occur. Similarly, preferences for visual, auditory, tactual or kinaesthetic learning may be in response to levels of neuronal arousal that permit learners to concentrate on specific learning tasks. Further, fatigue and disinterest may result from attempts to learn in non-preferred ways due to conscious effort and sheer determination required to stimulate neuronal activity in those non-preferred modalities.

5. Environmental Domain

Although far more environmental element exist than those listed in the Dunn and Dunn model, sound versus quite, bright versus dim lighting warm versus cool temperatures, and formal versus informal furniture design, have clear linkage to the physical domain in terms of body comfort and preferred sensory modalities. Preference for sound or quite while learning is another element that often distinguishes between global and analytic learners. Global learners prefer sound while studying, which may keep creative right-brain calmly occupied so the left hemisphere can concentrate on linguistic learning without interruption. The analytic left-brain learner may prefer quite because sound stimulates the less active right brain and causes interruptions to the left –brain concentration

On of factor showing strong links with strategy use is learning style. Studies in this area point to the fact that an individual's learning style preferences influence the type of LLSs they use (Ehrman and Oxford, 1990; Rossi-Le, 1995; among others). Extroverts, for example, show a strong preference for social strategies, while introverts use metacognitive strategies more frequently (Ehrman and Oxford, 1990); learners who favour group study are shown to use social and interactive strategies, such as working with peers or requesting clarification (Rossi-Le, 1995).

Research Method

This study is descriptive and qualitative in nature since it focuses on giving questionnaires, interviewing, interpreting, and understanding the collected data to find the students's learning style and LLS. Qualitative method attempts to critically investigate event or phenomena (Alwasilah, 2006). Cresswell (1984) states qualitative study in nature is conducted inductively, meaning that the study begins from data collected from the field and analyzed. This research applied descriptive method since it attempts to describe characteristics and events that exist (Kamil, 1985). This method is applied since the goal of this research is to find language learningstrategies used by students and their hemispheric preference. The research was conducted in one ofEnglish Department of postgraduate study in Bandung. It was chosen because it is one of the appropriate places to observe the whole class meeting. It would be a good starting point to notice students in the third semester to improve their English performance. It is

also important for students of teachers education to know their students learning strategies to enhance SPS' students skills to be candidate of an expert teacher.

Finding and Discussion

This finding answer the first research question, the table shows that first respondent (R1) used indirect strategy dominantly, especially metacognitive strategy. Second respondent (R2) prefer to compensation strategy than other strategies. The third respondent (R3) shows metecognitive strategy as his/ her language learning strategy used when learning. The fourth respondent (R4) as the same as R2 respondent's language learning strategy. The fifth respondent (R5) in line with the first and the third respondent, metacognitive strategy used by them. The "V" symbol shows the strategy used by rerpondents. (See scoring system and table in the appendix)

The data on table 1.3 (see appendix) implies that 3.34 overall average result of learning language strategies. It means that R2 uses his learning strategies sometimes. His learning strategy highly focus on compensating for missing knowledge. This strategy makes learner guess to understand when he has not heard something well enough, or when he find unfamiliar English words. It was quite noisy when interview and he tried to guess well what I will say next. Predicting, or looking ahead, helps learner to anticipate what is to come (Nunan, 1999). This result in more effective learning, because the learners are adequately prepared for the new material. Fortunately he blesses much to practice English every single time because his native wife and his work environment.

Table 1.4 presents that there were 3.02 overall average of SILL. R5 said that I use my English confidently because I have rehearsed and planned for linguistic components necceserry to carry out an up coming language test. Because of hes high average in metacognitive strategy, she consciously express herself in using new vocabularies. Conciously thinking in new language also provides practice opportunities (Rebecca, 1990, p. 139). Functional planning is one of metacognitive strategies in language learning. She does self-monitoring, correcting one's speech for accuracy or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present.

Table 1.5 shows students' hemispheric preference. There were two students prefer to use their right brain during learning process. Three of them have no preference in using both of hemispheres and no one prefer to the left hemisphere only. (The symbol "V" shows respondents preference).

Conclusion

This study found that compensation strategies and metacognitive strategies dominantly used by students. There are two students use direct strategy (compensation strategy) and three of them use indirect strategy (metacognitive strategy). This study focuses on students learning strategies in learning target language. The finding of this study shows that two respondents usually use strategy to retain their language skill in one hand, increase skill to the target language on the other hand. Three respondents use language learning strategies sometimes.

There is no respondent prefer to the left hemisphere, two respondents prefer to the right hemisphere and three of them have no preference. In compensation strategies, learners learn to guess intelligently to understand unfamiliar English words and can guess what the other will say next. They make gesture during a conversation when they cannot think of a word and make up new words if they do not know the right one. This strategy interpreted right hemisphere characteristics, good at interpreting body language, guesting at the meaning, reliance on images in thinking and remembering. In second language learning there is significant right hemisphere participation and that this participation is particularly active during the early stages of learning

the second language . Metacognitive strategies indeed paying attention in general to language learning, seeking practice opportunity and finding out about language learning. Creative learners is characteristics of hemispheric preference. Hemispheric preference' students using information to help improve one's own and creating opportunities in naturalistic situation language learning.

References

Given, B. K. (1998).*Psychological and Neurobiological Support for Learning-Style Instruction: Why it work*, National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, volume 11, No 1.

Alkon, D, (1992).*Memories Voice: deciphering the mind-brain code*. New York: Harpen Collins.

Brown, H.Douglas. (1987). *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching* (2nd. Ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Brown, H.Douglas. (2001). *Teaching by Principles.*An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Carter, Ronald & Nunan, David. (2001). *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*.

Carter, Ronald and Nunan, David. (2001). *The Cambridge guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.* United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Cresswell, J.W. (1984).*Research Designing: Qualitative and Quantitative Approach*. London: SAGE Publications.

Csapo, N & Hayan, R, (2006). *The role of Learning Style in the Teaching Learning Processes.* Issues in Information Systems. Volume VII, No. 1.

Franenkel, J. R &Noorman, E. W. (2001).*How to Develop and Evaluate Research in Education*. New York: Hill Inc.

Giles, H., Bourhis, R.Y., & Taylor, D.M. (1977). *Toward a theory of language in ethnic group relations. In H. Giles (lid.).Language, ethnicity and inlergroup relations.* London: Academic Press.

MacIntyre, P. D., Dorn Yei, Z, Clement, R & Noels, K. (1998). *Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in a L2 Language: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affilation.* Modern Language Journal, 82, 545-62.

MacNeilage, Peter F, Rogers, Lesley J, and Vallortigara, Giorgio, (2009). *Evolutionary Origins of Your Right and Left Brain*, www.scientificamerican.com.

Maxwell, J. A. (1996). *Qualitative Research Design: An Interactive Approach*. New Delhi: SAGE Publication.

Nunan, David. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Oxford, Rebecca L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies*: *What Every Teacher Should Know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Saville-Troike, Muriel. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Aquisition.* United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Send-a-Problem: A Collaborative Learning Technique to Promote Problem Solving Skills

Hersulastuti
Widya Dharma University, Klaten
hersulastuti@gmail.com

Abstract

Learning problem solving skills is essential for college students. Problem solving skill is about creating solutions to authentic problems involving both analytical and creative skills. Evidencing problem solving skills may gauge students have good ability to critically think and solve authentic real world problems relevant to their future working environments. This paper is aimed at exploring some practices in English speaking class to find out how 'Send-A-Problem' can be beneficial to meet those needs. It is one of collaborative learning techniques that can sharpen the students' analysis leading to appropriate problem solving. This technique is performed by presenting problems to students that offer a challenge but are still solvable. It involves two activity stages: solving problems and evaluating solutions.

Keywords: collaborative learning, problem solving skill

Introduction

In preparing college students for life in this modern and rapid changing world, it is very crucial to develop their awareness of what the society needs. The purpose is for enabling them to compete with others and survive from any potential problems they face. Everyone experiences to have problems in life, but not all the people are good problem solvers. To be a good problem solver, someone must have problem solving skills. Problem solving is using existing knowledge and skills to address an unanswered question or troubling situation (Ormond, 2006: 111).

Problem solving skills have been important in many professions, therefore college students need to be familiarized with some problems which might be faced as they will enter the real workplaces where problems have no limits. As a consequence, having a good ability to find

implementable solutions are highly valued. Its importance cannot be underestimated to gain the success.

This paper explores ideas on how to develop problem solving skills through some practices for the college students by implementing "Send-A-Problem", one of collaborative learning technique. It is believed that by presenting problems to students which is challenging but still solvable will make students become more critical and creative. It is not delivered as a separated subject but can be integrated in learning. The ideas are generated by realities that college students sometimes are not succeed in reaching a satisfactory result in developing their problem solving skills. They often suffer from having anxiety, most of the time because they are afraid of being failed to solve problems.

The importance of Problem Solving Skills

There have been various reports that problem solving skills have great contributions in someone's success. It is one of the soft skills that are beneficially developed. Evidencing problem solving skills can gauge student's ability to critically think and solve authentic real world problems that are relevant to future working environments. To start with, students need to be faced with various problems to find best solutions. The problems may be taken from problems that they are familiar with, in academic situations, or even in their-day-to-day lives. Some of the problems that are typically faced by college students include: putting together an argument for an easy, debugging a computer program, negotiating time for tasks completion with the lecture, managing time for study and work, etc. Good problem skills empower students in their educational, professional, and personal lives.

The ability to solve problems in a range of learning contexts is essential for development of knowledge and understanding performance. It leads to further implications that requiring students to engage with complex and authentic problem solving encourages them to use content knowledge in such of innovative and creative ways and promotes deep understanding. The need to provide students with good problem solving skills is based on several aspects as followed: developing creative, innovative, and practical solutions; solving problems in teams and applying a range of strategies to problem solving. Similarly, Toohey (1999: 138) emphasizes that students need to be able to transfer the ability to solve problems in one context into new and different context and situations. Solving problems involves both analytical and creative skills. Fostering skills required for students take control of their learning journey. It demonstrates that there are many choices and range of solutions.

Deakin University has listed some characteristics of a good problem solver are: innovative, creative, objective, unbiased, open minded, courageous, risk taker, reflective, flexible, motivated, multi-skilled, etc. Seen from the list, it seems not to be easy for students to be good problem solvers as well. Therefore, students have to do their best efforts to develop their analytical and critical thinking skill to help them to evaluate the problem and to make decision. Unfortunately, not everyone has these both above skills in equal measure: for this reason, team working or working collaboratively is often a key component in problem solving.

Whatever issue the students are faced with, there are various models that can be considered. Williams and Carey (2003) propose six steps for solving the problems, consist of: Step 1: Identify the problem; Step 2: Seek information and set goal; Step 3: Brainstorm; Step 4: Choose a solution; Step 5: Describe the plan; Step 6: review and revise. Another model of problem solving is advocated by Shaqodoon Organization and it is abbreviated as **IDEAL** : (1) **I**dentify the problem; (2) **D**efine the problem; (3) **E**xamine the options; (4) **A**ct on plan; (5) **L**ook at the consequences and put the solution into practice. Whereas Marlene K. Rebori from

Community and Organizational Development Specialist promotes seven fundamental steps for problem solving, especially for group consisting of: (1) Define the problem; (2) Identify and Define the root cases; (3) generate alternative solutions; (4) Evaluate the alternatives; (5) Agree on the best solution; (6) Develop on action plan; (7) Implement and Evaluate the solution

The Nature of Collaborative Learning

Smith and MacGregor (1992) define collaborative learning as an umbrella term for a variety of educational approaches involving joint intellectual effort by students, or students and teacher together. Usually students are working in groups of two or more, mutually searching for understanding, solutions, or meaning, or creating a product. Collaborative learning represents a shift away from the typical teacher-centred or lecture-centred milieu in college classrooms.

In general sense, to collaborate means to work with another or others. In practice, collaborative learning has come to mean students working in pairs, or small groups to achieve shared learning goal (Barkley, Cross & Major, 2005: 4). Learning collaboratively demands responsibility, persistence and sensitivity, but the result can be a community of learners in which everyone is welcome to join, participate and grow. It goes to the roots of long-held assumptions about teaching and learning. Classroom roles change: both teachers and students take on more complex roles and responsibilities (Finkel & Monk, 1983; MacGregor, 1990). The classroom is no longer solo teacher and individual students- it becomes more an interdependent community with all the joys and tension and difficulties that attend all communities.

Matthews (1996: 101) argues that the philosophical underpinnings of collaborative learning: " Collaborative learning occurs when students and faculty work together to create knowledge…It is a pedagogy that has its centre the assumption that people make meaning together and that the process enriches and enlarges them" This assumption implies that knowledge is something people construct by talking together and reaching agreement (Bruffee, 1993: 3).

There have been many researches prove that collaborative learning increasingly being recognized as a means of encouraging deep learning and a key technique in problem and experienced based learning. It is a technique for improving learning outcomes (Cheng & Beaumont, 2004; Jonassen, Lee, Yang & Laffey, 2005).

Creating collaborative classroom can be a wonderfully rewarding opportunity because virtually all collaborative learning methods emphasize the important of promotive interaction and individual accountability. In collaborative classroom, students must not only learn to work together, but they must also be held responsible for their teammates ' learning as well as their own. In this case, Slavin (1996: 21) strongly recommends that successful groups must endorse individual accountability and team rewards. Students, like teachers, have new and different responsibilities from what they may be accustomed to in traditional education (MacGregor,1990: 25) Further he defines 7- shift of major changes for students involving new roles in learning as following:

Traditional Classroom Students shift from…	**Collaborative Classroom** to…
Listeners, observer, and note taker	Active problem solver, contributor, and discussant
Low or moderate expectations of preparation for class	High expectations of preparation for class
Private presence in the classroom with few or no risks	Public presence with many risks
Attendance dictated by personal choice	Attendance dictated by community expectation
Competition with peers	Collaborative work with peers
Responsibilities and self-definition associated with learning independently	Responsibilities and self- definition associated with learning interdependently
Seeing teachers and texts as the sole sources of authority and knowledge	Seeing peers, self, and the community as additional and important sources of authority and knowledge

Implementing 'Send-A-Problem' Technique in Speaking Classroom

As has been discussed earlier, teaching problem solving skills can be integrated in any learning, including in speaking subject. Send-A-Problem is one of the collaborative learning technique in which students try to solve a problem and solution to a nearby group who does the same; the final group evaluates the solutions (Barkley, et al, 2005: 171). This technique is particular useful at helping students practice together the thinking skills required for effective problem solving and for discriminating among multiple solutions.

Before conducting the practice, the lecturer needs to determine number of problems in order to have all the groups working simultaneously. Those can be adjusted to the topic or the competency acquired, i.e. giving solutions. The problems may also be elicited from the students. This is intended to create a more open atmosphere in class. Students are expected to identify some problems which they often face, not only relating with their academic matters or current issues, but also problems in their daily life. For example, most of students suffer from being nervous every time they have to deliver their presentation in English, or students sometimes have lack of confident when they have to negotiate for sponsorship, or even finding the best solution of the problem in managing time for study, etc. Whatever the problem is, it will encourage students to speak, brainstorm, communicate with other members, and finally take decision. The next step, the lecturer has to decide how to present the problem, and consider attaching each problem to the outside of a file folder or an envelope into which groups can then insert their solutions.   The students should be well informed about the purpose of conducting the technique and know the procedures well.

To perform this technique successfully, Barkley, et al (2005: 178) suggest the following procedures: (1) form group of two to four students, take time to describe the activity, give instructions, and answer questions; (2) distribute a different problem solutions, choose the best solution, and record and place their response in the folder or envelope; (3) call time, and instruct teams to pass to the next group: each group receives a new folder or envelope; (4) upon receiving new problems, students again brainstorm responses and record results until time is called and they again pass the problem to a new group; (5) repeat the process for as many times as seems useful and appropriate for the problem; (6) students in the final group review the responses to the problem, analyze, evaluate, and synthesize the information, adding any additional information they wish; (7) the activity concludes as teams report on the responses contained in the folder they evaluated. As groups report out, add any points that groups missed and reinforce correct processes and solutions.

Seen from its procedures, it involves two activities of solving problems and evaluating solutions. If teaching a large class, it is possible to assign several groups working on same problem. The important thing is that students are challenged to give best solution of the problem as they will soon enter the real workplaces where problems may be various, have no limits and need a typical handling. And since this is conducted in speaking class, it is beneficial to assess the students' speaking competence as well as their problem solving skills using certain rubric combining those two skills indicating how well the students accomplish the task.

Seen from the practice, Send-A-Problem is good and effective technique for developing several thoughtful solutions for more complex problems that do not have a single right answer.

But in some situations, as stated by Barkley,et al (2005: 180), it may also be effective for a single-answer problems that students just learned in a lecture or reading assignment. In this way, it can replace traditional drill-and-practice exercises by adding in higher-order-thinking skills during the solution-evaluation stage.

Having participated in Send-A-Problem, students get experiences in solving problems based on the context and situation, moreover it makes them skilled at analyzing and evaluating the process and also promotes analytical and creative thinking. It is also good to make students experienced working in teams, sharing opinions, discriminating various solutions, making decision and communicating the solutions to others. All these skills foster students' speaking competence. Hence, the lecturer may take the opportunity to conduct the ongoing assessment by noting out some aspects of the students' performances as the students engage in the process. Despite of the advantages, there are also some barriers that can be identified, such as longer consumption of time to perform, some problems in grouping, domination of the clever students, etc. Therefore, the lecture has to make a good preparation, give clear instructions to minimize students' confusion, and always encourage students to do best effort to gain the success.

Conclusion

Problem solving skills is crucial to be taught to college students. It is ongoing process, not a one-shot deal.   It can be enhanced by implementing Send-A-Problem, a collaborative learning technique which involves two main activities of solving the problems and evaluating the solutions. Its purpose is to help students more effectively handle complex problems which derived from their academic situations or their daily life. At their best, this technique stimulates both lecturer and students. In the most authentic ways, it demands analytical and creative thinking especially in solving the problems. To guarantee its success, lecturer must have good preparation so that it enables students to take the benefit of the practices optimally. Evidencing in problem solving will make students show their skills at transferring what they have learned to new problem situations.

References

Barkley, E.F., K. Patricia Cross, Claire Howell Major. (2005). *Collaborative Learning Techniques.* USA: Jossey Bass.

Bruffee, K.A. (1993) *Collaborative learning: Higher education, interdependence, and the authority of knowledge.* Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Cheng, C.S & Beaumont, C. (2004). Evaluating the effectiveness of ICT to support globally distributed PBL teams. *Proceedings of the 9th annual SIGCSE conference on Innovation and technology in computer science education (pp. 47-51).* Leeds, United Kingdom: ACM Press.

Deakin University. *What is Problem Solving?* www.deakin.edu.au. (retrieved on February 3, 2014 at 02.00 p.m)

Finkel,D.L. and G.S.Monk. (1983) " Teachers and Learning Groups: Dissolution of the Atlas Complex." In C. Bouton and R. Y Garth (Eds.) *Learning in Groups.* New Directions for Teaching and Learning , no 14 San Fransisco: Jossey Bass

Jonassen, D.H., Lee, C.B., Yang, C.C, & Laffey, J. (2005) The Collaboration Principle in Multimedia Learning . In R.E. Mayer(Ed), *The Cambridge Handbook of Multimedia Learning* (pp. 247-270). New York: Cambridge University Press.

MacGregor,J. (1990). "Collaborative Learning: Shared Inquiry as a Process of Reform." In M. Svinicki, (Ed.) *The Changing Face of College Teaching.* New Directions for Teaching and Learning, no 42, San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Matthews,R.S. (1996) . Collaborative learning: Creating knowledge with students. In R.J. Menges, M.Weimer, & Associates (Eds.), *Teaching on solid ground: Using scholarship to improve practice* (pp.101-124). San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ormond, J.E. (2006). *Essentials of Education Psychology*. Pearson Merril Prentice Hall Rebori, Marlene K. *Effective Problem Solving Techniques for Group.* www. mjwald32.pbworks.com (retrieved on February 5, 2014 at 05.00 p.m)

Shaqodoon Organization. *Problem solving and Analytical Skills: Work readiness skill training.* www. Shaqodoon.org.(retrieved on February 2, 2014 at 10.00 a.m)

Slavin, R.E. (1996). *Education for all*. Exton, PA: Sweets& Zeitlinger.

Toohey, S. (1999). *Designing Courses for Higher Education.* Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press

Williams, D.A and M. Carey. (2003). *Solving The Problems of A chronic Illness: 6- Step Problem Solving.* www. med.umich.edu.(retrieved on February 3, 2014 at 11 a.m)

The Past is Foreign Country

Krisprantono
Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang
Krisprantono@unika,ac.id

Abstract

Different approaches to the past through theological, historical and archaeological subject possibly will help us to focus into one direction. Historical buildings and archaeological sites can be used to establish the history of the place in people minds. The development of mass media, which raised hope of greater contact and understanding between cultures, has turned into an instrument of imposing the cultures of one part of the world upon the others. If the future Global Village is to be governed, in order that this may be happen, the recognition of preservation of the cultural identity of every society are particularly important because this recognition determines the capabilities the role of each within a worldwide team. This why the cultural heritage of every society, as document of cultural identity become increasingly important

Keywords: the past, cultural heritage and identity

Introduction

The past is foreign country is the cynical term by Lowenthal (1985) to express his sadness of the condition of the rapid growth developing countries who left behind their own past. Most of the developing countries destroyed their cultural heritage and replaced them by new buildings in the name of development. They lost most of their own valuable past and face modern world. Their past is strange, their past is somewhere else, and their past is foreign country. In order to understand cultural heritage people have to appreciate their own past.

In a general sense, people who are dealing with cultural heritage in many ways, it is necessary to think about the past. Studying the value of the past is particularly essential for those who are concerned about cultural heritage; they need to justify the value. Such question as: **why**

should we care about our cultural heritage? needs to be comprehensively answered. Understanding cultural heritage means **to communicate with humanities past.** Shankland gives clear perspective as: To any generation, an identifiable past offers a line of communication with others between the living, the dead and those still to the born (Shankland 1975:26).

Anthropologists, archaeologists, historians and museum keepers who searching and preserve the remains of the past in a way of scientific structure make it easier for people to open their mind to appreciate the past. They always try to represent the essence of old lasting experience of humankind experience. People evaluate the past from different points of view. Therefore, this expectation is valid when its evaluation is grounded on what each society believes is the values of its own past.

The Meaning of the Past

In various global approaches, different aspects of the past can be seen and through each of them a particular understanding of cultural heritage is achievable. Searching into the meaning of the past, it is important to define **what is not the past.** We appreciate the past in conjunction with the present and the future. Paying attention to the concept of the past, present and future makes it clear that ignoring one of these tenses. The present tense is either in association with the past or in continuation with the future. In examination to the past, we come to the conclusion that existing reality of the present is nothing without experiencing the past, and the future cannot be understood without fully appreciating the experiences of the past.

The concept of the future is based upon past experience of humankind. The realization of any simple concept of the future is not possible without understanding of the past. Therefore it seems that although in assessment of the human lifetime, our attention is drawn towards the

present and future, the past has a substantial role to play. In other word we are nothing without the past. According to Lowenthal: "*The past is integral to our sense of identity: the sureness of I was is a necessary component of sureness I am*" (Lowenthal 1985, 10). The past is still the most common means of communication with history. Every historian interpret the past from his own point of view, approaching entire past is something impossible. The past is more than history, it has occurred in history but no history is able to represent the past. The most important point in approaching the past is the quality of communication with it. Establishment of communication is possible through three methods; Hojat (1995) suggests three different methods referring to approaching the past.

- The first methods is simply regarding very near periods of times in the past which we call as present or current time. This method is usually used by anthropologists who start their study on contemporary phenomena and try to find it in roots in history.
- The second method is referring to the objectives remains of the past, and to finding the secrets of the language and understanding the inhabitants of the past. This is the method of archaeologists who examine historical remains to find historical facts.
- The third method is referring to what has been recorded about the past and is regarded as history, which is common method of addressing to the past.

All our plans and decisions for the future are affected by many by many factors that shaped our existing present being. Lucretuis, the ancient Italian historian (550BC) stated that *"It is from the ignorance of human kind to the past that his ignorance to the future can be concluded*" (Radmanes 1991:146) this statement come to the concept of **human who lacks past is human without memory** this means that a letter understanding of the future if learning from the past is in mind. The conclusion is that a human being without memory is nothing but a biological creature

The Relationship of the Past, Present and Future

Nostalgia is today the universal word for looking back the past memory. One of the main long lasting approaches to past is so called **nostalgia**. Literally means of nostalgia is homesickness. This term is not simply a longing for the past but a response to conditions in the present (Hewison 1987, 45). Nostalgia in a more melancholy term is look back to imagine earlier aesthetics and states of mind. The Conservation Movement led by United Kingdom very much accepted nostalgia and stated that Let us live again in the past surround ourselves with treasures of the past ages (Lowenthal 1985, 9)

In general terms, we are dealing with an aspect of history which is concerned with the evidence and physical work of the past. Every place has a history, culture and architectural heritage. Architecture is a product of culture and history, and so is an important means for approving the past. According to Rapoport: "*Human geography has always been linked with history, and even prehistory, and in the past history has also played an important role in architectural studies"* (Rapoport. 1969, 11).

Vernacular architecture as an expression of the culture, way of life and aesthetic values of the local people, records the visual shape of their history over time. We can see the evidence of this from examining buildings and the way they are used both today and in the past. There may be a great lesson in vernacular building for our own day in the value of constraints to establish generalized, "loose" frameworks, where the interplay of the constant and changeable aspects of man can find expression (Rapoport 1969, 135). Studying vernacular architecture may be relevant

to other aspects of developing countries, and may throw light on the whole problem of understanding the relation of the built form to the cultures concerned, in turn making clear the value of cross cultural analysis in relation to housing and the built environment in general (Rapoport 1969,129). The value of this kind of study is that it provides great ranges of variables in different cultures, as well as greater extremes, and hence a greater sense of the range of alternatives that is possible (Rapoport 1969, 12).

Architects in the modern era, for all their impressive knowledge and technological know - how often build comparably less well than did their predecessors. This era of destruction has to be brought to a turning point, that of the reawakening of our 'collective wisdom' to return to a 'modern vernacular' practice. We have the idea of tracing back to the 'past' to study for the 'future' contemporary design sources. We must connect the '**continuity past - present - future'** .

Lesson Learned from History

History means, literally, the knowledge of what has been done at any time in the past. It records information, which is essential for a better understanding of the past. Learning from history does not simply mean the process of understanding the past. We study history to learn about our present context. History, according to Colquhoun on the one hand, is the "*… repository of permanent values transmitted from one generation to the next in the form of myths and apodictic truth, while on the other hand history is also a process of evolution in which systems of cultural value can only possess a relative truth"* (Colquhoun 1981, 10).These two views of history can both be interpreted in essentialist and cultureless terms. In the first view, norms can be seen as founded on absolute standards outside historical time, or as founded on and sanctioned by historical usage. In the second view, historical evolution can be seen as determined by an iron law, where human participation is involuntary and does not depend on a society having a memory of its own past (Colquhoun 1981, 11).

In understanding history, the present tense is always used in association with the past and in looking toward the future. It is clear that it is impossible to ignore any of these tenses in the linking concept of history. It is necessary to fully understand the experiences of the past in connection with the present and future, because the past is a real experience of humankind. The historical approach is that one can learn from the past, and that the study of the past is value philosophically as well as for making us aware of the complexities of life. Linked to the concept of the past, present, and future are the ideas that history is the repository of permanent values transmitted from one generation to the next in the form of myths, tradition and history.

In general terms, we are dealing with an aspect of history that is concerned with the evidence and physical work of the past. Every place has a history, a culture and a cultural heritage. According to Rapoport: *"Human geography has always been linked with history, and even prehistory, and in the past history has also played an important role in architectural studies"* (Rapoport 1969, 11). Furthermore Rapoport (1969) explains that the assumption behind any historical approach is that one can learn from the past and that the study of the past is of value philosophically, as well as making us aware of the complexity and recurrence of events. Yeang supports this argument by stating that: *"Every place has a history, culture and architectural heritage. Architecture is a product of technology, culture and history of certain place from time to time, so architecture is an important thing for approving the linking between technology and culture"* (Yeang 1987, 12).

Many historical descriptions have been supported and proved by the finding of archaeology. The validity of remains is providing the most authentic historical data cannot be

denied. Historical remains are not just the agents of reports. They are also mediums that human beings are able to make an emotional contact with their ancestors, a role that perhaps nothing else can play. This role provides a unique place for cultural heritage in the life cycles of human beings.

The Definition of Cultural Heritage

'Culture' according to Raymond Williams is: "… the development of mind, the social and religious structure and intellectual ad artistic manifestation that characterizes society" (Williams 1981). Whereas heritage as anthropologists have debated: "Whether or not culture includes the things men make, such as tools, bridges, roads, houses and works of art (including architecture), all the things to which they commonly refer as 'material culture'... We must recognise that any cultural artefact, once created, may become a model for the creation of other artefacts, the idea of it being added to the body of standards in the culture." (Palmer 1993). Therefore they act as cultural symbol of the site on which they stand factors seen in their broad terms.

The constructive aspects of historical remains is so obvious that in almost every country spends the large budgets and numerous museums are allocated to the presentation of relics and millions of people visit them enthusiastically. It shows that the role of cultural heritage in our societies is regarded as important. For cultural heritage as for culture itself regarding its vital and ever increasing role in our social, there should be a new approach to encourage this, especially for the countries of developing world. In various global approaches, different aspects of the past can be seen and through each of them a particular of understanding of cultural heritage is achievable. The reviewers can study and criticize various ideas of the past throughout history to demonstrate how different eras, social condition and ideology of the past that produce various meanings of cultural heritage. The main question is then **what is cultural heritage**? The answer of these questions is vital, particularly when faced with the contrary perspectives.

The perception of cultural heritage was adopted by United Kingdom which had not experienced such rapid change compare to the Third World Countries and they imitated this style while they still living in cities that were more like large villages. In English, terms such as; *heritage, cultural heritage,* is used. According to the Dictionary on historical principles (Oxford 1988), *Heritage* has been used during previous centuries in different forms such as: *eritage, erytage, heiritagie,* all come from Latin root *heriditagium* which means: "… *has been or may be inherited; any property and especially land, which devolves by rights of inheritance*." What is apparent in this term is that the object is inherited from the past.

The Symbol of the Past

Architecture is originally built internally in relation to human activities, and externally in relation to the climate and surroundings. The buildings in one place should be distinct from those in other places because the people, their traditions, their social and aesthetic values and also the climatic and topographical features are different. Because of their link with the past they express the sense of memories and deeds of ancestors, linking themselves with their forebears through myths, tradition and history. The cultural meaning of form is derived from the nature of the belief systems and religion. Therefore historic buildings can express their style of their era. In reality the past not only plays a role in shaping the present but also provides future orientations. This role is determined in practice by our outlook upon the past.

The past symbolizes a region's tradition and a cultural sense of previous societies in a particular place. Therefore symbols of the past are a source of cultural pride and invokes the continuity of a stable existence in the continuum of the past, present and future. The symbols of

the past can provide aesthetic value and serve as lessons and creative inspiration for the present designers who work to transform the past, both with traditional forms and contemporary styles.

Presenting an appropriate cultural heritage always requires references to history in connection with the past, present and future. The past becomes the cultural heritage of the present and the present becomes the cultural heritage of the future. In the sense of understanding the value of cultural heritage, it is essential to investigate various approaches to dealing with the perceptions of the past. In the evolution of the human lifetime, history records the chronology of the past, present and what society wants of the future. We are now in the position of the present.

Conclusion

Although people still look upon their past through history, they are becoming aware of capabilities of cultural heritage to provide a particular understanding of the past. It is not only its capability of providing greater precision to the history that adds the importance of historic relics. The other equally important dimension in establishing some kind of emotional relationship with our ancestors which can only be achieved through them. Adopting such a definition is important because it can provide a common understanding a basis for the discussion of cultural heritage.

References

Abel, Chris. 1997. *Architecture and Identity,* Architectural Press

Culqohoun, Alan. 1985. Essay in Architectural Criticism; modern Architecture and Historical Change, The MIT Press, Massachusetts

Hojat, Mehdi, 1995. *Conservation policy in Iran,* Dissertation, University of York, UK

Fielden, Bernard. 1982. *Conservation Historic building*, Butterworth Heinnman Ltd, London

Lowenthal, David. 1981. *Our Past Before Us,* Temple Smith (London)

Lowenthal, David. 1985. *The Past is Foreign Country*, UP (Cambridge)

Palmer, Marilyn and Neaverson, Peter. 1993. *Industrial Archeology.* Routledge (London)

Rapoport, Amos. 1969. *House Form and Culture.* Prentice Hall, New York

Shankland

Williams, Raymond. 1981. *Culture*, Fontana Press (London)

Good Teacher Behavior: Students' and Teachers' Perspectives

Listyani
Satya Wacana Christian University, Salatiga
lydia.listyani@gmail.com

Abstract

We generally know that in the classroom, teachers are the central figures that make the teaching learning process go on, but, how many of us know and realize that teachers do have a significant contribution in their students' success? As Gelisli (2007) mentions, *"Teachers have an important role in classroom communication, classroom behavior management, and the achievement of teaching aims. The settings in which effective and successful classroom management is conducted are bound to make a contribution to students' success"*, I do believe that teacher behavior does have an effect on the students' success in learning. This paper reports *Academic Writing* students' opinions on the importance of teacher behavior on their learning. Data were gathered from 23 students during Semester I/ 2012-2013 through journals. Six questions were addressed to find students' opinions on teacher behavior. Answers derived were various, showing students' different preferences for the ideal behavior they expected from their teachers. The findings hopefully will add teachers' insights and horizons about the behavior that students expect to increase their learning.

Keywords: perspective, behavious

Introduction

Teachers and their "attributes" have always been attention-attracting. One of the attributes that teachers have is their behavior, be it verbal or non-verbal. It includes many aspects, for instance, setting clear goals in teaching, good communication with students, providing appropriate feedback for students. In order to avoid misunderstanding, I would like to define the meaning of "teacher behavior". According to Dogarel and Nitu (1997), teacher's non-verbal behaviour includes teacher's attentive behaviour, body posture, physical openness and facial expressions, as well as appropriate use of touch, voice, volume, articulation and vocal

expression. In addition, teacher's general behaviour refers to the teacher's methods of discipline and teaching methods.

This paper discusses teachers' desired behavior in the eyes of Academic Writing students and two writing course teachers. Twenty three students were asked to write journals centered on teachers' behavior. Data were gathered in semester I/ 2012-2013 Academic Year, while data from lecturers were gathered in February 2014. I actually asked five writing course teachers for their opinions through questionnaires. However, due to time limitation and their busy activities, only two teachers responded and became the participants of this study.

Findings revealed that most of the students wanted teachers who were not serious and not too formal in teaching. They emphasized teachers' being cooperative and understanding to their students. Besides that, I concluded from the teachers' perspectives that teachers with good behavior are those who are disciplined and keep improving themselves in terms of knowledge and teaching ability.

This study will hopefully foster positive social change in education by informing teachers of teacher behaviours which are expected and aspirated by students of Academic Writing. In addition, the two lecturers' perspectives will hopefully enrich our insights of good teacher behavior.

Review of Literature

In this section, some related theories will be briefly reviewed as the foundation of the analysis.

A. Ideal Teacher Behavior and Attitudes

In every community and in many families, there are always stories about how a particular student struggled in school because of a teacher's negative behaviour toward the student. Some of these struggling students moved on to work with new teachers whom they perceived as better teachers and they had high hopes. These students became optimistic. However, in reality, some of those struggling students never recovered academic success, but instead they dropped out of school forever (Mageehon (2006) and Weinstein (2002) in Yu (2012)). Sometimes even good teachers respond to situations in manners that students experience negatively, and the teachers do not realize that students perceive their responses negatively (Oldfather (2002) in Yu (2012)).

Actually, there are several tricks of being good teachers. The following are some. The first one is good teachers should **encourage high expectations**. This includes setting challenging goals for learning. They should also create clear expectations both orally and in writing. Besides that, they should encourage students to speak and write well, discuss class progress, and communicate the importance of high academic standards.

The second thing that good teachers can do is **encourage cooperation among students**. They can inquire students' interests and backgrounds, allow students to criticize each other's work as well as give suggestions on how to improve them, and encourage students to explain difficult concepts to each other. **Maintaining good rapport with students** should also be done; good teachers should be approachable, welcome students who come to the office, and respect various ways of learning including diverse talents owned by students.

Emphasizing timelines is another thing that teachers could do. This includes encouraging students to work steadily and conduct sensible time management. Estimating and communicating the amount to be spent on tasks is also suggested. Good teachers should also give prompt feedback; they should provide sufficient opportunities for assessment, be prepared and be ready to give immediate feedback. Graded assignments ideally should be returned within one week, with detailed evaluations.

The last thing is to **encourage student involvement**. This can be done, among others, by encourage active learning, give real-life situations to analyze, use role-playing and simulations, and ask students to relate materials with events outside the class. Above all, teachers have to bear in mind that showing disrespect to students is not appropriate (BU Center for Excellence and Innovation in Teaching (2014)).

B. What Research Says about Teacher Behavior

A piece of research done by Yucel Gelisli in 2007 in her journal article entitled *Effects of Teachers' Attitudes and Behavior on Students' Attitudes, Behavior, and Academic Success in Turkey*, found that teachers' way of classroom management, in-class and out-of-class attitudes, and teaching methods and strategies had both positive and negative impacts on their academic success and participation in lessons.

This research was aimed at exposing the influence of teachers' conception of discipline, way of communication, and attitude toward students on students' academic success and attitudes toward school, courses, and teachers. The influence of teacher attitudes inside and outside the class on students' academic success was determined freely through student observation and student opinions, therefore a qualitative approach was used for that research.

Another study done by Judith Carr-Back in 2009 found that students perceived teacher behaviour as influential to their academic success. In the students' eyes, welcoming and helpful teachers who communicated positive expectations for students' success were considered as effective teachers. The study also identified teacher attitudes and behaviours that students experienced as disruptive to their learning. These attitudes and behavior included teacher apathy and disorganization.

C. Teacher Behavior Checklist

Keeley and Buskist developed a checklist in 2006. In a study which involved 313 students evaluating 3 instructors, Keeley and Buskist used factor analysis to evaluate the contributions of each of these behaviours to overall teaching effectiveness. They found that there were 28 behaviours which contributed to teaching effectiveness. Ten of them are shown in the list below.

No.	Types of behavior	Detailed explanations
1.	Approachable/Personable	Smiles, greets students, initiates conversations, invites questions, responds respectfully to student comments
.	Encourages and Cares for Students	Provides praise for good student work, helps students who need it, offers bonus points and extra credit, and knows student names
3.	Flexible/Open-Minded	Changes calendar of course events when necessary, will meet at hours outside of office hours, pays attention to students when they state their opinions, accepts criticism from others, and allows students to do make-up work when appropriate
4.	Good Listener	Doesn't interrupt students while they are talking, maintains eye contact, and asks questions about points that students are making
5.	Happy/Positive Attitude/Humorous	Tells jokes and funny stories, laughs with students
6.	Professional	Dresses nicely [neat and clean shoes, slacks, blouses, dresses, shirts, ties] and no profanity (profanity = showing no respect)
7.	Provides Constructive Feedback	Writes comments on returned work, answers students' questions, and gives advice on test-taking
8.	Rapport/ good relationship	Makes class laugh through jokes and funny stories, initiates and maintains class discussions, knows student names, and interacts with students before and after class
9.	Respectful	Does not humiliate or embarrass students in class, is polite to students [says thank you and please, etc.], does not interrupt students while they are talking, and does not talk down to students
10.	Understanding	Accepts legitimate excuses for missing class or coursework, is available before/after class to answer questions, doesn't lose temper at students, and takes extra time to discuss difficult concepts

Table 1: Types of teacher behaviors, taken from Keeley, J., Smith, D., & Buskist, W. (2006)

From the above table, it is clear that there are many factors which can be parameters of good teacher behavior. Some other researchers also proposed different criteria. The table developed by Keeley, Smith, and Buskist is just one that I used to give a more complete picture of desired teacher behavior.

Research Methodology

This research was conducted at the English Education Program (PBI), at the Faculty of Language and Literature (FBS), Satya Wacana Christian University Salatiga. Data on expected teacher behavior were derived through journals consisting of six questions that students had to answer. I took and modified some questions form Richards (1996), in his article “Focus on the Learner”. There is a section which discusses learners’ cognitive styles and one of the parameters is students’ preferences for the favorite types of teacher behavior. In addition, I also saw the teacher behavior checklist from Keeley and Buskist (1996).

Twenty three students of Academic Writing in Semester I/ 2012-2013 became the participants of this study. There were five male and eighteen female students. Their class years varied from 2006, the oldest up to 2010, the youngest generation. When they wrote this journal, the teaching-learning process was still going on. This journal was written in October 2012. Besides the students, there were two lecturers who also became the participants. Teacher A, female, about 34, has now been teaching for ten years and has been teaching writing courses since she became a lecturer. She mostly handles *Guided Writing* and *Academic Writing* courses. The other teacher, Teacher B (28, F), is a junior lecturer who teaches part time in our faculty.

She has only been teaching for 2.5 years, and most of the time she is teaching *Guided Writing*. Both lecturers hold a Master's degree.

At the beginning, five writing lecturers whom I randomly selected of the Faculty of Language and Literature were asked to state their opinions and perspectives on the same things. Six questions were also addressed to them via email, and the questionnaires were sent to their email on February 8, 2014. However, due to time limitation and their busy activities, only two gave response and became the participants of this study.

Pseudonyms were used in this study instead of the real names of the participants due to research ethics and confidentiality. Quotations for both students and lecturers were answered in English, and answers have been checked and corrected in terms of grammar. This is with a purpose to avoid misunderstanding and to add clarity on the students' views.

Discussion

From the students' journals and questionnaires that I distributed to some writing course teachers, I found various answers that I could categorize into six big themes; they are teachers' appearance, direct feedback, ways of delivering materials, formality in teaching, and teachers' sense of humor.

A. The importance of teachers' appearance

Given the question "*What kind of teacher do you like? Do you notice their physical appearance? Their face? Their beauty/ handsomeness/ dresses/ costumes?*" my students gave various answers. There were nine students who assertively mentioned that physical appearance does not matter at all. Student F, Student W, Student H, Student M, Student I, Student P, Student G, Student C, and Student S had a similar view on teachers' physical appearance. For them, there

are things which are much more important than appearance, like the teachers' ability to deliver materials clearly, teachers' understanding to the students, or their character. Student I, for example, stated, "*Rather than noticing the appearances, I prefer to observe the teacher's behavior; how they speak, answer, or even pronounce words*."

Some other students mentioned that proper dress was necessary. Student N, for example, admitted that for her, teachers' beauty or handsomeness was not important at all, but getting dressed properly and neatly was. In line with Student N was Student E. She noticed teachers' physical appearance, and she liked teachers who wore casual clothes. Student U also stated a similar thing, that he noticed teachers' appearance. Besides those three students, Student R, Student O, Student A, and Student J also adored teachers with clean and neat outfit. Student D even stated that she liked teachers with good performance and neat and fragrant clothes. These students paid attention to their teachers' appearance.

The two lecturers shared a similar idea. For them, physical appearance was not a priority, though they admitted that some students did choose a class because of the teacher's beauty or handsomeness. Teacher B stated, "*Beauty is not important because when you are teaching, you sell your knowledge and not your face. Moreover, everyone will have different standard of beauty or handsomeness*."

B. The importance of direct correction and feedback

The second question that I addressed is "*Do you like teachers who are frank and tell you all your errors and mistakes?*" Various answers came. I would like to group students' answers in this section into three: students who liked direct feedback given frankly and immediately; the second is a group of students who liked direct feedback, but with some conditions, and the last group is students who disliked or disagreed with direct feedback.

Students who belonged to the first group were Student F, Student M, Student P, Student O, Student A, Student C, Student S, and Student D. To clarify this, I took a statement from Student M, who favored direct feedback:

> *Honestly, I like teachers who are frank that tell my errors and mistake because it's very useful to improve my skills. If the teacher tells me all my errors and mistake I will correct my work and also I do not repeat my mistake but if the teachers do not tell about my mistake, I will probably doing the same mistakes again and again because I did not know where my mistake and errors.*

The second group is students who agreed with direct and immediate feedback, but with certain conditions. The conditions centered on how the feedback was given: the right timing, politeness in giving the feedback, and whether the teacher gave it in public or not. Those who belonged to this group are Student W, Student H, Student N, Student I, Student P, Student E, Student G, and Student U.

In general, these students did not mind receiving direct and immediate feedback from their "frank" teachers, but they demanded that the feedback be given not in front of other friends, given politely, and in the right time. Here is a statement from Student W: "*I like teachers who always tell the truth and I will appreciate them if they tell all my errors and mistakes not in front of the classroom. Because I feel bad when a teacher correct or tell a student's errors and mistakes in front of the class."*

The last group consists of students who detested direct or prompt feedback from their teachers. They are Student L and Student J. For Student J, this can cause embarrassment when a teacher said to her, "*You are wrong*!" Student L had a somewhat different opinion. Direct feedback given by frank teachers could be a sign of unwillingness to encourage students and could be used as a means of emotional release:

> *"To be honest, i dislike this kind of teacher (that is, teachers who are frank and speak honestly of the students' errors or mistakes). They seem to unwilling to encourage their students to improve their skills. Instead of teaching students by encouraging them gently, some teachers may release their emotion through revealing students' mistakes"* (Student L's statement)

The two lecturers had different opinions on this. Teacher A mentioned that teachers should be frank in a good and positive way, so students will not feel discouraged when finding their mistakes. In contrast, Teacher B thought that it is not necessary to tell students all their errors and mistakes.

C. Teachers' ways of delivering materials

The third question that I asked my students is "*Do you like teachers who are fast in explaining and giving instructions, or do you like teachers who are patient and gentle?*" Students who preferred patient and gentle teachers were Student F, Student L, Student W, Student M, Student I, Student P, Student E, Student R, and Student C. In general, they had a similar reason: teachers who are patient and gentle make students feel comfortable, hence they will not learn under pressure and not be afraid to ask questions.

Only three students preferred both patient and fast teachers. They were Student H, Student G, and Student S. Three other students liked teachers who are "in between", meaning that these teachers are neither fast nor patient/gentle in explaining. They were Student O, Student A, and Student J. For Student O, patient teachers might cause sleepiness, "*Personally, I like teacher who teaches not too fast or too patient and gentle. If the teacher explains and gives instructions too fast, the students sometimes get difficulty in getting the point. On the other hand, if the teacher explains and gives instructions patiently and slowly, the students will be bored and sleepy*."

The last group of students consisted of those who favored teachers who are fast in explaining materials. There was only one student in this group, Student N. When teachers explained fast, classes were dismissed faster too. That is what makes Student N happy. Student D had a special view on this. For her, good teachers were teachers who could explain the materials in a simple way, but the explanation was clear and did not take a long time to explain.

Teacher A asserted that good teachers should be able to adjust their speed of teaching, and see the students' characteristics and speed as well. Teacher B, different from Teacher A, mentioned that patient and gentle teachers will make the class comfortable, hence students will not be afraid to ask questions or propose their ideas.

D. Formal teachers

Another question that I raised to the students is "*Do you like teachers who are formal and teach you like real students?*" The majority of the students in my class disliked formal teachers. They subconsciously identified formal teachers with a boring, tense, rigid, and uncomfortable class. Students who had this opinion were Student F, Student L, Student W, Student H, Student N, Student M, Student E, Student G, Student U, Student R, Student A, Student J, Student C, and Student D.

Student U even had a bad memory of formal teachers; he felt like being in a military camp every time this teacher taught his class. Below is his testimony.

> *I have experiences dealing with formal teachers. When I was senior high school, most of my teachers were formal. During the teaching learning process, I felt like in military camp. Formal teachers gave me punishment when I didn't do assignment; teachers were strict to the students. That is my reason why I don't like formal teacher. I strongly agree with teachers who teach me like a friend, I will feel comfortable with this kind of teacher. Students will not be afraid to share their opinions because they regard teacher like as friend.*

There were two other students who had their own special reasons. Student O liked teachers who are "in between": not too formal, but not too relaxed. Student P liked both teachers who were formal and teachers who were more relaxed in their character.

Teacher A and B also had different opinions. Teacher A said that good teachers should know when to be formal and when to be informal, depending on the situation and who they are facing. Teacher B argued that being formal is not necessary. The following is Teacher B's statement on this matter. ***"****The most important thing is how we teach the student, how we treat the student, how open we are to the students' criticism and how we master the subjects we teach."*

E. Close relationship with students

My fifth question in the journal is "*Do you like teachers who are relaxed, easy going, and treat you like friend?*" From this question, fifteen students gave a positive answer. They said that they liked humorous teachers. Student M, for example, mentioned that being in a class with a teacher who treated her as a friend made her enjoy the learning process, and increased her enthusiasm. Student I even stated that with this kind of teachers, she could share personal stuff like hobbies, restaurants, etc. outside the class, *"I do really like a teacher who is relaxed, easy going, and treats me like a friend since we can speak informally where it makes me enjoy the class well. Then, when we are outside the class we can share thought about other stuff like restaurant, hobbies, etc."*

As the previous answers, Student O mentioned that she liked teachers who are "in between"; teachers who know when to be humorous and when to be serious. Only one student, Student C, mentioned that he preferred to be treated as a real student, rather than as a friend.

Teacher A viewed that it is okay for a teacher to be close with students like friends, but outside the classroom. On the other hand, Teacher B thought that being close to students like friends is necessary to make the class relaxed and absorb the materials well.

F. Humorous Vs serious teacher

The last question I gave the students is "*Do you like teachers who are humorous or serious?*" Talking about sense of humor and seriousness of teachers, I got thirteen answers which were similar. These students agreed that humorous teachers made the class atmosphere conducive and comfortable. Student U even had a bitter experience with very serious teachers in his high school, which made him feel like being trapped in a military camp, as I have cited in the above section.

Three other students, Student L, Student W, and Student C, stated that they liked teachers who are both serious and humorous. Only one student stated that she liked serious teacher. She said, "*If I were a teacher, I wanted to be like Mrs. K, who is smart, serious but fun*."

About this matter, both Teacher A and Teacher B agreed that good teachers should be able to combine both humor and seriousness; they know when to be humorous, and when to be serious.

G. Other aspects

Some other points added by the students about their favourite teacher's behaviour and performance are discussed in this section. Student L and Student I, for example, liked teachers who are gentle patient, humorous, and creative. Student I emphasized that she needed a teacher who could be her best friend, a good listener, and a supporter for her study. In line with Student I, Student B liked a teacher who could be a guardian, a mother, and a friend, just like her high school teacher.

In addition, Student A stated that she liked teachers who do not give her lots of homework, assignments or projects; teachers who give students lots of time for consultation, and give advice when they make mistakes.

Conclusions and Recommendation

From the discussion section above, several conclusions can be drawn. The first is that we all have different opinions and preferences of how good teachers should behave. Just like the students and lecturers who became my participants, they had various opinions on this.

The second point is that among the characteristics of good teacher behavior, it seems that teachers' understanding to their students and teachers' being humorous are in the top rank over all other desired behavior. The underlying reason is because these factors can create conducive and comfortable learning situation for students.

Above all, I personally see that teachers' being cooperative and flexible is an important key that cannot be bargained. As teachers, they should be able to adjust and blend different types of behavior depending on the class situations like students' competence, background, and needs. Teachers can ask other colleagues' opinions and even ask students' inputs and opinions on how they behave. The purpose is to improve and increase both their performance in teaching and their behavior as good teachers.

For further research, several things in this study need improving. First, more lecturers can be involved for further research, so that more horizons from lecturers, both junior and senior, can be derived. Another thing is in this study, I focused on teacher behavior, for future research, more aspects can be investigated, like teachers' ability in handling technology and media, teachers' confidence, or teachers' knowledge on the subject matter (expertise). Hopefully this study can enrich other lecturers' insights on expected teacher behavior.

References

BU Center for Excellence and Innovation in Teaching. 2014. "*Behaviors of Good Teachers*". Retrieved from http://www.bu.edu/ceit/teaching-resources/preparing-to-be-a-teaching-fellow/behaviors-of-good-teachers/ on January 16, 2014.

Carr-Back**,** Judith. 2009. "*Influences of Teacher Behaviors on Student Learning and Motivation: A Phenomenological Study from the Perspective of Students*." *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses*. Retrieved from http://udini.proquest.com/view/influences-of-teacher-behaviors-on-pqid:1866216861/ on 31 January 2014.

Dogarel, Cristina and Nitu, Amalia. 1997. "*Teacher's Behavior in the Classroom.*" Petru Maior University of Târgu Mureș University Rumania. Retrieved from ww.upm.ro/facultati_departamente/stiinte_litere/conferinte/situl_integrare_europeana/Lucrari2/Amalia Nitu&Cristina Dogarel.pdf on February 11, 2014.

Keeley, J., Smith, D., & Buskist, W. 2006. "The Teacher Behaviors Checklist: Factor Analysis of Its Utility for Evaluating Teaching." *Teaching of Psychology*, 33(2), 84-91. Retrieved from http://faculty.clinton.edu/faculty/TeachingandLearningCenter/Teacher%20Behavior%20Checklist.aspx on February 9, 2014.

Richards, Jack C. and Lockhart, Charles. 1996. *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms.* NY: CUP.

Yucel, Gelisli. 2007. "Effects of Teachers' Attitudes and Behavior on Students' Attitudes, Behavior, and Academic Success in Turkey". *International Journal of Educational Reform*, v16 n1 p96-106 Win 2007. Retrieved from http://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ807313, retrieved 16 January 2014.

Yu Tak Ming. 2012. "*The roles of teachers' teaching behavior in students' learning styles and academic achievement"*. A Dissertation. The University of Hong Kong. Retrieved from http://hub.hku.hk/handle/10722/167183 on January 30, 2014.

Improving English Proficiency by Using Affective Assessment

Siti Mariam
Walisongo State Institute for Islamic Studies, Semarang
sitmer@yahoo.com; sitimariam@walisongo.ac.id

Abstract

Affective assessment is assessment based on affective domain of learning. Affective aspect plays important role in man's life, mainly in making decision, perception, interaction, communication and intelligence. A second behaviour domain is the affective domain. The affective domain involves feelings, attitude, interests, preferences, values, and emotions. Emotional stability, motivation, trustworthiness, self-control, and personality are all examples of affective characteristics. The research objectives are for the three phases of research and development. Exploration Phase: investigate affective aspects can improve students' achievement of English subject for university students of non-English Departments. Identify affective aspects be able to improve students' achievement of English subject for university students of non-English Departments. To get information to what extent an affective assessment model of English subject for students of non-English department for developing. Prototype Development Phase: To construct an affective assessment model of English subject for students of non - English departments. To investigate the effectiveness of an affective assessment model of English subject for students of non – English departments. Field Assessment Phase: To find out the usability of an affective assessment model of English subject for students of non – English department. To develop a model of affective assessment of English subject, the researcher has employed Research and Development (R and D). Method of Data Collection in this study used questionnaire, interview, and library research. The result of study shows that affective assessment consists five aspects namely attitude, self-concept, motivation, interest and personal value. The form of affective assessment is rubric in each aspect.

Keywords: affective assessment model, English Language Teaching

A. What and Why of Taxonomies

The second view was that affective concerns were natural outgrowth (ends) of learning cognitive content and need not be included as separate objectives (means) to be addressed during the learning process. Fortunately, during 1970s, affective objectives were recognized to be important as both ends and means in the overall school process and were no longer considered as merely acceptable outgrowths of an emphasis on the cognitive domain. As a result, state-level, as well as school and program level statements of goals and objectives included both cognitive and affective objectives. While the cognitive domain receives increased attention, the affective area will remain firmly entrenched as an important aspect of the schooling process as well as an outcome of schooling. Bloom's (1976) adapted model of school learning clearly suggests that during instruction learners approach any task with prior affective entry characteristics (e. g attitudes, self esteem, interest and values) as well as cognitive behaviours.

Affective aspect plays important role in man's life, mainly in making decision, perception, interaction, communication and intelligence. According to Peter W. Airasia and Michael K. Russell (2008), a second behaviour domain is the affective domain. The affective domain involves feelings, attitude, interests, preferences, values, and emotions. Emotional stability, motivation, trustworthiness, self-control, and personality are all examples of affective characteristics. Although affective behaviours are rarely assessed formally in schools and classrooms, teachers constantly assess affective behaviours informally, especially when sizing up students. Teachers need to know who can be trusted to work unsupervised and who cannot, who can maintain self-control when the teacher has to leave the classroom and who cannot, who needs to be encouraged to speak in class and who does not, who is interested in science but not in social studies, and who needs to be prodded to start class work and who does not. Most classroom teachers can describe their students' affective characteristics based on their informal observations and interactions with the students. For example, Ms. Lopez was relying mainly upon her assessment of students' affective behaviours when she selected Rosa, not Sarah, to deliver a note to the school principal; when she changed the class seating plan to separate Jamar

and Ramon, who were unable to remain focused on the learning activities when seated together; when she switched instruction from discussion to seatwork to help avoid distractions; and when she selected students to work together on a cooperative assignment. There is no single, widely accepted taxonomy of affective behaviours, although the taxonomy prepared by Krathwohl and associates (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 1964) is the most commonly referred to and used. In general, affective taxonomies are all based upon the degree of a person's involvement in an activity or idea. The lower levels of affective taxonomies contain low-involvement behaviours such as paying attention, while the higher levels contain high- involvement behaviour characterized by strong interest, commitment, and valuing.

Basically, students' learning achievement cannot be seen from cognitive and psychomotor domain only as practiced today in our education, but also must be seen from affective achievement. Because the three domains have a reciprocal relationship, the power of relationships is vary from one case to other cases. The various research results showed that effectiveness of cognitive achievement occurred in accordance with effectiveness of affective achievement. In general, students who have good academic achievement (cognitive), they also have high learning motivation and positive attitude towards the subject (affective). On the other hand, they have low achievement usually their motivations are low besides that their attitude towards the subject also negative. According to the research results, because around 25 percent of variant of learning cognitive achievement is contributed by affective characteristics that owned by a student individually in the beginning of learning.

According to Tyler in Robert K. Gable (1986), there are two main reasons why affective aspect does not include in part of curriculum. First, most of educators or designers of curriculum state that affective aspect is not the main concern of school, but this is the duty of parents and society. They have a certain view that the main duty of school just promotes cognitive aspect, not affective aspect. Second, there is a view that naturally, affective aspect will develop in accordance with affective development because it is assumed the aspect will be influenced by cognitive development automatically. That is why; schools do not need to design the affective learning specifically. Beside the reasons above, there are other reasons why affective domain technically gets lack of attention properly in formal education. They are as follows: a.) Affective domain is difficult to defined and measured. b.) It is limited of evaluation instrument to measure and assess. c.) There is an unwillingness to give mark in affective domain because it is related to the validity and reliability aspects. d.) It is difficult to determine behaviour standard that reflects affective domain. E.).And there are less direct consequences that reflect in affective behaviour.

There are several definitions of affective domain. Aiken (1980, p.2) states the affective characteristics described in this volume e.g. attitudes, self efficacy, self concept, values and interest. Attitudes may be conceptualized as learned predispositions to respond positively or negatively to certain objects, situation, concepts, or persons. As such, they possess cognitive (belief or knowledge), affective (emotional, motivational, and performance (behaviour or action tendencies) components.

According to Bloom it is the dynamic interaction between those overlapping cognitive and affective domains during the instructional process that results in both cognitive learning outcomes and associated affective outcomes. These affective outcomes help guide future feelings about the course content and issues (attitudes), feelings of personal worth and success (self-esteem), desire to become involved in various activities (interests) and personal standard (values).

The use of the word 'affect' in the course of general conversation is rare, although the use of its derivatives (such as 'affectionate': a disposition to act from a kindly feeling or love towards one another) are more common. In psychology, the term is commonly used in conjunction with cognition (e.g. Clark and Fisk, 1982; Tomkins and Izzard, 1966), but not so in educational discourse, where references to 'affective education' or 'affective learning' are infrequent.

For those of us who trained to be teachers during the 1960s, our main – or only- contact with this word was probably through the influential Taxonomy of Educational Objectives associated with the American psychologist and pedagogue, Benjamin Bloom (Krathwohl et al, 1964). In this analysis of the aims and objectives identified by American teachers, the affective domain was one of three domains of human experience and development, the other two being the cognitive and the psycho-motor.

Teacher objectives falling within the affective domain were those which emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience. The authors found a large number of such objectives in the literature expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciation, values and emotional sets or biases (Krathwohl et al, 1964, pp. 6 – 7).

Within this taxonomy the concept of 'affect' has been elaborated to relate feeling – based dispositions to action to a range of human characteristics, expressed in concepts which bear a 'family resemblance' to feelings – emotions, appreciation and so on – to values, beliefs, etc. which seem to underpin them. The concept of affective education needs to be seen in this broad way. Thus the entry for 'Affective Learning of Adults' in the International Encyclopaedia of

Education defines affective learning as learning which allows the individual to understand and cope with his / her emotions in order to get more satisfaction from life. Learning which reduces anxiety associated with phobias such as fear of animals and insects or fear of heights, is affective in nature. As an adult strives to manage his / her behaviour under stressful working conditions or learns to love more openly and be more loveable, affective learning is taking place. (Simpson, 1985, p. 224)

All learning which is concerned with the emotions, feelings or passions that motivate, constrain or shape human action would qualify as 'affective learning', whether this concern is to develop, comprehend, constrain or come to terms with such dispositions.

Following the conceptual analysis of Peter (1964) and other philosophers of education in the 1960s, we may see affective education as the intentional and structured bringing about affective learning, under taken in ways which recognize the intellectual and moral autonomy of the learner.

A second taxonomy of educational objectives has been developed for affective domain (the term "affective "means believing, emoting, or feeling rather than thinking, perceiving, or doing) by Krathwohl et al (1964). Like the taxonomy of the cognitive domain, the taxonomy of the affective domain identifies a sequence of levels that may be used for structuring instructional experiences or developing test items, the latter being our concern here,. The figure also provides action verbs for preparing objectives in the affective domain, the procedure being the same as that outlined for the cognitive domain.

An Illustrated Taxonomy of the Affective Domain

1. RECEIVING (ATTENDING)

a. Awareness

Describe the aesthetic factors in the clothing, food, and shelter that desert dwellers use to satisfy basic needs.

b. Willingness to Receive

Identify books that have been read voluntarily about desert life.

c. Controlled or Selected Attention

Reply to questions raised by teacher on aspects of desert life.

2. RESPONDING

a. Acquiescence in Responding

Present an assigned report on desert life.

b. Willingness to Respond

Respond with apparent interest and zeal to assignments on desert life.

c. Satisfaction in Response

Report pleasure in having studied people of the desert.

3. VALUING

a. Acceptance of a Value

Recognize that children in all cultures have similar basic needs.

b. Preference for a Value

Demonstrate a desire to study and understand people of different cultures.

c. Commitment

Write a "letter" to a desert child expressing recognition of your common needs.

4. ORGANIZING

a. Conceptualization of a Value

Identify a continuum or hierarchy of basic human needs that each person must be able to satisfy.

b. Organization of a Value System

Prepare a plan for satisfying one's own basic needs and helping others to satisfy theirs.

5. CHARACTERIZING BY A VALUE OR VALUE COMPLEX

a. Generalized set

Display tolerance of human behaviour directed toward need satisfaction.

b. Characterization

The Affective Domain

A second behaviour domain is the affective domain. The affective domain involves feelings, attitudes, interests, preferences, values, and emotions. Emotional stability, motivation, trustworthiness, self-control, and personality are examples of affective characteristics. Although affective behaviours are rarely assessed formally in schools and classrooms, teachers constantly asses affective behaviours informally, especially when sizing up students. Teachers need to know who can be trusted to work unsupervised and who cannot, who can maintain self-control when the teachers has to leave the classroom and who cannot, who needs to be encouraged to speak in class and who does not, who interested in science but not in social studies, and who need to prodded to start class work and who does not. Most classroom teachers can describe their students affective characteristics based on their informal observations and interactions with students.

There is no single, widely accepted taxonomy of affective behaviours although the taxonomy prepared by Krathwohl and associates (Krathwohl, .Bloom, and Masia, 1964) is the most commonly referred to and used. In general, affective taxonomies are all based upon the degree of a person’s involvement in an activity or idea. The lower levels of affective taxonomies contain low-involvement behaviours such as paying attention, while the higher levels contain high-involvement behaviour characterized by strong interest, commitment and valuing.

Affective domain consists of five objects namely:

1. Attitude

An attitude is an expression of favour or disfavour toward a person, place, thing, or event (the attitude object). Prominent psychologist Gordon Allport once described attitudes "the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology.

An attitude can be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, event, activities, ideas, or just about anything in your environment, but there is debate about precise definitions. Eagly and Chaiken, for example, define an attitude "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour." Though it is sometimes common to define an attitude as affect toward an object, affect (i.e., discrete emotions or overall arousal) is generally understood to be distinct from attitude as a measure of favourability.

This definition of attitude allows for one's evaluation of an attitude object to vary from extremely negative to extremely positive, but also admits that people can also be conflicted or ambivalent toward an object meaning that they might at different times express both positive and negative attitude toward the same object. This has led to some discussion of whether individual can hold multiple attitudes toward the same object.

Whether attitudes are explicit (i.e., deliberately formed) versus implicit (i.e., subconscious) has been a topic of considerable research. Research on implicit attitudes, which are generally unacknowledged or outside of awareness, uses sophisticated methods involving people's response times to stimuli to show that implicit attitudes exist (perhaps in tandem with explicit attitudes of the same object). Implicit and explicit attitudes seem to affect people's behaviour, though in different ways. They tend not to be strongly associated with each other, although in some cases they are. The relationship between them is poorly understood.

a. Attitudes And Their Characteristic

Attitudes are characteristics of persons which describe their positive and negative feelings toward particular objects, situations, institutions, persons or ideas. Although attitudes are frequently considered non cognitive or affective aspects of a person, the can also be considered as having cognitive and behavioural component as well (Wagner, 1969; zimbardo, & ebbeson, 1970). The affective component relates to a person's liking of or emotional response toward to object. The cognitive component of an attitude relates to a person's belief or perceptions about the fact concerning the object. The behavioural component concerns the person's actions or overt behaviour toward the particular object in the question. Most attitude instruments have focused on the affective component of attitude.

Even focusing on the affective aspect attitude allows considerable leeway in the characteristics of a person's attitudes that can be measured. A person's attitudes toward something or someone can be described in terms of (Scott, 1968).

- Direction: whether the attitude is positive or negative
- Magnitude: the degree to which the positive or negative feeling is held.
- Intensity: the importance or strength of feeling the person holds with respect to the object.
- Ambivalence: the extent to which a person holds conflicting attitudes toward different aspects of the same object.
- Salience or centrality: whether this particular attitude is central to explaining a wide variety of person's attitude.
- Affective salience: the degree to which a person becomes highly emotional in expressing attitudes toward a particular object.
- Flexibility: the extent to which the person will change or modify his or her attitude toward an object.
- Imbeddedness: the extent to which an attitude is imbedded as part of a person's network of attitudes.

Scott points out that most attitude measurement has focused on the magnitude or intensity characteristic.

2. Motivation

Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviours. Motivation is what causes us to act, whether it is getting a glass of water to reduce thirst or reading a book to gain knowledge.

It involves the biological, emotional, social and cognitive forces that activate behaviour. In everyday usage, the term motivation is frequently used to describe why a person does something. For example, you might say that a student is so motivated to get into a clinical psychology program that she spends every night studying.

Psychologists have proposed a number of different theories of motivation, including drive theory, instinct theory and humanistic theory.

a. Components of Motivation

There are three major components to motivation: activation, persistence and intensity. Activation involves the decision to initiate behaviour, such as enrolling in a psychology class. Persistence is the continued effort toward a goal even though obstacles may exist, such as taking more psychology courses in order to earn a degree although it requires a significant investment of time, energy and resources. Finally, intensity can be seen in the concentration and vigour that goes into pursuing a goal. For example, one student might coast by without much effort, while another student will study regularly, participate in discussions and take advantage of research opportunities outside of class.

b. Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation

Different types of motivation are frequently described as being either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivations are those that arise from outside of the individual and often involve rewards such as trophies, money, social recognition or praise. Intrinsic motivations are those that arise from within the individual, such as doing a complicated cross-word puzzle purely for the personal gratification of solving a problem.

Motivation is the push or pull that stimulates people to act and excel. It unlocks the door to quality performance in any situation – on the job, in a leisure activity, as well as in personal and social life.

3. Self - Concept

Self-concept (also called self-construction, self-identity or self-perspective) is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of "self" in relation to any number of characteristics, such as academics (and non-academics), gender roles and sexuality, racial identity, and many others. Each of these characteristics is a research domain (i.e. Academic Self-Concept) within the larger spectrum of self-concept although no characteristics exist in isolation as one's self-concept is a collection of beliefs about oneself. While closely related with self-concept clarity (which "refers to the extent to which self-knowledge is clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable"), it presupposes but is distinguishable from self-awareness, which is simply an individual's awareness of their self. It is also more general than self-esteem, which is a function of the purely evaluative element of the self-concept.

The self-concept is an internal model which comprises self-assessments. Features assessed include but are not limited to: personality, skills and abilities, occupation(s) and hobbies, physical characteristics, etc. For example, the statement "I am lazy" is a self-assessment that contributes to the self-concept. However, the statement "I am tired" would not be part of someone's self-concept, since being tired is a temporary state and a more objective judgment. A person's self-concept may change with time as reassessment occurs, which in extreme cases can lead to identity crises.

Another model of self-concept contains three parts: self-esteem, stability, and self-efficacy. Self-esteem is the "evaluative" component—it is where one makes judgments about his or her self-worth. Stability refers to the organization and continuity of one's self-concept. Is it constantly in flux? Can singular, relatively trivial events drastically affect your self-esteem? The third element, self-efficacy, is best explained as self-confidence. It is specifically connected with one's abilities, unlike self-esteem.

Researchers debate when self-concept development begins but agree on the importance of person's life. Tiedemann (2000) indicates that parents' gender stereotypes and expectations for their children impact children's understandings of themselves by approximately age 3. Others suggest that self-concept develops later, around age 7 or 8, as children are developmentally prepared to begin interpreting their own feelings, abilities and interpretations of feedback they receive from parents, teachers and peers about themselves. Despite differing opinions about the onset of self-concept development, researchers agree on the importance of one's self-concept, influencing people's behaviours and cognitive and emotional outcomes including (but not limited to) academic achievement, levels of happiness, anxiety, social integration, self-esteem, and life-satisfaction.

Furthermore, the self-concept is not restricted to the present. It includes past selves and future selves. Future or possible selves represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, or what they are afraid of becoming. They correspond to hopes, fears, standards, goals, and threats. Possible selves may function as incentives for future behaviour and they also provide an evaluative and interpretive context for the current view of self.

The perception that people have about their past or future selves is related to the perception of their current self. Temporal self-appraisal theory argues that people have a tendency to maintain a positive evaluation of the current self by distancing negative selves and bringing close positive selves. In addition, people have a tendency to perceive the past self less favourably (e.g., I'm better than I used to be) and the future self more positively (e.g., I will be better than I am now).

4. Interest

Interest is the feeling of a person whose attention, concern, or curiosity is particularly engaged by something. Interest consists of two kinds namely:

a. Individual Interest

Individual interest is defined as an evaluative orientation that relatively stable at the certain areas, or more exactly at the specific classes of an object, event or idea. It’s said stable, because this interest has a principal characteristic inside of somebody, or event it’s the exclusive interest owned by everybody. Individual interest has a personal meaning and sometimes it’s associated with high level of knowledge and value, positive emotion, and interest esteem value. This interest that makes each person instinctively wants to develop and always advance to the highest level achievement of the life. Individual interest appears stable in the children, although children also always in the process of consolidating, merging and developing new interest.

b. Situational Interest

Different from individual interest that has a stable feature inside of the person; situational interest is more influenced from external factors. Because this interest itself is defined as an emotional brought by a situation stimuli. This interest sometimes appear in the attitude of a person when he / she is responding a specific idea, object or event as a visual form expressed

from internal locus of the individual interest, and sometimes it’s pushed with the specific features of an activity or task / text.

5. Personal Value

A personal value is absolute or relative ethical value, the assumption of which can be the basis for ethical action. A *value system* is a set of consistent values and measures. A *principle value* is a foundation upon which other values and measures of integrity are based. Those values which are not physiologically determined and normally considered objective, such as a desire to avoid physical pain, seek pleasure, etc., are considered subjective, vary across individuals and cultures and are in many ways aligned with belief and belief systems. Types of values include ethical/moral value, doctrinal/ideological (religious, political) values, social values, and aesthetic values. It is debated whether some values which are not clearly physiologically determined are intrinsic such as altruism and whether some such as acquisitiveness should be valued as vices or virtues. Values have typically been studied in sociology, anthropology, social psychology, moral philosophy, and business ethics.

Values can be defined as broad preferences concerning appropriate courses of action or outcomes. As such, values reflect a person’s sense of right and wrong or what “ought” to be. “Equal rights for all”, "Excellence deserves admiration", and “People should be treated with respect and dignity” are representative of values. Values tend to influence attitudes and behaviour. For example, if you value equal rights for all and you go to work for an organization that treats its managers much better than it does its workers, you may form the attitude that the company is an unfair place to work; consequently, you may not produce well or may perhaps leave the company. It is likely that if the company had a more egalitarian policy, your attitude and behaviours would have been more positive.

According to Morris Massey values are formed during three significant periods: 1. Imprint period from birth to 7 years. 2. Modelling period from 8 –13 years. 3. Socialization period from 13 –21 years.

Personal Values provide an internal reference for what is good, beneficial, important, useful, beautiful, desirable, constructive, etc. Values generate behaviour [and help solve common human problems for survival by comparative rankings of value, the results of which provide answers to questions of why people do what they do and in what order they choose to do them.

Over time the public expression of personal values, that groups of people find important in their day-to-day lives, laid the foundations of law, custom and tradition. Personal Values in this way exist in relation to cultural values, either in agreement with or divergent from prevailing norms.[A culture is a social system that shares a set of common values, in which such values permit social expectations and collective understandings of the good, beautiful, constructive, etc. Without normative personal values, there would be no cultural reference against which to measure the virtue of individual values and so culture identity would disintegrate.

Wyatt Woodsmall points out that "'Criteria' are used to refer to 'the standards on which an evaluation is based'." Values relate then to what one wants and in what order one wants them, criteria can only refer to the evidences for achieving values and act as a comparative standard that one applies in order to evaluate whether goals have been met / values satisfied.

Values are obtained in many different ways. The most important place for building values is a person's family. The family is responsible for teaching children what is right and wrong long before there are other influences. It is said that a child is a reflection of the parents. As a child starts school, school helps some to shape the values of children. Then there is religion that the family introduces to a child that plays a role in teaching the right and wrong behaviours.

A Map of the Domain of Non-cognitive Measures Having Potential Uses in Education

a. Variety And Importance Of Non cognitive Variables

Up to this point we have discussed the measurement of variables that emphasize the cognitive features of a pupil's personality such as general educational developments, general school aptitudes, and specific achievements, general school aptitudes and specific abilities. However, a vast array of human characteristics remain which have relevance to education. One large group of these is often referred to as the non cognitive or affective domain. As Messick (1979) points out, however, a comparison between cognitive and non-cognitive is difficult because the distinction is essentially artificial: nearly all behaviour is subject to influence by both the cognitive and the non cognitive aspects of person. Thus, a sharp distinction between the two domains cannot be made. to say that we are testing a cognitive capability does not imply that only cognition influences a pupil's performance ; to say we are testing a non cognitive capability does not imply that cognition is absent from a pupil's response.

These non cognitive variables are important to education in several ways (Messick, 1979): (a) some them, such as those in the areas of affect and motivation, can be used to predict a pupil's success in particular instructional environments; (b) some seem to function as mediating variables, facilitating (or hampering) either the rate a pupil learns new material, the level of learning a pupil attains, or both ; (c)others appears to act as moderator variables, determining the differential effects which certain kinds of instructional procedures have on different students, and (d) some are viewed As either desired outcomes of education or as valued individuals characteristic which , at minimum, education should not undermine. Note that in cases the exact influence of each of these variables on pupil learning is unknown.

b. Potential roles of non cognitive variables

Educational decisions these are several varieties of educational decisions which need to be made, as described in the chapter 1. Messick (1979) examines the potential roles that could be played by measures of non cognitive variables in connection with these decisions.

- ***Access.*** The essential concern here is with who is admissible to particular educational opportunities. Traditionally, cognitive variables have been used in these decisions, but broadening the domain of variables measured to include non cognitive types may offer expanded educational opportunities to non-traditional students.
- Objectives and standard. This class of decisions is concerned with what educators should address. Many non cognitive variables seem to fit into a broadened definition of educational goals. Some variables, such as curiosity, interest, and values, have direct implication for the particular subject-matter objectives that should be taught.
- Guidance. This class of decisions involves the student choosing one educational program or alternative over another. Interest, values, and motivations are among the cognitive variables which play roles here along with cognitive variables such as aptitudes and achievements.
- Selection. These decisions focus on whether a particular person is permitted to enter a program and where the person may need to go in order to reach the desired program goals. Again, the tradition has been to use cognitive variables to make decisions, but certain non cognitive variables might be added: experiential learning, social sensitivity, creativity, interests, and motivations.
- Placement. These decisions refer to vertical grouping of students either for remediation or advanced placement. Interest, motivations, affects, experiential learning, and creative and talent

accomplishment are among the non cognitive variables which have potential roles to play in placement decisions.

- Instructional approach. One of the decisions to be made in instruction concerns how the educator is to teach. Motivations and cognitive styles may be variables of potential worth. Measuring cognitive variables is necessary, however, to identify the content to be learned.
- Evaluations of programs. This class of decisions concerns how well an educational program has accomplished its various espoused goals, and whether the program has had side effects. Outcome measures may need to include non cognitive as well as cognitive variables.

c. Misuses of non cognitive variables

Note that while, on the one hand, educators generally agree About the value and desired emphasis of many cognitive variables, especially those associated with general educational development or with basic educational skills, on the other hand, educators agree much less on the value and emphasis to place on each of the non cognitive areas. Messick points to this lack of consensus as a potential invitation for misuse. Thus, for example, issues of *which* values to support arise. He recommends that persons make explicit values-those of the state school, parent, teacher, and pupil-will be used to decide which non cognitive variables to measure and use in decision- making. We need to know how various set of values are operating because these values influence (a) the particular non cognitive variables the school will emphasize and (b) the consequences, to both society and the individual, which result when various educational decisions are made using measures of the variables as sources of information.

Conclusion

Basically human characteristic is related to the way of thinking, acting and feeling. In regarding with the learning purpose, Bloom stated that affective is stressing with feeling. Emotion or level of receiving and refusing. Varieties of affective can be simple attention to choose object until character qualities and complex awareness to choose object. According to Popham, affective behaviour reflexes in attitude, interest and personal values. From the definition above, affective in ELT can be understood as a way to feel or express of emotion that refers receiving or refusing object that related with English ability. The feeling or emotion can be interest, attitude, appreciation, personal values, and emotion, either related with English object or English education.

1. Attitude

Can be negatively or positively respond towards object, concept or human being. The positive attitude that can be developed by a teacher namely attitude towards subject, learning, attitude towards people that different from the students. Therefore, attitude is important in ELT so that can be developed in positive attitude towards students.

2. Motivation

Many researches finding stated that motivation has relation with learning achievement. Motivated students have more motivation. They have low worried and they express success expectation higher than students are not motivated. They also have more concentration; tend to more cooperation so that psychologically they tend to openness to learn and enhance information process, hard and longer working.

3. Self concept

Self concept is someone perception towards himself / herself that formed through experience and environment, especially significant people. Self concept is seen as determination someone behaviour. It has important role as factor of personality integrity. Motivate behaviour in achieve mental health. In regarding with English proficiency, self concept is related to how students view themselves either as a student or member of a community so that influence in placed themselves at on behaviour.

4. Interest

Interest is joyfulness do a certain work. Generally interest is related to the activities that have relation with work and excitement to follow learning process. In learning process, interest is related with student's eagerness to do some learning activities. So that will be influenced in their achievement.

Students who have high interest tend to try to do some activities related with the interest. Therefore in ELT, students should be having high interest condition in learning and English activities.

5. Personal Values

Personal values is important thing and valuable with activities object preferences, purpose and way of life, belief about action that suitable with action that suitable with their preferences and real concept that expected to be influence their behaviour. The target of personal values ideas, attitude or behaviour. In ELT, personal values that can be developed namely universal values as honestly, integrity, freedom, and justice.

The benefit of affective assessment and evaluation

Evaluation should be seen as a technique to collect information or prove about quality of performance or group of student to make learning decision. The result of affective aspect can be used to diagnose students' learning difficulties. In reality, often students' learning difficulties are not from their intellectual factor but from affective factors. For example the failure of English learning generally from students low interest or negative attitude towards English language education and low self confidence as well.

Affective evaluation that related the variables are needed to enhance students motivation and learning interest, self confidence through situation creating affective learning that appropriate students' condition. Because affective aspect has important mole in success either education or future life.

References

Airasian, Peter W in Lorin W. Anderson and David R. Krathwohl. 2001. *A Taxonomy for Learning, Teaching and Assessing*. New York: Longman

Airasia, Peter W and Michael K Russell. 2008. *Classroom Assessment Concept and Applications.* New York: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Aiken, L.R, 1980: 1 – 24. "Attitudes Measurement Research," in D.A.Payne (Ed) *Recent Developments in Affective Measurement*. San Francisco : Jossey-Bass.

Bloom, Benjamin S. 1956. *Taxonomy of Objective : Cognitive Domain*, New York : David McKay.

Bloom, Benjamin S; George F. Madaus & J.Thomas Hastings. 1981. *Evaluation to Improve Learning*. New York : McGraw-Hill Book Co

Fishbein, M & Ajzen, I.1975. *Beliefs, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour : An Introduction to Theory and Research.* Philippines : Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, INC.

Fulcher, Glenn and Fred Davidson. 2007. *Language Testing and Assessment. An Advanced Resource Book*. USA : Routledge Applied Linguistics, Taylor and Francis Group.

Gable, Robert K., 1986. *Instrument Development in the Affective Domain.* Boston : Kluwer-Nijhoff Pub.

Gagne, Robert M & Marcy Perkins Driscoll.1988. *Essentials of Learning for Instruction*.

Suggesting Jeremiadic Approach as an Alternative for Language Teaching in the Light Curriculum 2013

Mister Gidion Maru
English Department - UNIMA (Manado State University)
mrhekang@yahoo.com

Abstract

The application of the 2013 curriculum defines the demand for English teacher to have more alternatives dealing with the teaching of English Language. This paper tries to suggest the application of the jeremiadic approach namely the lamentation of the present, the evocation of the past and the promise of renewal (Smith and Smith, 2009, Maru, 2012) as the inspiration to teach language based upon a text in order to respond toward the issues of achieving the goal of the curriculum particularly in strengthening the national character. The jeremiadic approach proposes the first aspect of the lamentation of the present which constitutes the attempt to understand the ongoing issue(s) revealed in a text/literary work and to define its cause(s). In language learning, this implies practice of the text explanation which involves the activity of teaching in terms of identifying, observing and comprehending the situation of the text. This is called the text explanation phase. The following aspect is the evocation of the past that refers to the effort to dig out the values of the past or the historical prides or any possibly related knowledge to address the issues of the 'present' as the attempt to bring a text into life of the learners. Such efforts involve the identification and interpretation of the sociocultural-historical aspects as the answers to the presentation of the main issue of the text. It is later termed as the text examination activity. The final structural aspect of the jeremiad is the calling for renewal. This aspect prescribes the implication of the previous two aspects upon life in the forms of lesson(s), promise(s) or attitude(s). This final structure gives open spaces for teachers to chip-in ideas or expectation to bridge the shaping of the certain hoped attitudes, values, skill for the learners as it is so-called text expectation phase. In doing so, a text is viewed to be rich resources to serve and provide the need for contextual need of curriculum 2013.

Keywords: Jeremidiac Approach, Language Learning, Text

Introduction

The National Ministry of Education and Culture, Muh Nuh, in one of the articles in Harian Kompas, Kamis, 7 Maret 2013 in his explanation related to the formulation application of 2013 Curriculum asserted that philosophically education constitutes a long and continual process to transform learners into human, who is in accordance with the creator, that is meaningful for himself, for his fellows, for universe along with the whole civilization within it. This affirmation explains the highlights of education on the character of learners as an end. Processes carried out in teaching and learning activities reflect the attempt to build the wholeness of human being in the light of divine sublimity and meaningfulness. The educational process apparently does not merely head for the intellectual achievements but also for the spiritual ones. It further directs the competencies into a standard of a graduate profile as framed in the core competence which derived from the identification of the learners' needs. This is then elaborated into the goals of the national education which mainly focus on the three aspects of competences namely attitude including spiritual and social ones, skill and knowledge (Nuh, 2013). In these aspects, language, Nuh also affirmed, finds its importance in channelling the content of the material from all of the sources of the learners' competences. In other words, language serves to be a binding tool to inter-subjects of the national curriculum. The proper and correct use of the language defines a text as the basis for learning.

At this point, language is treated contextually. This means that language grows amidst and from a certain social situation within its certain purpose. It can be stated that language becomes meaningless when it departs from its context. Language has to be viewed in terms of its existence as the means of communication in the variety of social interactions. Thus, it brings to the perspective that the use of language can be numerous which turn out into numerous kinds of

text (Mahsun, 2013). Social processes put the text into the circle of cultural values, norms and ideologies as well as historical lens. In light of this proposition, genre rises as the realization of the social processes. This implies that a text is a unity of an existence. It exists from something in the wholeness which means that the text based- language learning requires the involvement of socio-cultural significances. Consequently, language learning must be carried out in terms of such unity. This certainly leads to methodological implication of teaching approach particularly for English language learning. In the frame of 2013 Curriculum, English learning is attached with the competences built out of the materials which emphasize on the use of English as a tool of communication for expressing ideas and knowledge, the habit of reading, understanding, summarizing and reproducing a passage, and the habit of composing a text and the awareness to its rules (Kemendikbud, 2013). These contents of the material are suggested to be reached by the application of scientific approach for the teaching process. However, this approach does not seem to be fully accepted and understood by some teachers. They argued that this approach appears to work well with the science subjects but does not really do with the language learning. They question and find it difficult to apply the phases such as observing, questioning, associating, experimenting and networking in the teaching English. This phenomenon encourages the writer to share a possible alternative approach for English language teaching inspire from the jeremiad frames from which it is later suggested to be called as the jeremiadic approach.

A Glance toward Jeremiadic Approach

The jeremiadic approach is in fact inspired from a jeremiad which constitutes a type of American Puritan literary genre and rhetoric (Maru, 2013, Miller, 1953, p.29, Bellah, 1992, p.42, Madsen, 1998, p.27, Smith and Smith, 1994, p.134). Jeremiad is assumed as the original American literary form which rose from the American Puritan tradition. Rising from the frustration and dismay over the problem of the unconverted children of the saints; the second generation that resulted in the problem of church membership and in turn endangered the continuation of the Puritanism, Thomas Brown came to preach, by taking the text from Jeremiah and Isaiah, repeatedly sermons so-called Puritan jeremiads (Maru, 2013, Elliot,2002,p.102). The anticipation toward the potential of the lessening of the adherence to Puritanism was inseparably pragmatic substance of the construct of the jeremiads. Jeremiad developed out of the Puritans' need for a form to express the relationship between the New England experience and the God's ways. According to Burbank and Moore, the jeremiad was "a type of chronicle or annals whose chief motivating force was to exhort a faltering people to mend its ways" (Maru, 2013, 1967, p.12). The purpose to generate the listeners from desperation became the content of the jeremiads. It was typical for a jeremiad to cry over the present circumstance and at the same time to forecast the hope of better tomorrow.

In other words, originally a jeremiad was a kind of sermon, considered as a part of American literature, which implies the role of interpretation in its creation. At the beginning, it relied upon the interpretation as the justification for certain circumstance occurred in the Puritan society. It is a kind of the interpretation of the biblical text and its relation to the reality followed by a certain expected attitude and view. According to Elliot, the jeremiad as a rhetorical formula that was intended to lament recent and present ills, to recall the courage and piety of the founders, and to cry out for a return to the original conduct and zeal (2002,102). It implies that a jeremiad constitutes an effort to identify a certain situation of the society in its context followed by the attempt to suggest a certain knowledge or solution and to shape certain expected attitude

as the result of reflecting upon that particular situation. That situation is in the text filled with the content of the context. In relation to the text based language teaching, applying the jeremiadic approach proposes the phases of comprehending of the situation of text in sequence with the examination of the situation in digging out references and knowledge as a solution and, then, expressing the expectation as the reflection of the text examination. These phases are in line with the synthesis stating that text based language learning is practiced in phase by phase model (Mahsun, 2013). It could be began by teachers' attempt to set up a context, finding out a model for reference and building the text together and concluded by reproducing the text as an outcome. Similarly, the jeremiadic approach basically consist of the three structural aspects such as the lamentation of the present, the evocation of the past and the calling for renewal or return to the better conduct to deal with the future which, for the text based language learning context, inspire the practice of three structural phases of activity namely text explanation, text examination and text expectation.

The Structure of Jeremiadic Approach

a. The Lamentation of the present-Text Explanation

At the beginning the emergence of a Puritan jeremiad is not apart from the condition of the people in the early America as the New World. Problems could occur in the people in the New World. In the Puritan perspective, the rise of these perils could have come from the acts of people which are no longer in the frame of the obedience as prescribed in the covenantal relationship. Whenever people (Puritan viewed themselves as the chosen people) turn their focus from the divine path, they would behold the coming of afflictions which are intended to drive them back to the right path. It is in this part that the Puritan leaders, who are also religious leaders as well, interpret the biblical text into the circumstances of the people in their society.

Related to this way of interpretation, Madsen proposed, “the afflictions can be seen as a sign of God’s ultimate favour but also of His immediate wrath; suffering is a sign that changes must be made to renew personal and collective faith in the terms of the covenant” (1998, p. 25). In the other words, the rise of affliction functions as “God’s reminder of to renew faith and commitment to the covenant”. This indicates that the interpretation of jeremiadic tendency tries to link the text with the situation of the society. It laments the present condition of the society and shows the cause of the problems. By voicing this affliction and claiming its cause (s), the jeremiad becomes meaningful to lead people to the appropriate and expected path. Thus, the points of the jeremiad reflect the attempt to give the meaning to the situation faced by the society and the identification of its cause (s). Here the role of the interpretation, which involves the understanding of the socio-cultural, economic and political condition of the society where that particular jeremiad is delivered, relies upon the relationship between the reality and text. This explains the emergence of the text.

At this point, a jeremiad inspires its connection with the practice of language teaching in terms of text-based one. Likewise the preacher of a jeremiad, a teacher builds up the context of a text. If a preacher explains the ongoing situation which constitutes a crucial step in the creation of a jeremiad, a teacher, then, will explains the emergence of the text including the background of the text, the kinds of text, and all of aspects that might be related to the creation of the texts. Similar to a jeremiad, the comprehension of the situation of the text serves to be the first activity to be done in the class room. Here, teachers may explore the questions of what, why, and how integratively under the purpose of answering and finding the explanation about the text. It gives

the information of what was happening contextually, what problem was faced both values/norms and textual, and what was the cause as well as the commentary (lamentation) on it.

This guides that the jeremiadic approach for language teaching prescribes the identification of the text, the observation of the context, and the commentary on as well as association of the text with the learners’ context. These activities of course underlines the communicative and inferential functions of the learnt language, in this case, English. The text and the language are met contextually as facilitated by teachers. The hope of having a meaningful teaching of language is bridged and even motivating since learners are involved in the attempts to explain the existence of the text through identification, observation and ‘lamentation’.

b. The Evocation of the Past-Text Examination

Another fundamental element of the Puritan jeremiads is the inclination to evoke the past values or principle in relation to the text (Maru, 2013). This element is certainly related to the first element or might be stated as the response toward the lamentation of the present. It develops the logic that when a society recognized their crisis, they also realized that they could make a turning point by returning to their values. Andrew R Murphy (2009) synthesized, “Jeremiads usually propose a specific time in the past when destructive ideas or practices first appeared, and trace their effect over subsequent years” (p.6). This clarifies that, for a jeremiad, the past could be a reference when the present decline emerges. Jeremiad preachers claim the needs to reconcile the past with the present situation for the possible resolution. The past is reclaimed as the model for the attempt to solve the present perils. The past values are evoked to bring the enlightenment to face the decline of the society. The values could be the spirits, perspectives, attitudes and even moments or event of the past as well as the religious and cultural precepts that may inspire the resolution for the ongoing problems.

Relating this synthesis to English language teaching, this second phase of the structure suggests that the application of jeremiadic approach in this part requires the effort to connect reference to values and norms or knowledge in order to deal with context of the text. It is a kind of response toward the explanation of the text situation done in the previous first structure. Hence, in the teaching activities, teachers are challenged to be able to encourage learners to discover references, the past frames or experiences or values and attitude in the forms of the quotations from readings, and expressions of the great figures or founders, heroic deeds and events, and the holy books as well as the lessons from their environment. This clarifies that within this phase the class activity covers the deep examination of the text. A holistic comprehension of the text colours this phase. The interactions among teachers and learners using English are intended to dig out any relevant situation to the text. In other words, the learners' ability to interpret and to infer information from the text, which indicates the practice of language skills, is enriched with the attempts to discover related knowledge from both reality and reading resources. It seems here that there is an aspect of replication or reproduction in the phase. Thus, it can be formulated that this second phase of the jeremiadic approach constitutes the activity of the text examination involving the ability of applying, associating, experimenting and even reproducing. By this way, it appears that a text acts as an arena for teachers to establish learners' critical thinking and proper usage of language as well.

c. The Hope for the Renewal-Text Expectation

Following the lamentation of crisis or affliction and the looking back to the past, the call for renewal constitutes the other element of jeremiad (Murphy, 2009, p.9). As jeremiads

delineated the awareness of what has been the crisis befalling upon the society, what brings it to happen and what had been taught by the past for overcoming it, the question of what should be done comes to be crucial. The return to the past model such as Scripture citations and founding values as well as heroic figures would be meaningless without the action of renewing the present for the future betterment. Together with the message of present affliction as the signals of the divine displeasure and its cause(s), it arises "claims about what must be done to set the nation on the right path" (Murphy, 2009.p.9). In other words, jeremiads advocate a calling for action to renew the crisis into a right way within which the promise of better life is at reach. Such aspect of renewal adds the other structural content such as the lamentation of the present and the encouragement and solution by the lessons of the past. The demand for renewal leads people both to repentance from their inappropriate deeds and expectation for a more promising life. It constitutes the pragmatic nuances of a jeremiad that was to re-establish the community from the threat of destruction. This makes a jeremiad to be typical by describing and criticizing over the present circumstance and at the same time bringing the hope of better tomorrow. It can be synthesized that the role of jeremiad to preserve the values of the community and to guide them to arrive at the commonly shared expectation.

Within the inspiration of such perspective, the conduction of English language teaching prescribes the finding of the pragmatic messages of a text. As the text goes through the explanation and examination phases, it has to come to an expectation. In resemblance with the calling for renewal, a text may have an expectation within it. It refers to a certain expected outputs. After understanding a text and its context, the learners are hoped to gain certain skill and knowledge as well as attitude. This synthesizes that a text bridges the acquisition of the language in contextual use and the acceleration of skill as well as the realization and discovery of knowledge and attitude which are applicable for the more usages in the coming social interaction. It can also be stated that in this last structure of the jeremidiac approach, it frames actions, views and hopes conveyed in the practice of language based upon a text.

Conclusion

In brief, the jeremiadic approach constitutes a kind of textual analysis which is originally derived from the American jeremiad tradition and inspires the phases of teaching English based upon a text. The jeremiadic approach consists of three phases in arriving at the goals of teaching as framed in the 2013 Curriculum. The phases comprises with the text explanation as the first one which prescribes the identification of the situation of the text as the attempt to link the text with its context as well as the comprehension of the kinds or the background of the text. The second phase deals with the text examination activity that synthesizes the effort to connect the text with references, values or attitudes as interpreted by the learners. The last phase constitutes the pragmatical sense of the text which is defined as the text expectation activity. It underlines the expectation after conducting the first and the second phase. It comes to the values, attitude, and knowledge as well as skill expected after using the text in the classroom activities. The important aspect needed to be emphasized in phases is the achievement of using language in the context or the gaining of the communicative function of the language for the learners in their various social interactions.

References

Bellah, Robert. (1992). The Broken Covenant: American Civil Religion in Time of Trial. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Elliot, Emory, (2002) Early American Literature. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Friedman, Rachelle E. (2001). "Puritanism As A Cultural and Intellectual Force". In Cayton, Mary Kupiec. and Peter W Williams (Eds). Encyclopedia of American Cultural & Intellectual History. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Gould, Lewis L. (2003). The Modern American Presidency. Kansas: The University Press of Kansas.

Lemay, J.A Leo (Ed). (1988). An Early American Reader. Washington, D.C: United States Information Agency.

Madsen, Deborah. (1998). American Exceptionalism. Jackson: University Press of Mississippi.

Mahsun, Pembelajaran Teks Dalam Kurikulum 2013, ://kemdikbud.go.id/kemdikbud/artikel-kurikulum-mahsun.

Maru, Mister Gidion , (2013) "Jeremiad Frames in Reagan's Inaugural Address", Journal Humaniora (UGM) Vol 25, No 1, February 2013.

______, (2013), Puritanism in American Presidents' Mark of Power: A Study on The Inaugural Addresses from Reagan to Obama, FIB-UGM, Dissertation

Medhurst, Martin J. (2010). In Michael Nelson And Rusell L Riley (Eds). The President Words: Speeches and Speechwriting in the Modern White House. Kansas: University of Kansas Press

Miller, Perry. (1953). The New England Mind, From Colony to Province. USA: Harvard University Press.

Murphy, Andrew R. (2009). Prodigal Son: Moral Decline and Divine Punishment from New England to 9/11. New York: Oxford University Press

Nuh, Mohammad, "Kurrikulum 2013", Kompas, 7 Maret 2013

Rohler. Lloyd E, and Roger Cook. (1986). Great Speeches. Vol I. Indiana: Greenwood.

Smith, Craig Allen, and Kathy B Smith. (1994). The White House Speaks: Presidential Leadership as Persuasion. West Port: Praeger Publisher

The Use of Theme-based Approach (TBA) in Teaching English Conversation

Sarlita Dewi Matra
Pekalongan University (UNIKAL)
starlighta_unique@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study was a description of Theme-Based Approach (TBA) in teaching English conversation (EC). The writer described the implementation of TBA; the problems faced by the students and described both the strengths and the weaknesses of TBA in teaching EC. The writer chose an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) class then observed the teaching-learning process of EC when TBA was used. The problems faced by the students were lack of vocabularies, fluency, and self-confidence and had grammatical errors. The interactions between teacher and students took major parts in founding the strengths and the weaknesses of TBA. The strengths of TBA were increasing the students' intersests; sharing and expanding the students' knowledge; building the students' tolerant and training the students' self-confidence. The weaknesses of it were the teacher did not give any feedback to motivate the students and also did not use any media in teaching EC based on the theme.

Keywords: TBA, ESP, EC

Background

In language teaching we often talk about the four language skills; speaking, listening, reading and writing. Speaking is defined as an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information (Florez, 1999:1). Speaking is such a fundamental human behavior that we don't stop to analyze. An important concept for teachers to understand is that while students are at the beginning and intermediate levels of language learning, that is, while they are still developing their proficiency, fluency and accuracy often work against each other. There are many "speech acts" (or functions) in any language, and it is important that students learn the appropriate ways and methods to accomplish their goals when they are speaking.

Principles of TBA

The principles of the TBA always work with a theme. Theme is a topic or subject for discussion, which English activities can revolve around and use it language potential (Wachs, 1994).

There are four the principles of TBA; the principle that include subconscious process of language learning through the purposes of language use and analyzing language structures is avoided; meaningful principle which implies that what students will learn should be related to what they know and experience, his requires the English teaching and learning processes capture students' interests and needs; intrinsic motivation principle indicates that the practice of English teaching and learning should be motivation for the students, the principle implies that teaching should at least create and sustain student's curiosity, provide a variety of activities and sensory stimulation, relate learning to students' needs and set goals for learning; communicative principle means that the English teaching should help students acquire and develop communicative competence. In practice, the competence is realized in the students' ability to use the four language skills in their communication (Brown,1994). TBA gets learners learning how to communicate in English in meaningful ways. It also requires knowledge of different activity types for planning (Brannigan, 2011).

Research Design

The design of this research was descriptive - qualitative, where the researcher only described the data qualitatively and the result of investigation will be created by the researcher's words. The researcher did this research at the students at the Fifth Semester Students of Pekalongan University in the Academic Year of 2012/2013 and the time was at the 17^{th} and 24^{th} of May 2013.

Implementation of TBA in teaching EC

On the 17^{th} of May 2013 the lecturer did not teach English conversation directly but she refreshed the previous material about the *Expression of Surprise*. The lecturer asked them to make a conversation by group work. The group was chosen by the lecturer based on the students' seats, each group consists of 5 or 6 students and there were 6 groups. She asked the students to make the theme-based conversation that she provided. The themes were about Sport, Music, Entertainment and Indonesia. She also gave the sub-themes that made the themes more specific and each theme had four sub-themes. The students were free to chose the themes and sub-themes based on their interests. This matches to the one of design of TBA that Sundayana delivered on his seminar, where this approach sets the themes considering students interest.

On the 24th of May 2013, the lesson begins at 7.00 am. Some students were still memorizing the conversation text they made the previous day, some had not finish their works and only one group were ready to perform. In twenty minutes, the lecturer called the group randomly. The detail informations of each conversation can be seen in appendices pages.

Problems Faced by the Students in Mastering EC Based on the Theme

Based on the observation, a questionnaire and an interview to the students, the researcher could describe the problem faced by students. First, some students' lack of self-confidences. They did not have self-confidence and were very nervous to come forward then spoke in front of the class. Those factors influenced to their voice, they spoke with a low voice , unclear and did not remember the parts in their conversation. Because of that case, the lecturer and other students could not get the nervous students were talking about in front of the class.

Second, students' significant grammatical errors. The students made a lot of errors in arranging their sentences and it influenced to the students performance. Most of the students got confused with English grammar easily, in other side grammar was very needed to form right sentences because if they did not have grammar mastery, they would not be able to produce sentences with grammatically correct. Realizing that their grammars were very weak, they felt embarrassed to produce English sentences orally. That problem made them spoke with a low voice and unclear.

Third, the students' lack of vocabularies and selecting words problems. Vocabulary is a group of words to make sentence structure in conveying idea or message to the listener. The errors that the students made about selecting words affected to the listeners' comprehensibility and could made misunderstanding.

Fourth, the students' problems of pronunciation and fluency. Most of the students could not pronounce the words correctly. That problem influenced to their fluency, furthermore it was

not only because of their pronunciation and fluency but also caused by they did not remember what they should have said when practicing the conversation in front of the class. However, it made their conversation seemed not naturally.

Strengths and Weaknesses of TBA in Teaching EC

Every teaching approach has their own strengths and weaknesses. The result of the strengths and weaknesses were based on the observation, questionnaire and interview to the students also the lecturer.

The Strengths

The strengths of TBA in teaching teaching-learning process of EC class were: first it was interesting for the students. In teaching-learning process of English conversation, the lecturer provided some themes and sub-themes in intention to make the students could chose one of them then made it as a subject of their conversation. However, that approach made the students got more interest and enthusiastic to the lesson. The lecturer also asked the students to insert the *Expression of Surprise* in their conversation because they were still learning about that subject. The students told the researcher that they enjoyed the teaching-learning process and wanted to learn the theme-based conversation again at next time.

Second, it allowed sharing and expansion the students' knowledge. By talking about their favourite theme, the students could explore what they know about the theme and sub-theme they chose then share it to their friends, so they could change much new information.

Third, it made the teaching-learning process more alive. The students made their conversation by group work furthermore the lecturer controlled them by walking around to see how they worked together. It made the teaching-learning process more alive because there were positive interactions between students and students. There were interaction among the students also between the lecturer and the students. The positive interactions were discussing about the content of their conversations and asked the lecturer about the English of certain words.

Fourth, it trained the students' self-confidence. After making the conversation, the students must perform it in front of the class. However by performing, the students could have a self-confidence to come forward and speak up.

The Weaknesses

The weaknesses of TBA in teaching teaching-learning process of EC: first, the big number of students in each group. Because of that problem, the students could not express and explore their skill deeper. She underlined that the problem was only the time allocation. In other side, the students felt they could not explore their skills deeper, because they must manage and divide the speech chance to other members.

Second, the lecturer did not correct the students' grammar and pronunciation errors. When the researcher asked the lecturer about it, she answered because at that time they were still learning the *Expression of Surprise*, moreover she did not notice to the students' pronunciation because they spoke unclear and with a low voice. In other hand, the components of speaking include grammar and pronunciation abilities. If the lecturer did not correct the students' grammar and pronunciation errors, it means that she let the students repeat the same faults at the other days and they could not reach conversation or speaking skills well.

Conclusion

TBA is considered as a good approach in teaching language for adult learners because it offers exciting possibilities to the students and the lecturer. There is a real potential for effective language learning by building on the students' interests, the skills and knowledge of speaking especially conversation are developed in meaningful ways.

The teaching-learning process of EC based on the assigned theme was interesting for the students. The students chose their theme and sub-theme themselves, so they could share and get information from one another. The researcher found some problems which were faced by the students as well as some strengths and weaknesses in the use of TBA in teaching EC.

Embracing different voices on the elimination of English at the primary level: viewed through SLA perspectives

Yakob Metboki
Graduate Program of English Education – Faculty of Languages and Arts
State University of Semarang

Abstract

The new educational curriculum in Indonesia has been introduced. In that, three subjects are eliminated from its structure in the primary level. English is one of those. Interestingly, the policy makers deliver different reasons upon its elimination. This merely remains questions for public. Having legalized the elimination, however, there are still many voices which stress on different logical arguments. This study aimed at embracing the voices through which a number of relevant concepts stemmed from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) will be delivered. The data are gained by applying some techniques of the triangulation method. Once the data are gained, there is theoretical review to root the responses due to SLA perspectives. Significantly, the study shows that the policy has remained such a dilemmatic discourse. Similarly, there seems to be not logical reasons to eliminate the subject at present. It is expected that the study would shed light another view on the policy for further responses.

Keywords: English Subject, primary level, elimination, SLA

Introduction

In Indonesia, the ELT practices have been emerged into structure of the educational curriculum since the release of the Unit Level Curriculum (KTSP). The subject is considered as one of the local contents. For its accessibility, some institutions adapt it into teaching and learning. Therefore, there are two terms 'bilingual' and 'immersion'. These two terms are equally important, once the institutions promote the ELT practices through a number of alternative programs, especially in the international-based institutions. In its complexity, however, teachers and students are, hand in hand, considering the subject to bring joy and happiness, rather than, the existing ones.

Purnama (2014: 373-381) on *"Learning English as Foreign Language in Modern Islamic Elementary Schools: Between Need and ability of the Young Learners"* describes all of the single parts of topic hanging together on the main issue of the elimination of the subject at the primary level. The study presents a long debate among the Indonesian experts upon the controversy. For the researcher, there is no significant factor deviating the young learners' learning.

Based on the short review of the study, however, the government has been considering the subject to be eliminated. Not only that, but also two other ones, Sport Education and TIK (stands for technology and Informatics). Since the beginning of school year 2013/2014, the Minister of Education has announced to all the institutions to consider the policy. Nevertheless, the fact shows that many are criticizing the motion.

Considering this, I am inspired to present this study with a purpose to shed light knowledge on the main discourse concerning the comments on the elimination of the English subject at the primary level. All the comments are taken in to discussion from the perspective of Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

Procedure

Two sources of data were used for this study. The data are comments from the commentators. All the commentators' names are written in pseudonym (C), so that, there would be ten Cs along the content report of study. The first technique is ***documentation*** was conducted to gain the secondary data from the internet. On the internet, I gained the first data Kompas, its headline is about the elimination of the three subjects, English, Sport Education and Technology

and Informatics (TIK); second, ***questionnaire*** was delivered to get comments about the eliminated subject at the primary level. The formulation of the question is derived from the nature of the issue on Kompas and the Facebook. The Statement: Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris, Pejaskes, dan TIK dihapus di SD (The English, Sport Education, and Technology and Informatics are eliminated at the primary school). Question: Apa komentar anda? What is your comment?) Concerning the reliability of the question, I found one forum on the Facebook. On two people's walls written on that,

1. "Good morning, i wanna ask for all of the teacher, what do you think about the desicion goverment that abolish English lesson for Elementary School? Is that good or ??? Please give your explanation..."
2. Kemendikbud merencanakan untk kurikulum bru bhwa pelajaran bhasa inggris akan di hapus. Bgaimana pendapat anda selaku guru b.inggris? (The minister of education, on the new curriculum, is planned to eliminate the English subject at the primary schools. As the English teachers, how is your response?

For its more reliability, I ask for a friend of mine. His major is sport to write on his facebook wall the following writing:

"Mata Pelajaran Bahasa Inggris, Penjaskes dan TIK dihapus di SD..Apa komentar anda?"

This is similar as the ones above both on Kompas and the Facebook.

Problem of this study are *(a)* "what are the comments on the elimination of the English subject at the primary level?; *(b)* How do SLA perspectives stand for the comments?

Findings

People's valuable comments viewed from SLA

C1: practices and exercises promote successful learning of English.

Through practices and exercises, there would be interaction. Johnson (2004:117-119) addresses some significances of interaction. *(a)* Interaction realizes the goal of the participants. Once the students are engaged in an interaction, they would attempt to transmit their goals. Young learners must be willing to try delivering their intents on English. *(b)* There is setting for successful message sending and receiving linguistic information. In a spontaneous way, students might be eager to know the new language by taking part along the casual chunks. The more they are involved in casual chunks, the better they internalize the linguistic information. In contrast, those who have not experienced any might be left behind in the sequential plan. *(c)* There is processing of the incoming inputs. What are the inputs? They are linguistics inputs gained through communication (Goh, 2004, 70-71). Through communication, teacher and students may realize all the things to change in spontaneous way. Vigotsky maintains that "the importance of change in as the main factor in human social development" (Vigotsky in Johnson, 2004: 106).

C2: The second commentator illustrates the facts from the past event, present event, and predicting something to happen in the future.

What we could see from this comment is a high expectation for future generation.

C3: The third commentator leads us to see the factual conditions along with the ELT practice in our education.

Let's make three statements to connect to the reflecting question, "is the English subject in the primary level *eliminated? Banned? Deleted? or, Eradicated?*

In its long journey,

1. ELT practice in the primary level is tried out (CBC, 1993 - Unit Level Curriculum, early 2013).
2. ELT practices in the primary level are questionable (an issue at the end of 2012- 2013).
3. Is the English subject in the primary level *eliminated? Banned? Deleted? or, Eradicated?*

Every single answer might lead to a wide shot discussion.

C4: This commentator is not very sure about the concept of sequential development in our education.

Goh (2004: 58) characterizes the sequential development as "learning one language first and then begins to learn another later in life". What the commentator means was students might not memorize the basic things when they need go to higher education.

Ellis, an SLA expert, introduces the concept "external factors", in that, students in their individual stance experience and reflects the language learning through social milieu, attitude, and input they receive. Meanwhile, for the internal factor, students would be given chunks to know how to employ their basic level of cognitive mechanisms on how language works to extract information about the use of the target language (English) in real situations (Ellis, 1997: 4-5). Any construct of external and internal factors might work through such internalization (Vigotsky in Johnson, 2004: 108); hence, students would have been participating in social or interpersonal activities. Similarly, they internalize the patterns of these social activities from their present levels.

Once the subject is legally eliminated, people are worry about their children's English language development. From the comments, we could see how people want the golden generation to be familiar with the basic aspects of the language (English) before they enrol to the junior level. Goh and Silver (2004: 121-136) have initiated aspects of language and practical examples simultaneously. In the primary level, aspects of semantic, syntactic, morphology, phonological, and pragmatic are very possible to develop. One may argue that the young learners need skills to deal with these aspects. To this motion, Vigotsky, in his third principle proves that "language regulates and facilitates not only the child's manipulation of objects but also his or her behaviour" (Vigotsky in Johnson, 2004:111).

The following is also another incredible motion. It sounds so sceptic that students in this level must be free from too many subjects, so that, English is better eliminated. If only this is the most reasonable argument towards its elimination; then, children are very potential people in language development, of course, except those of adults (Baker, 1998: 90). Once the students need to process as much as possible information (content), Goh and Silver integrate experts' concepts into three strategies, cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective. The use of these strategies might lose our anxiety upon students' learning motivation (Goh and Silver, 2004: 186).

Much of the comments also stress on the practices and exercises. Of course, these are potential chunks where things done by nature, which is through *interaction* (Goh and Silver, 2004: 207), *internalization* and *appropriation* (Johnson, 2004: 109), and *developmental patterns* (Ellis, 1997: 20-25). The italic concepts imply communication, so that, there is interaction not only child-child, but also adult-child. This yields an important context for children to be socialized in the use of language". Similarly, language is seen not a subject, but "a socialization tool for helping children take on beliefs and behaviours appropriate for their role their society" (Goh and Silver (2004: 211). Similarly, students do not simply learn English to reach the communicative competence, but, also "the values, practices, identities, ideologies, and stances of that community (Duf and Talmy, 2011: 98).

C5: The commentator wants a solution.

For this comment, Goh (2004: 25) permits the English teachers to be interactionists. By this way, students are promoted the meaningful linguistic input from the environment, the

importance of communicative from the environment, the pragmatic intentions, and the conversational adjustments.

The term 'communicative' must sound familiar in the ears of the ELT practitioners. It deals with competence. Among the competences under the umbrella of communicative competence, Discourse Competence is set at the heart diagram (Celce-Murcia, 1997: 3). To reach it, students must know how to use the language, not only in the spoken form, but also in the written form in different context of situations. Between these two forms of language, there lies a continuum. Hence, the primary school students need models to move from one to another end. Of course, interaction permits learning the models of using English for different context of situations. Once the students have chance to interact with adults (teachers, friends, and more capable others), there must be contingent speech, which indicates that they initiate a topic, followed by responses and comments (Goh and Silver, 2004: 210).

The commentators expect something more than its elimination. Clearly, the policy makers do not focus on "how to I make the language learning a part of the students' life in the future" (modified from Leaver, Ehrman, and Shekhtman, 2005: 3). One thing for sure, that English is set as for supplementary subject in action. The question might "Are we ready to maintain the specific role of output towards their language acquisition?" Van Patten claims that output can promote acquisition but that it does not appear to be necessary (Van Patten in Erlam, Loewen and Philp, 2009: 242). Hence, we have to plan for the L2 learners accesses to get inputs. For Elis, there are four accesses available, except the one (no access), there are complete access, partial access, and dual access (Ellis, 1997: 69). To imply each of these accesses, I would argue that the serving of inputs would remain effect to students' simultaneous language learning and literacy development.

C6: The fifth commentator wants the government to empower the English teachers.

This sounds more objective. By empowering the teachers, they must be more capable others to help increasing their students' English level from the existing one reaching to the pre-determined one. By regular training, teachers can stand as problem solvers in every Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

C7: Successful language learning must start from this level

The commentator maintains that the students at the subject should have been taught formally from this level.

C8: she wants a comparative study to differentiate between the practices of ELT in the past and present.

It would be better if you do a comparative study; compare between those who in the past learn English in elementary school and who didn't.

C9: He was wondering the complexity of beginning all the basic elements at the junior level.

Once it is eliminated, C9 indicates that the late generation would have to start learning those of basic aspects of language, such as the alphabets, colours, numbers, animals, and things surrounding.

C10: An effective bilingual program is recommended

We must have a number of examples on successful bilingual program in certain countries. Of course, the Indonesian government could take many notes from those. \

Discussion

This study has revealed two significant findings, as follows:

First, a dilemmatic policy

Seeing the variety of comments on the motion, ELT practice in the primary level has been such a dramatic and controversial topic in the heart of SLA. To date there has been little agreement on the decision; many parties are still commenting the essence of the curriculum guidelines. What they argue was about the complexity of the stated competences and the way to realize them into measurement. It is, therefore, we could see that the comments are, of course, objective emotions.

Second, the melting of the Literacy Approach

TV ONE, a television station (November 27, 2013) outlines a surprising news, where the ministry of education releases the 3.6 million people of the country to be illiterate (TV ONE. To me, this shows such a discrepancy of what has been programmed on educational lines. In fact, the government has just stated the obvious; meanwhile, the main issue would be about the maintenance of an approach to generate the educational practices for the whole subject.

Up to these days, the Literacy Approach is on promotion for the ELT practitioners. The Unit Level Curriculum (KTSP) yields the approach constituting four levels, performative level (primary school), functional level (junior level), analysis level (senior level); and, epistemic level (college level).

Concerning the strict decision on the elimination of the subject at the basic level, we could infer that there would be a violation to students' (L2 learners) language development due to the collapse of the approach. Similarly, the promoting programs to reduce the numbers of illiterate people might be mere drill to get things done, yet remaining future tasks.

Third, a case of language acquisition and development

Once again, the lost of the subject on the race of language development in this heterogeneous country is simply an old fashion concerning the fact of maintaining the life its local languages (Zein, 2011).

Fourth, the importance of English for global community

English has emerged in to the specific domains of global community's everyday life. Communication is everywhere, and, everyone must be competent in that. For this motion, Communicative Competence is needed. Experts have contemplated the competence in such a long journey. What the experts have resulted into concepts and practical guides have also brought impact to the way ELT practices run through its objection.

Conclusion

This study has given an account of and the reasons for the controversial issue of the 2013 curriculum. In reviewing the literature, the reason for the association between the existence of the subject to be taught and the heavy load of content the students should have in the primary level is not clear. The government must have something to do with dissemination and evaluation, rather than forcing the institutions to deliver the available material in such inconsistent view. More importantly, the review shows that experts have long before provided a number theoretical foundation to view from SLA perspective and their contributions to ELT.

These finding thus add a new insight to the literature on public's expectation and suggestion that there would be developing concepts and motions in the field of language (English) development in the primary school years in Indonesia.

References

Baker, C. (1996). *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. 2nd Ed. New South Wales - Australia: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). Rethinking the Role of Communicative Competence. Soler, A. E., & Jordà, P. S. M. (Eds). Intercultural Language Use in language learning. *41-58.* Dordrecht: Springer.

Duf, A. P., & Talmy, S. (2011). Language socialization approaches to Second Language Acquisition: Social, cultural, and linguistic development in additional languages. In D. Atkinson (ed), *Alternative to Second Language Acquisition* (p.95-116). New York: Routledge

Ellis, R. (1997). *Second Language Acquisition.* H.G. Widdowson (Edr). New York: Oxford University Press.

Erlam, R., Loewen, S., & Philp, J. (2009). The Roles of Output-based and Input-based Instruction in the Acquisition of L2 Implicit and Explicit Knowledge. R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C, Elder, R, Erlam, J, Philp and H, Reinders (eds) *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in Second Language Learning, Testing and Teaching* (p.241-261). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Goh, C. M. S., & Silver, E. R. (2004). *Language Acquisition and Development: A teachers' guide.* Singapore: Pearson Education South Asia.

Johnson, M. (2004). *Philosophy of Second Language Acquisition.* London: Yale University Press.

Leaver, B. L., Ehrman, M., & Shekhtman, B. (2005). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Universitas Jenderal Soedirman, Purwokerto. Purnama, Y. (2014). Learning English as Foreign Language in Modern Islamic Elementary Schools: Between Need and ability of the Young Learners. Proceeding of the 1st COLALITE 2013, 373-381.

The Jakarta Post. 2011. Maintaining 'partly alive' languages in Indonesia. Opinion by Mochamad Subhan Zein, Saturday, 04/02/2011.

Enhancing Students' Grammatical Competence through Teaching Grammar at Discourse Level

Sri Mulatsih
Dian Nuswantoro University of Semarang
asihpnrg@yahoo.com

Abstract

Most ESL/EFL teachers tend to view 'grammar' as an inclusively sentence-level phenomenon. This perspective is outmoded and has had negative consequences for the way in which grammar is taught. Since communicative competence is the foundation of communicative language teaching, it is clearly important that when we move beyond the sentence level. This paper is aimed at describing the teaching of grammar through discourse level to enhance the students' grammatical competence. This paper is limited on the use of four types of cohesive divices in English that are related to the grammar of texts. They are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. The subjects of this study are the second semester students of English Department, Dian Nuswantoro University. The result showed that teaching grammar at discourse level enhanced the students' grammatical competence and it is needed to teach the students the rules of grammar that will serve them when they read or write English for academic and communicative purpose.

Keywords: discourse level, grammar, grammatical competence, teaching

Introduction

Discourse-based teaching using authentic written and spoken discourse can be a perfect resource for teachers to teach the different language skills. For instance, through a newspaper article, a letter or an extract from a book, a teacher can teach a grammar rule. Students can learn the rule, how it is used in context as well as learn new vocabulary and benefit from reading the article. Then through using the same piece of discourse, students can practice speaking through

retelling the information in the article to a partner/to the class, with an emphasis on using the taught grammar point correctly.

It appears that if teaching aims at enabling students, as users of the language, to discover the ways in which language is used in real communication, grammar pedagogy should cease to be looked solely at from a formal viewpoint. Rather, attention should be shifted to understanding how grammatical items (words and sentences) combine to generate meaningful discourse and how grammatical options are employed to achieve various meanings of utterances. It seems clear that high level of grammatical competence is not sufficient for students to recognize and produce socially and contextually appropriate language. The trend has turned towards a methodology that is consistent with the use of more differentiated spectrum of discourse lubricants and strategies.

Most ESL/EFL teachers tend to view 'grammar' as an inclusively sentence-level phenomenon. This perspective is outmoded and has had negative consequences for the way in which grammar is taught. Since communicative competence is the foundation of communicative language teaching, it is clearly important that when we move beyond the sentence level. Based on the statement above this paper is aimed at describing the teaching of grammar through discourse level to enhance the students' grammatical competence.

Teaching Grammar

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well.

In presenting grammar, teachers should be aware that they teach grammar but not teach about grammar or as Lewis (1986) states "language learning is more important than language teaching". Besides, the main goal in grammar teaching is to enable learners to achieve linguistic competence and to be able to use grammar as a tool or resource in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse efficiently, effectively, and appropriately according to the situation.

Celce-Murcia and Hilles(1988) are in agreement with Larsen-Freeman (1991) that grammar should never be taught as an end in itself but always with reference to meaning, social function, or discourse or a combination of these factors. In other words, teachers are required to have a knowledge of linguistics, because teaching grammar as meaning and discourse entails a knowledge of syntax. As Fromkin et al.(1990:159)explain "syntactic knowledge plays a role in determining when two non-identical sentences have the same meaning and when they do not". Besides, a teacher's knowledge of pragmatics will help learners to understand many aspects of language use such as social function. Furthermore, teachers should teach learners to understand how language is used in context and encourage them to use it in appropriate contexts as well.

Method

Subjects

This research was conducted in the Intermediate Grammar course of the second semester English department students of Faculty of languages and Letters Dian Nuswantroro University in 2013. The subjects were 20 students taking the course.

Research Procedure

The research was done by implementing the teaching of grammar through the discourse level. This classroom action research was conducted in three cycles . Every cycle consists of four steps: planning, treatment, observation, and reflection. Planning was conducted by preparing the materials used for the treatment in every cycle. Treatment was conducted by applying the teaching of grammar through discourse level. Observation was conducted by observing and

scoring the students' grammatical competence; and reflection was conducted by evaluating all of the actions done in the first cycle and its result seen from the students' average score of the grammar.

Technique of Data Analysis

To know the students's grammatical competence, the data, in the form of students' grammar scores , were scored and analyzed. The data analysis technique used in this study was statistical analysis using Paired Sample T-Test formula. This formula worked by comparing the scores from cycle to cycle. The mean scores tendencies from cycle to cycle showed the effects of the given treatments/actions. This means that if the mean scores increase, the given action is considered effective and vice versa.

Result and Discussion

Result

During the action research the four tests were given to the students. In each test the students were asked to do grammar tests at certain topic. The first test was done in the pre-test, and the other tests were done in the three cycles. Table 1 shows the mean of grammatical competence achieved by the students in the four tests.

Table 1: Mean Score of T1 – T4

Test	N*	Mean Score
T_1	20	60.5
T_2	20	65.5
T_3	20	70.7
T_4	20	77.6

N = The Number of Subjects

From table 1, it can be said that the mean score for the first test was 60.5. In the second test, the mean score increased by 5 point into 65.5, and it increased by 5.2 in the third test. In the fourth test, the mean score increased by 6.9 into 77.6. The increased mean scores of T_1, T_2, T_3, and T_4 from 60.5, 65.5, 70.7, and 77.6 was significant. This means that the lecturer's intervention by teaching grammar through discourse level to the students really improved the students' grammatical competence.

Discussion

As stated in the first part, this study is focused on the use of four types of cohesive divices in English that are related to the grammar of texts. They are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. In every cycle the students were given a test after they were given a treatment about the teaching of grammar at discourse level (except in cycle one/pre-test). The example of tests of grammar can be seen below:

> *Mary could not go with me (1)...... I invited Anne instead. Anne was very happy to accept my invitation (2) .....the film was ver popular. Anne and I had a good time (3)....next day Mary was very angry. " Do you love me (4).....do you love Anne?" She asked me. " I like both you (5).....Anne." I answered. "Look" said Mary. " Either youn go out with me (6).......you go out with Anne. You can't love both me (7).....Anne at the same time. "Why not?" I answered. It's not fair (8)......I only love you. Actually I prefer Anne (9) ......Mary, (10) ....Mary is a selfish girl.*

The example of tests above shows how conjunctions are taught in the level of discourse. By this teaching it is expected the students will be aware of using conjunctions in context. The students will know the ties of meaning between one sentence and another sentence.

Conclusion

From the explanation above it can be concluded that teaching grammar through discourse level enhanced the students' grammatical competence and it is needed to teach the students the rules of grammar that will serve them when they read or write English for academic and communicative purpose. This teaching also gives several advantages. They are teaching language as a set of choices; providing opportunities for learners to explore grammatical and discoursal relationships in authentic data; teaching language in ways that make form/function relationships transparent; encouraging learners to become active explorers of language; encouraging learners to explore relationships between grammar and discourse.

References

Celce-Murcia,M.& Hilles,S. (1988). *Techniques and resources in teaching grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M. & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teachers course*. 2nd edition. Boston: Thomson Heinle.

Celce-Murcia, M. & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Celce – Murcia . "Describing and Teaching English Grammar with Reference to Written Discourse" in Miller (2004). *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Application.*

Fromkin,V.etal. (1990). An Introduction to Language(2nd Ed). Sydney: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Larsen-Freeman,D. (1991). Teaching Grammar. In M.Celce-Murcia(Ed.) Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. New York: Harper & Row/Newbury House.

Lewis,M. (1986).*The English Verb: An Exploration of Structure and Meaning*. UK: Language Teaching Publication.

Nunan,D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bridging the Gap between English Education and English at Work: Making a Stronger Case for Collaborative Learning in ESP Classes

Cecilia TitiekMurniati
English Department – Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang
c.murniati@gmail.com

Abstract

Existing literature on the readiness of college graduate to work suggests that English oral and written skills are among the top required skills in the recruitment process. Additionally, graduates need to possess applied skills such as critical thinking skill, oral communication, and team work/collaboration skill. Therefore, the teaching of ESP should equip not only English skills and subject matter, but it also needs to use methods of delivery that are useful in training students to be fluent in English, knowledgeable in subject matter, and prepared for workforce. Collaborative learning, when implemented effectively, can be one of the means to achieve the goal of preparing students for workforce because it encourages students to use English actively in group activities as well as enhances their critical thinking and collaborative skills.

Keywords: collaborative learning, English for Specific Purposes, English for workforce

Introduction

The gap between collegeeducation and readiness for work has been debated for quite some time. Research has suggested that college students lack the abilities needed to succeed in their professional life (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006; National Center for Education and Economy, 2013). In Indonesia, policy makers have criticized college education for not being able to equip students for the workforce (AntaraNews, 2013; Kompas, 2011). They argue that college curriculum is not aligned with the needs of companies or institutions where college graduates work. In the United States, a study by Casner-Lotto & Barrington (2006) revealed that the four most important basic skills that employers need are spoken English, written English, English reading comprehension, and mathematics. In addition to basic skills, graduates need to equip themselves withapplied skills such as critical thinking/problem solving, oral communications, written communications, and teamwork/collaboration.

Existing studies on collaborative learning in colleges indicate that collaborative learning helps students improve their critical thinking (Gokhale, 1995). It especially benefits students when the tasks involved are complex and require creativity and problem-solving skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1996).Recent research on collaborative learning in English for Specific Purposes classes has also suggested that students have a positive attitude towards collaborative learning pedagogy because it "helps them develop job-related skills, namely team player, flexibility, tolerance, problem-solving and communication skills." (Ayon, 2013)

In non-English departments, some institutions offer English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classes to prepare their graduates for workforce.However, recent literature on the teaching of ESP in Indonesia showed that teachers encountered challenges such as lack of resources, limited teaching time, and lack of motivation (Marwan, 2009). This indicates that teachers of ESP in Indonesia have to revamp the teaching of ESP. New perspectives in terms of materials and methods are vital in making sure that students are motivated to learn English as well as the subject matter. In this paper, I argue that ESP teachers need to incorporate collaborative learning as a way to deliver the materials. Collaborative learning, when implemented effectively, will outweigh the challenges that teachers face in ESP classes such as class sizes and lack of motivation. In this paper, I will discuss the definition and the current literature on the impact of collaborative learning on students' performance as well as whycollaborative learning in ESP classes can bridge the gap between English education and English at work.

The Definition of Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning stems from socio-cognitive approach to learning(Tolmie et al., (2010). Oxford (1997) points out that collaborative learning "…has a 'social constructivist' philosophical base, which views learning as construction of knowledge within a social context and which therefore, encourages acculturation of individuals into a learning community". In other words, learning is a social activity in which each member of a learning community contributes to accomplish a task (Wang & Chen, 2012).

The objective of tasks in collaborative learning is to reach a shared understanding of a certain issue. In completing a joint activity, differing viewpoints are highly encouraged because "it serves as a catalyst and a resource for conceptual change" (Tolmie et al., 2010).

Collaborative Learning and Student's Performance

The impact of collaborative learning in classes has been widely discussed. Existent literature on collaborative learning has focused on face-to-face interaction (Clark et al., 2003; Tolmie at al., 2010) However, the advantages of collaborative learning are also evident in online mediums (Curtis & Lawson, 2001; Hiltz, 1998; Wang & Chen, 2012). Tolmie at al. (2010) studied interaction among children in primary school and they found that collaborative learning has cognitive and social impacts. However, these impacts are indirect. Teachers need to have a certain mechanism to ensure that children use the group works effectively. Group work provides opportunities for children to manage transactional exchanges.

Curtis & Lawson (2001) reported that the impact of collaborative learning in online medium is similar to that in face-to-face situations. They studied what components of collaborative learning in face-to-face interactions spill over to the online collaborative tasks. The

participants of their study were the graduate students who took online classes. In those classes students were asked to accomplish group projects. The findings suggested that students used planned sessions, sought input or feedback, and contributed to the discussion boards. In the study, no one became a free rider, a person who does not contribute anything and tends to go with the group think.

Another study by Wang & Chen (2012) suggests that collaborative learning can also benefit those who prefer to use online medium. Their study focuses on the impact of collaborative learning in cyber face-to-face interaction. They studied 33 students who were taking online interpreting Chinese – English interpreting course. They found that, when facilitated and implemented effectively, collaborative learning can produce practical and pedagogical implications.

Collaborative Learning in ESP Classes

The goal of ESP is to equip students with the English language related to their major or introduce them to the terms and expressions specifically related to a particular field; thus, the teaching of ESP would be more effective if we integrate collaborative learning when we deliver our materials. Knowledge of the subject matter alone is not enough for students to be prepared for workforce .Students can learn about the vocabulary, terms, and technical expressionsfor a particular field. However, to apply what they have learned individually, they need to intensively interact with their friends.

In the professional world, an employee is required to work in teams because basically an organization or an institution is a social entity. Each person works with others to attain the goals set by the corporations or institutions. The success of a corporations or institutions depends on the solid team work. Collaborative learning prepares students to work with their team members in their future career.

When working in teams, the ability to deal with the ambiguity is key. In interactions with other people, miscommunications, arguments, or even conflicts happen. They are inevitable. To reach a consensus, team members often face conflicting ideas or solutions. They need to seek the middle ground that everyone can accept. In other words, in the workplace, the ability to manage conflicts is an essential characteristic of a successful employee. In finding a solution to a problem, it is possible that no one knows the right answer. Therefore, the ability to deal with uncertainties is important in solving a problem. It often happens that a solution stems from an unpopular idea that very few people support. To reach an agreement on the most appropriate solution often takes a lengthy process and require cooperation from each member of a team.

With collaborative learning, we bring our students into the professional atmosphere. We train our students to negotiate meaning and to construct knowledge by working in groups. Each student becomes a member of the learning community and each contributes to the accomplishment of a task. Collaborative learning encourages students to share their ideas and to respect other's ideas. It helps students hone their critical and analytical thinking that, in time, will be indispensable in students' future workplaces. In collaborative learning, students learn to critically analyze the opinions of others and select the ones that could be applied in a particular context and circumstance. In addition, students will also learn to give good feedback or constructive criticism. Working in groups and finding solutions through consensus will increase students' awareness that their contribution is a determinant to a group success.

Concluding Remarks

It is of common assumption that university graduates are not equipped with skills relevant to their future professions. Therefore, English teaching in colleges is designed to make students fluent in both oral and written English. The curriculum is also designed to increase students' knowledge of subject matter. Nevertheless, teaching ESP in colleges is challenging because of certain limitations such as lack of students' motivation, limited time, and lack of quality resources. In order to bridge the gap between English education and English at work, colleges and universities need to redesign their curriculum and integrate collaborative learning. Collaborative learning allows students to negotiate meaning through interaction with other people in the group. When carefully integrated with the materials, collaborative learning encourages students to attest their ability in dealing with uncertainties and potential conflicts. Through group works, students will be able to sharpen their critical and analytical thinking, a characteristic often sought in the professional world.

References

Ayon, N.S. (2013). Collaborative learning in English for specific purposes (ESP) courses: Effectiveness and students' attitudes towards it. *International Journal of Business and Economic Development*. 1(3), 95 – 107.

Casner-Lotto, J & Barrington, L. (2006).*Are they really ready to work?: Employers' perspective on the basic knowledge and applied 21st century U.S. workforce.* Retrieved on January 20, 2014 from http://www.p21.org/storage/documents/FINAL_REPORT_PDF09-29-06.pdf/

Clark, A., Anderson, R. C., Kuo, L., Kim, I., Archodidou, A., & Nguyen-Jahiel, K. (2003). Collaborative reasoning: expanding ways for children to talk and think in school. *Educational Psychology Review*, 15, 181-198

Curtis, D. D., & Lawson, M. J. (2001).Exploring collaborative onlinelearning.*Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, 5(1). Retrieved on January 20, 2014 from http://www.aln.org/alnweb/journal/

Gokhale, A. A. (1995). Collaborative learning enhances critical thinking. *Journal of Technology Education*,7(1), 22–30.

Hiltz, S. R. (1997). *Impacts of college-level courses via asynchronous learning networks: Some preliminary results*. Retrieved on January 20, 2014 from http://eies.njit.edu/~hiltz/workingpapers/philly/philly.htm

Inggried, FNU (2011, July 27). Lulusanperguruantinggiharussiappakai.*Kompas.com*. Retrieved from http://edukasi.kompas.com/read/2011/07/27/09171354/Lulusan.Perguruan.Tinggi.Harus.Siap.Pakai

Marwan, A. (2009). ESP Teaching Challenges In An Indonesian Vocational Higher Institution. *The English Teacher*, 38, 1-12.

National Center for Education and Economy. (2013). *What does it really mean to be college and work ready?*. Retrieved on January 27, 2014 from http://www.ncee.org/college-and-work-ready/

Nurcahyani, I. (2013, July 25). Lulusan IT taksiaphadapiduniakerja?*AntaraNews.com*. Retrieved from http://www.antaranews.com/berita/387401/lulusan-it-tak-siap-hadapi-dunia-kerja

Oxford, R.L. (1997). Cooperative learning, collaborative learning, and interaction: Threecommunicative strands in the language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81(4),443–456.

Tolmie A.K., Topping, K.J., Christie, D., Danaldson, C., Howe,C., Jessiman, E., Livingston, K., & Thurston, A. (2010). Social effect of collaborative: learning in primary schools. *Learning and Instruction*, 20 (3), 177-191.

Wang, Y., & Chen, N.S. (2012).The collaborative language learning attributes of cyber face-to-face interaction: the perspectives of the learner. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 20 (4), 311 – 330.

Measuring the Effectiveness of Google and BNC in Finding Business English Collocations

Tri Nuraniwati
Sekolah Vokasi Universitas Gadjah Mada
trinuraniwati@ugm.ac.id

Abstract

The research aims at measuring the effectiveness of Google Search and British National Corpus (BNC) online database in finding business English collocations. The research is conducted in two sessions at a multimedia laboratory with 25 participants. The participants, all of whom are third semester students, do two business collocations worksheets. The first worksheet is done by utilizing Google Search while the second is by BNC online database. The average score for the Google test is 35.07 whereas it is 49.2 for the BNC. Although Google is a massive source of vocabulary on the web, the students find BNC simpler and more effective in finding collocations. BNC, despite its limited corpora, has more reliable and valid sources. In contrast, the search results appear on Google search page come from various, but still disputable, sources in terms of their validity.

Keywords: corpus, collocations

Introduction

To compete in the globalized working world, students of English are expected to master the various types of English for specific purposes (ESP). Business English is one of the widely learnt ESP which meets the needs of the growing economy. Business English itself has different focuses and uses. One variety focuses on vocabulary and topics used in the worlds of business, trade, and finance; while another type learns the communication skills used in the workplace such as presentations, negotiations, meetings, small talk, socializing, and correspondence. Of the first variety, students are expected to be capable of comprehending written materials containing business vocabulary of various fields and use them in written communication for business purposes. Better written communication translates into better relationships, which in the business world translates to increased success.

The mastery of business vocabulary is essential and especially useful in reading and writing in which comprehension requires the knowledge and the use of complex and sophisticated words and phrases. Among the vocabulary knowledge students have to master is the knowledge of business English collocations. As a fast-growing and fast-changing field, business world has fast development and additions of new vocabulary, especially after the era of online media. Recently coined collocations such as 'back to square one' and 'blanket protection' are popularized by online media. Therefore, business English specialists and learners should keep up with the current addition and coinage of new business vocabulary, especially business collocations.

Used in various topics of discussion and communication including business, collocation is a natural aspect of a language familiar to native speakers but difficult for non-native speakers. Nattinger and DeCarrico (Moehkardi 53), define collocations as "string of words that seem to have a certain mutual expectancy, or greater-than-chance likelihood that they will co-occur in any text." Furthermore, according to Palmer, the term collocation refers to the recurring groups of words and "a succession of two or more words that must be learned as an integral whole and not pieced together from its component parts" (Kennedy 468). As integral whole and grammatical items, collocations have specific forms and combinations that have to be memorized by English learners.

English Collocations in Use Intermediate by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell (8) points out there are two main ways in which learners can find collocations: by training themselves to notice them whenever they read or listen to anything in English and by finding

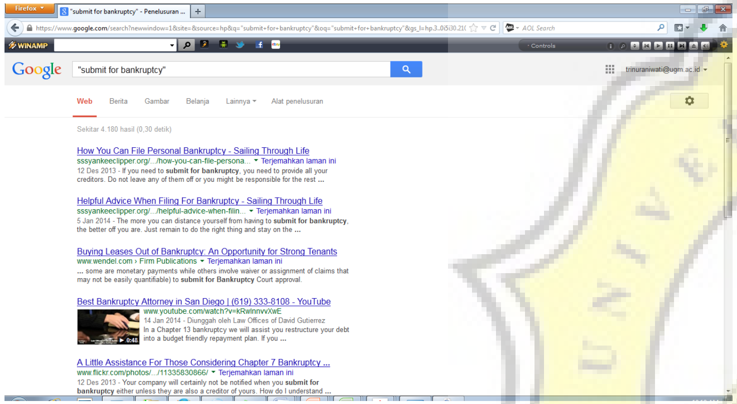
them in any good learner's dictionary or collocations dictionary such as *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*. While the use of good collocations dictionary is recommended for students of English, the utilization of online sources is much more familiar and convenient nowadays. With smartphones, tablets, and notebooks going mobile anytime anywhere, instant online methods are favorite among students.

Not only for students, the internet has been popular among scholars as a source of corpora. The term 'corpora' is the plural form of the word 'corpus' which Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary defines as a "collection of writings, conversations, speeches, etc., that people use to study and describe a language." As a compilation of corpora, the web is tremendous in size and has broad linguistic, geographic and social range. Moreover, it has advantages in terms of up-to-dateness, multimodality, and wide availability at minimal cost (Fletcher 2). Accordingly, the web is a powerful source of finding collocations, especially business collocations.

Google as A Search Engine for Business English Collocations

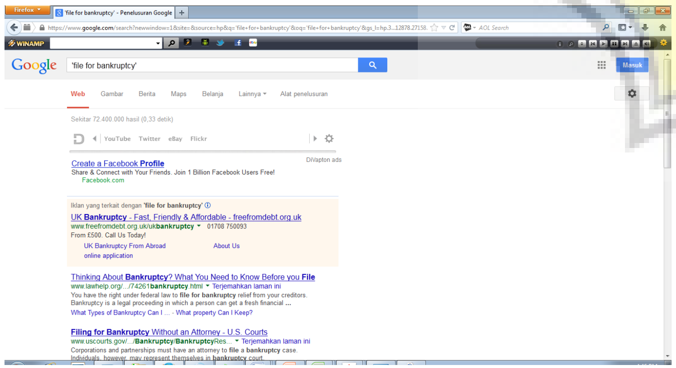
One of the most popular and powerful tools in searching corpora and collocations is Google search engine. Nowadays, we use Google as a search engine for almost everything. We are accustomed to such phrases as "Let me Google it!" or "I'll Google it later." Such intentions have become commonplace in and outside the classrooms that we simply take the word 'google' to replace the word 'search' for any online search we do. Moreover, Google can be used for vocabulary search for almost any level, from single word to complex phrases and collocations. The number of queries or the web pages containing the collocations can be used as a parameter whether the collocations are widely acceptable, and therefore correct. For instance, if you want to find the verb which collocates with the phrase 'for bankruptcy,' you may type "submit for bankruptcy" (with double quotation mark to limit the search combination) and will find the Google search result as seen in Picture 1 below:

Picture 1. Google Search Results for "submit for bankruptcy"



There are 4,180 search results for "submit for bankruptcy," which is not a good sign for the correctness of the word combination since Google can actually search billions of pages in only several seconds. Accordingly, you need to search for another combination like "file for bankruptcy." With that combination, Google displays the following results:

Picture 2. Google Search Results for "file for bankruptcy"



The 72,400,000 hits are enough to ensure yourself that the collocation "file for bankruptcy" is more acceptable than "submit for bankruptcy."

This kind of search method is certainly faster and easier for the students as long as they can go online. Students can find as many as English words that collocate to each other in business field. Despite the convenience, Google is not flawless. We also need to compare its effectiveness with the other corpora. In this research, another corpus is used for comparison, the British National Corpus (BNC).

British National Corpus for Learning

The British National Corpus (BNC) is a "100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written." The **written part** of the BNC (90%) consists of, among others, extracts from regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals and journals, academic books and popular fiction, published and unpublished letters and memoranda, as well as school and university essays. For the **spoken part** (10%), orthographic transcriptions of unscripted informal conversations (recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes in a demographically balanced way) and spoken language collected in different contexts, ranging from formal business or government meetings to radio shows and phone-ins are included. BNC deals with modern British English of the late twentieth century, comprising various subject fields, genres or registers (*British National Corpus*, http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/corpus/index.xml).

The BNC project is managed by the **BNC Consortium** lead by Oxford University Press of which the other members including major dictionary publishers Longman (now Pearson Education) and Larousse Kingfisher Chambers; academic research centres at Oxford University

Computing Services (OUCS), the University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language (UCREL) at Lancaster University, and the British Library's Research and Innovation Centre (Burnard 1).

The latest edition of BNC is the *BNC XML Edition*, released in 2007, which is a software for corpus learning and for corpus linguistic research. For this research, unsubscribed online version—the BNC simple search—which is available on http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk is utilized for the sake of accessibility, especially for the students (see Picture 3). The link to the simple search facility is hosted by the British Library.

Picture 3. The Official Web Page of BNC

The simple search will only display a random selection of 50 hits, a small amount of search results compared to those displayed by Google hits. For example when we type ‘business plan’ (no quotation marks are needed for BNC), the page will display 50 solutions from the 192 found in the corpus.

Picture 4. Search Results of BNC

Not as tremendous as Google, BNC can also be used for learning purposes. Students can access the web anytime anywhere to find business English collocations they need for their class assignments and for their own study. To help the students in deciding which corpus is more effective, the research is conducted with their participation.

Research Design

The research is conducted in two sessions at a multimedia laboratory with 25 participants. The participants, all of whom are third-semester students, have learnt about collocations and have done several exercises in business English collocations in Reading III class, including the lexical and grammatical patterns of English collocations. Nevertheless, most of the collocations used in this experiment are new collocations that haven’t been learnt in the class. Out of 28 students in the class, 25 voluntarily join the experiment. To boost their enthusiasm, each student is given free lunch and a mug as a souvenir.

The participants do two business collocations worksheets separately. The worksheets, each with two different parts, have similar type of questions and similar level of difficulty. The first part of the worksheet (Part A, 13 points) is taken from *Check Your English Vocabulary for Business and Administration 4th Edition* by Rawdon Wyatt while the second (Part B, 17 points) is a gap-filling test compiled from various sources (See Appendix 1 and Appendix 2). The answers to Part A of each worksheet are collocations in the form of adjective+noun or noun+noun while Part B take the forms of verb+noun and verb+preposition+noun. The first worksheet is done by utilizing Google Search while the second by British National Corpus online database. Researcher uses different worksheets to avoid participants referring to their first answer (with Google search) when doing it with BNC.

The collocations tested are relatively difficult. Hence, even though there are only 30 questions, the time allotted for each worksheet is 90 minutes. The participants use computers provided in the laboratory to search for the answers. To imitate a casual learning situation, participants are allowed to listen to the music while doing the test. However, they are not allowed to talk to each other nor are they allowed to use other corpora in finding the answers. The students are told that the result of the worksheets will not affect their reading grade in class.

Results

For the worksheets, students are evaluated based on how many questions they do correctly. Overall, the students' scores are below the expected scores. Most of them get less than 50

percent correct for the Google test. Yet, the BNC test shows better scores. The results for both worksheets are as follow:

Table 1. The Scores of Worksheet 1 and Worksheet 2

No.	Students	Worksheet 1	Worksheet 2
1	Student 1	36.67	30
2	Student 2	20	30
3	Student 3	36.67	33.33
4	Student 4	10	20
5	Student 5	43.33	56.66
6	Student 6	33.33	40
7	Student 7	33.33	46.67
8	Student 8	40	50
9	Student 9	23.33	66.67
10	Student 10	36.67	50
11	Student 11	50	60
12	Student 12	33.33	43.33
13	Student 13	40	83.33
14	Student 14	50	46.67
15	Student 15	56.67	50
16	Student 16	73.33	80
17	Student 17	16.67	43.33
18	Student 18	20	63.33
19	Student 19	40	53.33
20	Student 20	43.33	53.33
21	Student 21	46.67	36.67
22	Student 22	23.33	50
23	Student 23	16.67	56.67
24	Student 24	16.67	50
25	Student 25	36.67	36.67
Average score		**35.07**	**49.2**

The average score for the Google test is 35.07 whereas it is 49.2 for the BNC. 80 percent of `the participants have higher scores when doing the worksheet with BNC, meaning only 5 students do better with Google Search.

Conclusion

From the research results, it can be concluded that the students find BNC more effective in helping them finding the correct business English collocations. This is a little bit surprising since students are actually much more familiar with Google for vocabulary query. The students find BNC simpler and more effective in finding collocations. Although having more limited sources, BNC has more reliable and valid vocabulary and collocations, many of which related to business fields. Referring to the sources of the corpus, we can also see that BNC relies on English as written and spoken by native speakers. Whereas, despite its convenience, Google utilizes too many pages which leaves the students in confusion when finding the answers to the worksheet. Google also displays pages which contain misused vocabulary. The errors are due to the fact that many of the writers are not native-speakers of English; or the writers speak English but have limited knowledge of business terminology and do not pay attention to accuracy.

References

British National Corpus. *www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk.*

*Burnard, Lou (Ed.). "*Reference Guide for the British National Corpus (World Edition)." British National Corpus. October 2000. PDF

*Fletcher, William. "*Making the Web More Useful as a Source for Linguistic Corpora." *Corpus Linguistics in North America 2002: Selections from the Fourth North American Symposium of the American Association for Applied Corpus Linguistics*. Amsterdam: Rodopi, 2002. PDF.

Kennedy, Graeme. "Amplifier Collocations in the British National Corpus: Implications for English Language Teaching." *TESOL Quarterly Vol. 37, No. 3, Autumn 2003*. Wellington: Victoria University, 2003. PDF.

McCarthy, Michael and Felicity O'Dell. *English Collocations in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2000. PDF.

Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary. http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/

Moehkardi, Rio Rini. "Grammatical and Lexical English Collocations: Some Possible Problems to Indonesian Learners of English." *Humaniora Vol. XIV, No. 1/2012*. Yogyakarta: FIB UGM, 2002. PDF.

Wyatt, Rawdon. (2007). Check *Your English Vocabulary for Business and Administration 4th Edition*. London: A&C Black. PDF.

Building Database of English for Business as an Alternative Teaching-Learning Media for Increasing the Learners' Interest and Motivation

Iis Kurnia Nurhayati
School of Management and Business Telkom University, Bandung

Nia Kurniasih
Socio Technology Bandung Institute of Technology

Abstract

The study titled "Building Database of English for Business as an alternative Learning Media for Increasing Students' Interest and Motivation in Learning Language " is a participation form of Indonesian English teachers in utilizing the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to develop English teaching-learning media. The result of this study is a database application that integrates the reading comprehension materials for English for Business which can be run by users (students and faculty) .Reading texts, vocabulary, grammar & structure and reading skills were specifically collected to obtain the information data related to the implementation of a web -based database system. The result of the inventory had produced the standard format of data to be the input of the built system. This application consists of: viewer module, used only for displaying the database intended for the general users (students) and editor module, used to manage the database for the specific user only (teacher/administrator) .

Keywords : database, English for Business, Reading Comprehension

Introduction

Background to the Study

English has been one of the most important languages in the world. Thousands of millions of people in five continents speak the language, either as active users or as passive users. Therefore, no surprising the language spreads rapidly. In addition to this, Leith (1983) states:

> " It functions in different kinds of societies as a mother tongue, a second language, a vehicle of officialdom, a medium of education, and as a language for science, business, and commerce. It is also used widely as a lingua franca – a language used among people who have no other tongue in common ………"

Not only serving as mother language for particular countries, but English also functions as the official language in many international meetings and as the working language in educational process, sciences, trades, technology, computer technology and industry, including the world of business. In modern world business, English has been the media of communication used widely in both regional and global businesses. In relation to that, mastering English is a significant need for the modern business societies. This state is particularly encouraged by the internationally growing businesses in the country in which English is used as the working language, making it significantly useful in the business world Machfoedz (2003)

Many experts have performed researches to the students' ability in understanding English discourse, particularly in the business field. They studied and exposed the potential factors relating to the problems. Many of the researches have proven that the limited vocabularies and less understanding on grammar and structure are two of many factors that relate to the students' lack ability in understanding English texts (Irfani, 2005).

Departing from the above reasons, many English lecturers write books or modules as their learning media in the university. In this book, *reading text* is exposed in the beginning of each unit or chapter, following next is *comprehension* test regarding the text given. Most of the times, the writers also include the vocabularies used in the text and describe the vocabulary definitions. The grammar used in the text is also explained. In addition, each unit or chapter accommodates the speaking and writing skills relating to the topic discussed in the text of the unit.

In line with the current technological advancement, particularly in the information and communication (ICT) field, English learning media undergoes improvement. Before the ICT develops in the country, English learning media is limited to textbooks, modules, dictionaries, and cassettes. After the ICT is familiarized in the country, the learning media start to undergo changes. By using the computer equipped with the information and communication technology (ICT) accesses, English lecturers can develop alternative learning media to complement the former learning media in the form of a handbook or commonly used language modules.

Therefore, as an English lecturer in university, the present writer is interested to participate and make use the information and communication technology (ICT) to develop alternative English learning media. This alternative media is in the form of *Reading Comprehension* integrated database that can be operated by the users (students and lecturers). This media is in web format and operates in the *browsers* such *internet explorer*, *Mozilla Firefox, etc.* To specify the scope of English to be inserted into the database, the writer limits it into one purpose, the English Business. With this specification, the *database* built is limited to *Reading Comprehension for Business English* that is expected to be developed to further topics.

English, business, and information technology and communication (ICT) are three areas complementing each other. The combined application of those three areas can be made in *database* comprising English business materials accessible over the internet. The text regarding business activity is presented in English and the applications of vocabulary for business, grammar explanation, and the structure of the text are adapted. The date is then compiled in such a way to show how they are related. This way, it eases the updating, filtering, sorting, and searching processes.

A fine reasoning and analysis are required to build the *database Reading Comprehension for Business English* in order to be the alternative media for learning that is right on target, effective, and efficient and at the same time to complement the existing media.

Research Formulation

Departing from the above described issues, the research formulations of this study are as follow:

1. How to include the text/discourse into the category of Business English?
2. How to determine the interconnection among the elements (vocabularies, grammar, and structures) constructing particular text/discourse?
3. How to define the elements (vocabularies, grammar, and structures) constructing the text/discourse?
4. How to apply the analyzed data in the form of *reading text* (discourse) for business to be made into *web-based database*?

The Purposes of the Research

Based on the research formulation, the purposes of the research are as follow:

1. To inventory the text/discourse into the category of Business English
2. To determine the interconnection among the elements (vocabularies, grammar, and structures) constructing the text/discourse.

Theoretical Background

1. To define the elements constructing the text/discourse, which are the vocabularies, grammar, and structure.

2. To apply the analyzed data in the form of *reading text* (discourse) for business to be made into *web-based database* that is accessible over the internet.

English for Business

Business English can be defined as different things for different people. For some people, Business English is focused on the vocabularies used in the fields of trade, finance, professional, politics, and international relations.

Many people assume Business English as a language discussing the topics in commerce such as the procedures, programs, and the function and policy of government and company. The topic comprises the working standard, tax, and retirement benefit.

Some other people think that *Business English* refers to communication skills used in the working sites. The focus on language and skills needed to communicate for particular business; such as multi-media presentation, negotiating, meeting, small talk, information dissemination, and any written correspondences such as email, letters, and reports.

Several other people expand the term Business English into “BE” Communication or Business English for communication. “BE” Communication is the communication used to promote products, service, or organization; connect the information inside and outside the business; or has to do with public, governmental documents and issues. Business English comprises a series function of Marketing, Branding, Customer relations, Consumer behaviour, Advertising, Public relations, Media relations, Corporate communication, Community engagement, Research & Measurement, Reputation management, Interpersonal communication, Employee engagement, Online communication, and Event management.

Talking about Business English, one must understand that, for some people, Business

English is merely concerned with vocabularies, whereas others add up with several components of skill, and the others say that it comprises the topics of communication, method, and format.

Media of Learning

Good media of learning must meet several conditions. The media must be able to improve students' motivation. The use of the media is aimed at providing motivation to the students. In addition, the media must also provoke the students to remember what has been learned and at the same time provoke new thoughts of learning. A good media should also stimulate the students to be proactive in reasoning, giving feedback, and doing correct practices in the study.

Several criteria are applied for assessing the effectiveness of a media. Hubbard (1983) suggests nine criteria of assessments. The first criteria is cost. Cost is measured by the result to be obtained by using the media. Other criteria are the availability of supporting infrastructures such as electricity, appropriate class room, simplicity, the possibility to be changed, time and energy of preparation, the resulting impacts, the complication, and the use. The more the purposes are met by the media, the better the media is.

Language Learning using Computer

Computer has been used in language learning since 1960 (Lee, 1996). In this 40 years period, there are several periods of tendency based on the existing learning theories. The first period is the learning with computer using *behaviourist* approach. This period is marked with the learning putting emphasis on the repetition using the *drill* method and practices. The next period is the communicative learning as a reaction towards the behaviourist. The emphasis is put on the using of forms but not the same as the forms in the behaviourist approach.

The last period or tendency is the learning using an integrated computer. This integrated learning puts emphasis on integrating various language skills such as listening, speaking, writing, and reading and at the same time integrating the technology in the learning process.

Lee formulates there are at least eight reasons to use computer as learning media (Lee 1996). The reasons are: experience, motivation, learning improvement, original material, wider interactions, multi-sources, and global understanding.

With the computer being connected to the internet, students will have wider opportunities in learning. The students are not merely passive receiver but are as the determiner in their own learning process. The learning with computer shall provide more motivation since computer is associated with joy, games, and creativity. Therefore, the learning shall improve by itself.

The learning using computer provides the students with original learning materials and wider interactions. The learning itself becomes more private and may meet the needs for different learning strategies.

The Nature of *Database*

Database can be illustrated as filing cabinet. From the etymology, database consists of two words, *base* and *data*. *Base* may mean as a quarter or warehouse, place for nesting or gathering, whereas *data* may mean as representation of real world facts for particular object. The database itself may be defined from several points of view, such as:

- Collection of data group (files) connected to each other and is organized in such a way to be used easily and fast in the future.
- Collection of data connected each other that is stored together in such a way with no redundancy to be able to fulfil various needs.

- Collection of files/tables/records connected to each other that is stored in electronic storage media.
- Database comprises the specification of data type structure and the constraints of the stored data.

Database and filing cabinet are actually working in the same principles and purposes. The main principle is the regulation of data/files. The main purposes are easiness and speed. The things being emphasized in database is the regulation/selection/organization of data to be stored according to the functions/types.

Research Method

The Method

The method used in this research is experimental research.

Research Object

The research is performed in order to create web-based database in Telkom Institute of Management (Institut Manajemen Telkom). The object comprises:

a. Compiled data of *Reading Comprehension for Business English*

b. Compiled data of vocabularies, grammar, and the elements constructing the structure of the text/discourse of Business English

c. The data of database creation that is accessible over the internet.

Data Collection Techniques

The data collection techniques are performed in the following steps:

a. Field Observation

It is performed to assess the application of the existing and the in-use database in Telkom Institute of Management.

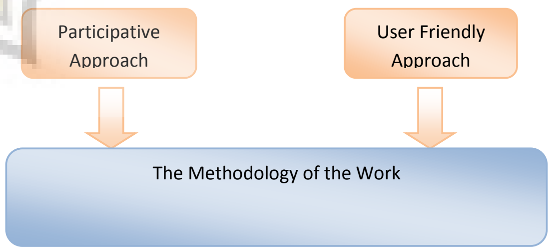
b. Literature Study

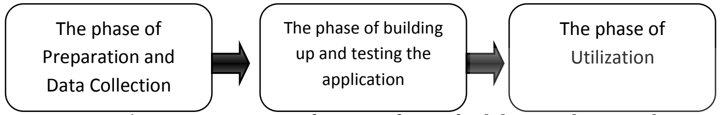
This step is aimed at gathering information regarding the reference or method to be used in the inventory process. The data collected is reading text for Business English and its constructing elements such as vocabularies, grammar, and structures. This data is also used in the creation of database.

To achieve the expected result, planning approach is crucial in foregrounding the planning implementation, they are:

1. **Secondary data approach;** it is an approach performed in system arrangement by collecting various secondary data used as the content in the database.
2. **The approach of user-friendly utilization;** it is an approach used to make the users easy in operating the system.

Each of the approach will be operated through various applicable methodologies. The methodology will particularly determine the ways the data is collected and how the data is going to be analyzed. The relation between the approach and the methodology used in completing the series of the activity is illustrated in the following figure:





Pict1. Interconnection between the methodology and approach

The Methodology of the Work

By referring to the KAK and based on the in-depth overview, as explained in the Feedback on KAK, the main point in developing online system is divided into three big phases, they are:

1. The Phase of Preparation
2. The Phase of System Development, and
3. The Phase of System Utilization and Operation

Each step comprises the activities of preparing the early system construction, system integration, further application development, and operator familiarization to the system of utilization mechanism and system maintenance. The overall phase is stated in the KAK and is further developed in accordance with the needs of system development.

Results and Discusion

The construction of the system comprises:

1. The collection of secondary data
2. Program Creation or Application. It consists of:
   a. Module*Viewer*
   b. Module*Editor*
3. Program Installation

The Collection of Secondary Data

The collection of secondary data is performed to gain information on the data relating to the system implementation to be made as content in the database. The data comprises:

1. Data of*reading*
2. Data of *vocabulary*
3. Data of *grammar & structure*
4. Other data relating to the research.

The Creation of Application Program

The program of web-based system application created is the application operated using web browser. The application consists of:

1. **Viewer Module**

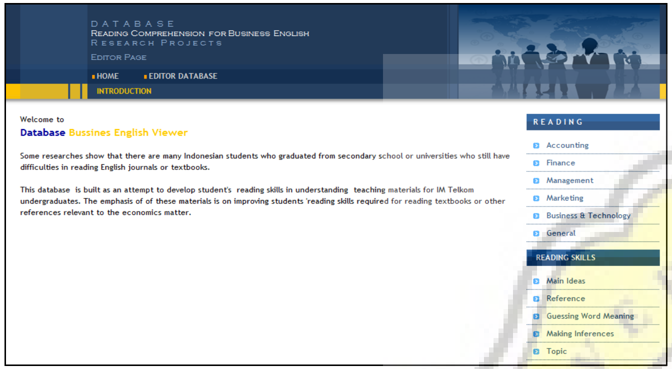
   This module is used only to view the database and is dedicated for general users. The general users are the users who can only see the data and <u>are not authorized</u> to renew the content of the database, these users are the students.

2. **Module *Editor***

   The module is used to organize the database intended for the particular users (administrator). This user is the user who can renew the content of the database and is <u>authorized</u> to make changes on the database. This user is the lecturer. This user requires user registration.

Modul Viewer

To operate this module, web browser is used with the following address <u>http://localhost/dbeb</u> (this address is used in the application testing)



Pict 2. The Display of Viewer Module

A. Application Menu

The application provides several main facilities integrated into the menus as follow:

1. **Home**

   This menu provides information regarding the general description of the application created.

2. **Editor Database**

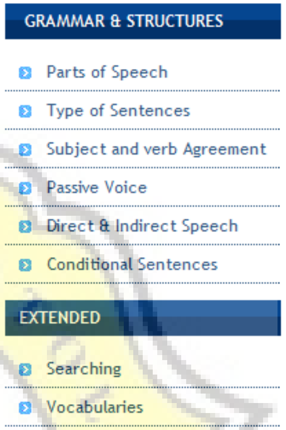
   This menu is used to operate module editor accessed directly from the modul viewer.

3. **Reading**

   This menu is used to access the data of reading text to be categorized into:

   1. *Accounting*
   2. *Finance*
   3. *Management*
   4. *Marketing*
   5. *Busines & Technology*
   6. General (the category that does not included in the above 5 categories).

   These categories are renewable through the module editor.



4. ***Reading Skills***

   This menu is used to access the information relating to the reading skills. It comprises:

   1. *Main Ideas*
   2. *Reference*
   3. *Guessing Word Meaning*
   4. *Making Inference*
   5. *Topic.*

   The scope in this reading skill menu is renewable in the module editor.

5. ***Grammar & Structures***

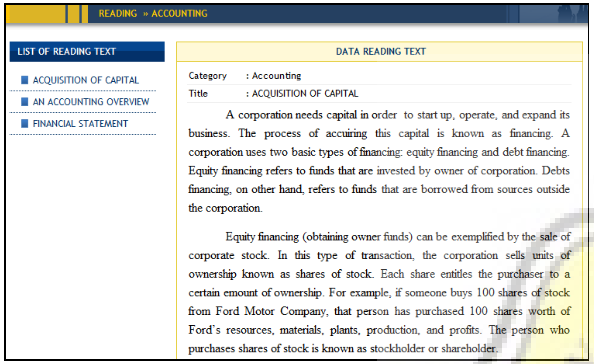
   This menu is used to access the information relating to the grammar and structure. It comprises:

   1. *Parts of Speech*
   2. *Type of Sentences*
   3. *Subject and Verb Agreement*
   4. *Passive Voice*
   5. *Direct & Indirect Speech*
   6. *Conditional Sentences*

   The scope in this grammar & structure menu is renewable in the module editor.

B. Display

This menu provides information regarding reading text contained in the database. Users can directly access the menu based on the categories of the **Reading Text**. Below is the example of the display on the Accounting category.



READING » ACCOUNTING

LIST OF READING TEXT

- ACQUISITION OF CAPITAL
- AN ACCOUNTING OVERVIEW
- FINANCIAL STATEMENT

DATA READING TEXT

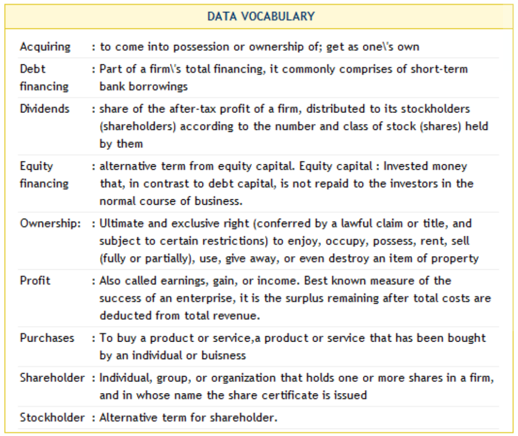
Category : Accounting
Title : ACQUISITION OF CAPITAL

A corporation needs capital in order to start up, operate, and expand its business. The process of accuiring this capital is known as financing. A corporation uses two basic types of financing: equity financing and debt financing. Equity financing refers to funds that are invested by owner of corporation. Debts financing, on other hand, refers to funds that are borrowed from sources outside the corporation.

Equity financing (obtaining owner funds) can be exemplified by the sale of corporate stock. In this type of transaction, the corporation sells units of ownership known as shares of stock. Each share entitles the purchaser to a certain emount of ownership. For example, if someone buys 100 shares of stock from Ford Motor Company, that person has purchased 100 shares worth of Ford's resources, materials, plants, production, and profits. The person who purchases shares of stock is known as stockholder or shareholder.

Pict 3. The general display of Reading Text Menu

There are two parts in this menu; **LIST OF READING TEXT** (on the left side) containing the list of reading text in the selected category, the data provided in the **LIST OF READING TEXT** containing the data reading text and other information (topics) relating to the reading text such as: the data of vocabulary, reading skills, and grammar & structures. To establish the connection of the data with the reading text, module editor is used.

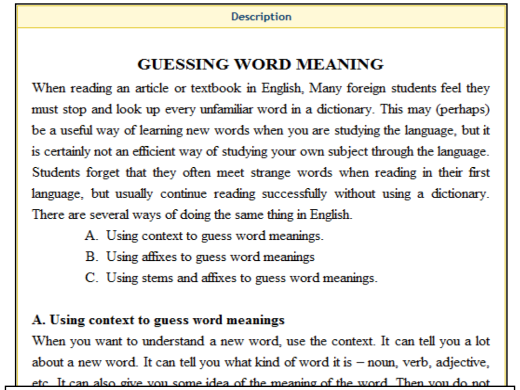


DATA VOCABULARY

Acquiring	: to come into possession or ownership of; get as one\'s own
Debt financing	: Part of a firm\'s total financing, it commonly comprises of short-term bank borrowings
Dividends	: share of the after-tax profit of a firm, distributed to its stockholders (shareholders) according to the number and class of stock (shares) held by them
Equity financing	: alternative term from equity capital. Equity capital : Invested money that, in contrast to debt capital, is not repaid to the investors in the normal course of business.
Ownership:	: Ultimate and exclusive right (conferred by a lawful claim or title, and subject to certain restrictions) to enjoy, occupy, possess, rent, sell (fully or partially), use, give away, or even destroy an item of property
Profit	: Also called earnings, gain, or income. Best known measure of the success of an enterprise, it is the surplus remaining after total costs are deducted from total revenue.
Purchases	: To buy a product or service,a product or service that has been bought by an individual or buisness
Shareholder	: Individual, group, or organization that holds one or more shares in a firm, and in whose name the share certificate is issued
Stockholder	: Alternative term for shareholder.

To view the information regarding ***reading skills*** contained in the database, users can directly access the menu based on the categories in the **Reading Skills** menu. Below is the example of display on the category of ***Guessing Word Meaning***.

This menu provides description relating to selected category and examples relating to the reading text.



Description

GUESSING WORD MEANING

When reading an article or textbook in English, Many foreign students feel they must stop and look up every unfamiliar word in a dictionary. This may (perhaps) be a useful way of learning new words when you are studying the language, but it is certainly not an efficient way of studying your own subject through the language. Students forget that they often meet strange words when reading in their first language, but usually continue reading successfully without using a dictionary. There are several ways of doing the same thing in English.

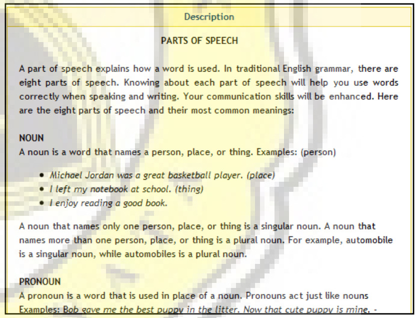
A. Using context to guess word meanings.
B. Using affixes to guess word meanings
C. Using stems and affixes to guess word meanings.

A. Using context to guess word meanings

When you want to understand a new word, use the context. It can tell you a lot about a new word. It can tell you what kind of word it is – noun, verb, adjective, etc. It can also give you some idea of the meaning of the word. Then you do not

Pict4. The display of Guessing Word Meaning Menu

Other information that is accessible by the users is that of **grammar & structures** contained in the database. The users can directly access the menu based in the categories in the **Grammar & Structures** menu. Below is the example of display on the category of **Parts of Speech**.



Description

PARTS OF SPEECH

A part of speech explains how a word is used. In traditional English grammar, there are eight parts of speech. Knowing about each part of speech will help you use words correctly when speaking and writing. Your communication skills will be enhanced. Here are the eight parts of speech and their most common meanings:

NOUN

A noun is a word that names a person, place, or thing. Examples: (person)

- *Michael Jordan was a great basketball player. (place)*
- *I left my notebook at school. (thing)*
- *I enjoy reading a good book.*

A noun that names only one person, place, or thing is a singular noun. A noun that names more than one person, place, or thing is a plural noun. For example, automobile is a singular noun, while automobiles is a plural noun.

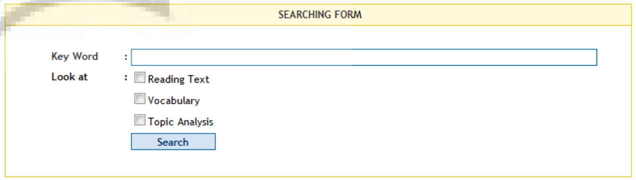
PRONOUN

A pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun. Pronouns act just like nouns Examples: *Bob gave me the best puppy in the litter. Now that cute puppy is mine.* -

Pict 5.*Part of Speech*Information

Similar to the menu of Reading Skills, in the menu of Grammar & Structures the information regarding the description of the selected theories and the examples relating to the category are provided.

In the menu of **Extended**, users can use the search facility by accessing the **Searching** and the facility used for opening all the list of vocabularies.



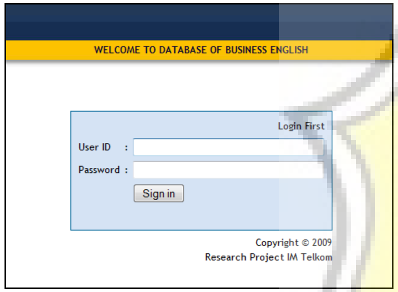
SEARCHING FORM

Key Word :
Look at : Reading Text
Vocabulary
Topic Analysis
Search

Pict 6. Searching page

EditorModule

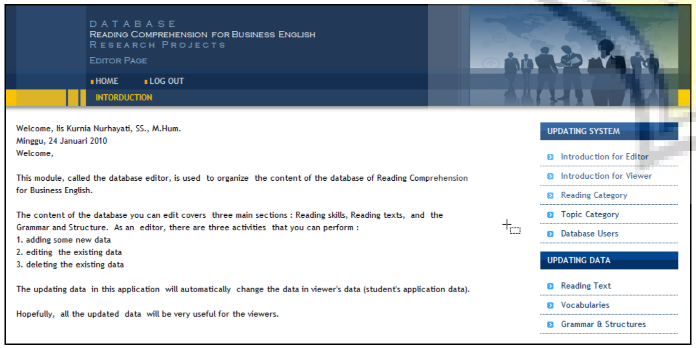
To operate this module, web browser is used with the following address http://localhost/dbeb/admin(this address is used in the application testing). This module can also be accessed directly from the module viewer by choosing the menu "**Editor Database**". This module is intended only for the registered users; therefore the opening page is in the form of *login* page as shown in the following figure.



Pict7. The Display of Login Page

A. Application Menu

In this module editor, several main facilities are provided and they are integrated in the following menus:



Pict 8. The display of Opening Page

1. **Home**
   It consists of general information regarding the application created.
2. **Logout**
   It is the menu to exit from the application and returns to the login page.
3. **Updating System**
   This menu is used to access the data system comprising:
   a. Introduction for Editor
   b. Introduction for Viewer
   c. Reading Category
   d. Topic Category
   e. Database Users
4. **Updating Data**
   This menu is used to access the database relating to the data comprising:
   a. Reading Text
   b. Vocabularies
   c. Grammar & Structures

B. Display

To change the writing in the opening menu of the module editor, the menu "introduction for editor" is accessed.

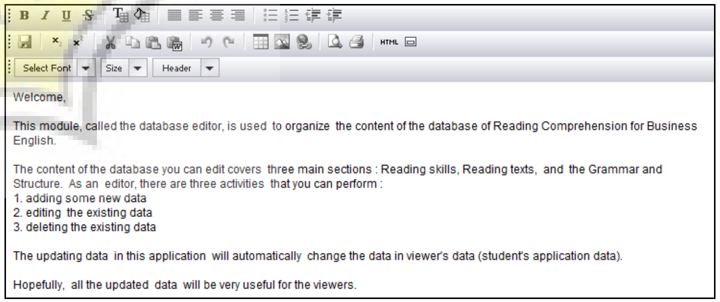


Figure 9. The Display of the Editor Page

Every text document used in this application, its changing processes use text editor integrated in the application. Using text editor is easy. Several standard functions are provided such as formatting text into bold, italic, underline, font size, paragraph indentation, numbering, and simple table menu.

After that, press the button **Update Data** if the data renewed is to be saved. To edit the writing in the home menu, access the menu “Introduction for Editor”. To edit the data in “Introduction for Viewer”, similar step can be done.

To adjust the category in “Reading Text”, access the menu Updating System → Reading Text.

CATEGORY READING » NEW CATEGORY

NO.	CATEGORY	ACTION
1	Accounting	Edit Delete
2	Finance	Edit Delete
3	Management	Edit Delete
4	Marketing	Edit Delete
5	Business & Technology	Edit Delete
6	General	Edit Delete

Pict 10. The display of the Changing of Reading Data category

There are three facilities in this page; “New Category” that is used to make new category, “Edit” that is used to remove the category of data in the selected line, and “Delete” that is used to remove the category of data in the selected line.

Menu Updating System → Topic Category is used to edit the category relating to the theories of the reading skills, grammar, and structure. In this menu, the user can also make new group category.

CATEGORY TOPIC » NEW CATEGORY

NO.	CATEGORY	GRUP	ACTION
1	Parts of Speech	Grammar & Structures	Fill Description Edit Delete
2	Type of Sentences	Grammar & Structures	Fill Description Edit Delete
3	Subject and verb Agreement	Grammar & Structures	Fill Description Edit Delete
4	Passive Voice	Grammar & Structures	Fill Description Edit Delete
5	Direct & Indirect Speech	Grammar & Structures	Fill Description Edit Delete
6	Conditional Sentences	Grammar & Structures	Fill Description Edit Delete
7	Main Ideas	Reading Skills	Fill Description Edit Delete
8	Reference	Reading Skills	Fill Description Edit Delete
9	Guessing Word Meaning	Reading Skills	Fill Description Edit Delete
10	Making Inferences	Reading Skills	Fill Description Edit Delete
11	Topic	Reading Skills	Fill Description Edit Delete

Pict 12. The display of Topic Category Menu

The authority given in the module viewer consists of 2 types; which are the administrator levels. In this level, user can use all the facilities in the application. The other authoritative access is in the operator level. At this level, user can use all the facilities, <u>except</u> the facilities to make/change the user system.

The next part of the module editor is the facilities to change the data of reading text, vocabularies dan topic grammar & structures, and reading skills.

FORM

Category Name : Parts of Speech
Grup : Grammar & Structures
Save

Pict 13. The display of Filling/Data Conversion Topic Category form

Conclusion

1. The discourse/text collected as a study of Business English in this research comprises the terms of accounting, finance, marketing, business and management, and technology. There are at least 3-5 texts from each fields stored in this web-based database. The discourse/text stored can be added by the users, lecturers as the editors.
2. To show the interconnections among the elements constructing the discourse/text, every discourse/text is analyzed to search for the vocabularies that are in accordance with the

fields. This is then specifically presented in the database so that this web-based database shall have bank of vocabulary to ease the users to enrich their vocabularies relating to Business English. Other than the elements of vocabulary, the grammar and the structure of each text is also analyzed to be presented in particular menu discussing *Grammar and Structure.* Similarly, ways of good reading are presented in the menu *Reading skills.*

3. *Reading texts*, *vocabulary*, *grammar& Structure* and *Reading Skills* are collected to gain the information regarding the data relating to the implementation of the system. It is then used as the content in the web-based database. The inventory yields a fixed format to be made as data content for the system developed.
4. A particular web-based system application program comprising the above mentioned data is operated using the web browser being developed. The application consists of:
   1) **ViewerModul.** This module is used only to view the database and is intended for general users. The general users are the users who are only able to see the data and are not authorized to renew the content of the. In this term, the users are lecturers. This particular users are required to have users' registration.2) **EditorModule**is usedto manage thedatabaseallocated for the specific user(administrator). The Particularuserin question isthose who have the authoritytoupdate thedatabase. In this case theteacher. Tobethe specific user, oneis necessaryto register

Suggestion

1. This research can be extended by developing the topics contained in the database contents.
2. This database system is applied in the internet network. Therefore, it is accessible online by the users (learners and teachers).

The Effect of Multiple Choice Item Sequence: Do the easy items first?

Bernadeta Ririn, Eri Subekti, Tiara Gardenia
School of Postgraduate Studies
Indonesia University of Education, Bandung
bernadeta.ririn@gmail.com, eribekti@gmail.com, tiara_gardenia@yahoo.com

Abstract

Multiple-choice items are widely used in language testing. It is mainly because many users perceive the multiple-choice item as the most effective among other objective item types. This study tries to investigate the effect of test item sequence on senior high school students' performances in Bandung and also attempts to observe the behaviour among female and male students toward the item sequence on test. To achieve such purposes, a multiple choice paper and pencil test was conducted to collect data. A number of 72 students were given two tests (one with easy to difficult items and another was the reversed). The result revealed that the students gained higher score when they were subjected to multiple-choice test with easy to difficult (ED) sequence. However, there was no difference behaviour among female and male students toward the item sequence; both male and female students were doing the test in order.

Keywords: multiple choice, item sequence, students' performance, students' attitude

Background

Language testing or language tests are very important. They can help informing people about attitudes to language, language testing and language teaching when little alternative evidence of what went on in the bygone language classroom remains (Weir, 2005). Tests are constructed for various purposes. One of them is to observe students' learning process, or so called the achievement tests. Achievement tests are similar with progress tests which are given at various stages throughout a language course to see what the students have learnt but tend to be given at the end of the course (Al derson, Clapham, & Wall, 1995). As in this study, the tests which are constructed to gain the data are categorized as achievement test.

Students' achievement can be measured through essay or short answers but the most popular type of test to measure students' achievement is multiple-choice items. Multiple-choice items have been used widely in language testing. They are very popularly applied in large-scale testing, in both national and international examinations such as TOEFL, GRE and IELTS and are commonly used for large-scale testing (Luo and Xiaodong, 2011). Multiple-choice items can be constructed to assess a variety of learning outcomes, from simple recall of facts to Bloom's highest taxonomic level of cognitive skills – evaluation (Osterlind, 1998 in Cheung & Bucat, 2002).

Multiple-choice items become widely known due to its numerous advantages. Many users perceive multiple-choice item as the most flexible and probably the most effective among other objective item types (retrieved from: http://www.indiana.edu/~best/pdf_docs/better_tests.pdf). Another advantage of using multiple-choice items for measuring students' progress in learning is practicality. Multiple-choice items can be replicated easily in terms of resources needed e.g. time, materials, people. It can be administered, it can be graded and the results can be interpreted easily.

Despite of these advantages, multiple choices can affect performance of students or test takers. Shohamy (1984 in Soureshjani, 2011), for example, asserted that in second language reading, multiple-choice formats are easier than open-ended formats. Thus, test format must be taken into considerations in test construction in order to improve performance of the test takers.

After deciding the best selection to particular context, a test instructor may start to construct the test item or so called the 'method' which refers to the procedure by which the test instructor assesses the knowledge of the test takers or students (Bachman, 1990). Sequencing items according to Bachman (1990) is considered as one of the test method facets which

becomes the main topic of the present study. Several studies have been conducted to investigate the effect of sequencing items, which confirmed that there are significant differences of students' scores based on a particular sequence of test items (Petit, Baker and Davis 1986, Balch 1989, Stout and Wygal 1990, Carlson and Ostrosky 1992 in Schee, 2009, Suarman, 2010).

Those previous research indicate that the sequence of items can affect adult and junior high school students. But, no research was done to senior high school students in English for Specific Purpose (ESP) class.

This study do not only attempt to find the effect of multiple-choice item sequence on senior high students' performance but also to observe whether there is difference in the behaviours of male and female students towards different multiple-choice item sequence. The test given was not prepared by an institution but by the teacher herself. Detail information about the research process is explained in method section.

This study attempts to address the following research questions:

- Does sequencing multiple-choice items test form easy to difficult versus difficult to easy affect performance of senior high school students on that test?
- Is there any difference behaviour between male and female students toward different multiple-choice item sequence?

Method

This study was conducted in ESP classroom in Bandung, where 72 were given tests twice. The first version employed easy to difficult sequence while the second one employed difficult to easy sequence. The populations were students of grade X of senior high school in

Bandung with beginner level of English proficiency. The students ranged from 14 to 15 in age with a balance portion of male and female students. This study was conducted at this school for purposive aim, since one of the researchers is one of the teachers at the school.

To gather the required data this study was divided into three stages of analysis. The first stage was constructed a test with easy to difficult multiple choice items sequence. The test consists of 30 multiple choices with 4 types of choice. The students had 60 minutes to answer the 30 items. The students were asked to write down the answer based on their preference. They were not obliged to answer the question orderly. After the students had been finished taking the test, the result was analyzed through ANATEST in order to find type of question which is considered difficult by the students. The second stage was constructed the difficult to easy multiple choice item sequence. The difficulty item was decided from the previous data analysis using ANATEST. The post-test consists of 30 multiple choices with 4 types of choice. The students had 60 minutes to answer the 30 items. In order to control the effect of practice, the tests were administered with an interval of three weeks in between.

To analyze collected data, ANATEST and descriptive statistics: one tail t-test was performed. First one tail t-test was used to see if there was any significant difference between the two achievement tests of the same participants.

Findings and Discussion

Having collected the data and analyzed them, in this section the results of the study are presented and discussed. As mentioned in the beginning of the paper, the objectives of this study are to find out whether sequencing items of a performance test from easy to difficult versus difficult to easy can affect the performance of students of senior high school or not and to find

whether there was difference between male and female students' behaviour towards different multiple-choice item sequence.

In the pre-test stage, the easy to difficult test was conducted to find the students' score. Then, after analyzing and getting the result of pre-test, the items were rearranged into difficult to easy sequence. However, to minimize the side effect of using the same test, the items in post-test were made differently. Although the items were different from the pre-test, basically the topics were still the same. This step was needed in order to be able to determine the difficulty level of the test items.

Three weeks after the pre-test was conducted, the post-test with difficult to easy items sequence was administered. The students had 60 minutes to answer 30 items; this time limit was applied similar to the pre-test to maintain the internal validity. The teacher was present the students were doing the test, the students are also asked to sit separately from others in order to avoid other interfering factors like cheating, cooperating or any disturbance. Furthermore, the test was conducted in the morning, to avoid students from feeling exhausted.

The result of the first stage of research shows that the highest score is 28 out of 30 and the lowest score is 9 out of 30 while in the post test the highest score is 27 out of 30 and the lowest score is 0 out of 30. (ED = easy to difficult item sequence, DE = difficult to easy item sequence). This result is in line with previous finding that the performance of test-takers when they are taking test with easy to difficult test items outperformed those difficult to easy items. The rest of the data can be seen in the appendix.

From the ANATEST analysis, it was found that the pre-test reliability test is 0.71 means that the pre-test has a very good level of reliability. A reliability coefficient of 0.71 indicates that 29% of the variability in test scores is due to measurement error. Meanwhile the post-test reliability test is 0.92. It means that the post-test has an excellent reliability. A reliability coefficient of .92 indicates that 8% of the variability in test scores is due to measurement error. A highly reliable test is always preferable to a test with lower reliability.

If the data was analyzed using t-test, dependent group (one tail), with level of significance .05 the t-test score is 20.8 This calculated t-test score is higher than the score which is provided in the t-test table. It means that there is significant difference of students' scores in pre-test with easy to difficult multiple choice item sequence with students' scores in post test with difficult to easy multiple choice item sequence.

Overall, this study proves once again that multiple choice item sequence can have an impact on students' performance in their performance test and can affect students' scores on the test. It is found in the observation that the students who get relatively high scores on the pre test or the easy to difficult test had weak performance on the post-test or difficult to easy test.

However, when it comes to multiple choices both male and female take the test sequentially. Whereas, they were given freedom to do the easy item first. Thus, when they take the difficult to easy item sequence, they were not able to finish the test because they get more focus on the difficult items first. It was proven by the data in ANATEST that some students did not provide answer or leave the last question blank.

The result derived from this study should be viewed as suggestions rather than definitive conclusions given that the research was conducted at one institution with one instructor or teacher. As Suarman (2011) stated that the sequence of the test items may affect students' achievement in the exams since pyschologically students' motivation and dissapointment may influence their score. Degress of guessing employed is also categorized as the test-takers' factor which may influence their performances. Degrees of guessing can be minimalized through the

quality of the distractor in each items. Level of ability of test-takers also influences their performance. Thus, pilot study is needed to find out whether the students have the same level of ability. The recommendations for further study can be seen in the conclusion part.

Conclusion

The results of this study highlight the importance of constructing multiple-choice items; different multiple-choice item sequence can affect the length of time to finish the test. From the observation while the students are doing the test with easy to difficult item sequence, they need short time to finish the test. Meanwhile, when the students are doing the test with difficult to easy item sequence, they need greater length of time. However, it needs further investigation in the future research.

In summary, the result of the current study confirms that there is significant effect of sequencing items of multiple choice items on students' performance. The result of this study is in line with previous researches. The ANATEST and descriptive statistic analysis like t-test (dependent group) show that students performed better when they are doing multiple-choice with easy to difficult items than when they are doing multiple-choice with difficult to easy items.

References

Alderson, J. C., Clapham, C., & Wall, D. (1995). *Language Test Construction and Evaluation.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown, J. D. (1996). *Testing in Language Programs.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Cheung, D., & Bucat, R. (2002). How Can We Construct Good Multiple-Choice Items? *Science and Technology Conference*, (pp. 1-10). Hong Kong.

DiBattista, D., & Kurzawa, L. (2011). Examination of the Quality of Multiple-choice Items on Classroom Tests. *The Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning* , 1-25.

Heaton, J. (1988). *Writing English Language Tests.* New York: Longman.

Lee, H., & Winke, P. (2012). The difference among three-,four-, and five-option-item formats in the context of a high-stakes English-language listening test. *Language Testing* , 99-123.
Roediger III, H. L., & Marsh, E. J. (2005). The Positive and Negative Consequences of Multiple-Choice Testing. *Journal of Experimental Psychology* , 1155-1159.
Schee, B. A. (2009). Test Item Order, Academic Achievement and Student Performance on Principles of Marketing Examinations. *Journal for Advancement of Marketing Education* , 23-29.
Soureshjani, K. H. (2011). Itemm Sequence on Test Performance: Easy Item First? *Language Testing in Asia* , 46-59.
Suarman, A. (2011). *The Effect of Multiple Choice Item Sequence on EFL Students' Performance and Test Reliability.* Bandung: academia.edu.
Sue, D. L. (2009). The Effect of Scrambling Test Questions on Student Performance in A Small Class Setting. *Journal For Economic Educators* , 32-41.
Weir, C. J. (2005). *Language Testing and Validation: An Evidence-based approach.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan

Developing Materials of Indonesian-English Translation Applying TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching) for Students of English Education Department

Junaedi Setiyono
Purworejo Muhammadiyah University
junaedi.setiyono@yahoo.co.id

Abstract

As a non-native English teachers (NNETs), I keep trying to find out the weaknesses dan strengths of being NNETs comparing with that of native English teachers (NETs). And, being bilingual is one of some advantages of being NNETs. The main problems that I intend to answer are: how to motivate and encourage the students to write an essay both in Bahasa Indonesia and English and how to make use of students' tasks to facilitate them mastering Indonesian-English translation. The respondents are the students of English Education Department of Teacher Training and Pedagogy Faculty of Purworejo Muhammadiyah University in the academic year of 2012/2013. The data is obtained by giving a certain task to the students, i.e. writing an essay in Bahasa Indonesia and then translate it directly into English. In analyzing the data, I employ descriptive-qualitative research analysis. Moreover, I consider the narrative analysis and case study to some extent in analyzing and interpreting the data. After analyzing and interpreting the data, I found that giving a certain task could encourage and motivate them to write a bilingual essay. And, I found that their problem in translating their Bahasa Indonesia essay into English one dealt especially with punctuation, run-on sentence, diction, omission, addition, misformation, sentence logic, verb agreement, pronoun, and parallelism. Thus, such problems could be the object of consideration to arrange materials applying Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) to facilitate them mastering Indonesian-English translation.

Keywords: Indonesian-English Translation, Task-Based Language Teaching, materials

Introduction

I am interested in the topic related to the advantages and disadvantages of being non-native English teachers (NNETs) comparing with native English teachers (NETs), and I am eager to know about how NNETs can maximize their advantages. There are quite many researches whose the topic is the roles of NNETs and NETs in their English class. From such researches I know that the weakness of NNETs is, among others, dealing with their cultural awareness.

In Turkey, Nemtchinova (Mahboob 2010) revisits the 'Who's worth more?'. Focusing on the opinion of mentor teachers, she examines the performance of NEST versus NNEST trainees during their classroom practicum. Out of the seven categories set up to measure teaching efficacy, she finds statistically significant differences between the two groups in only one dimension, that of cultural awareness. However, in such a research, NNEST trainees prove to be far more capable of handling the cultural complexities of an ESL class in the United States than their native English-speaker peers.

In Thailand, the question: 'Does a good language teacher have to be a native speaker?' is researched. After drawing attention to the ambiguities residing in the culturally loaded term of 'the good teacher', Mullock (Mahboob, 2010) presents a study that involves a large sample of undergraduate students. The results show that only a tiny percentage of the respondents express a preference for NESTs on the basis of their native competence. Whereas NESTs are endowed with a higher degree of procedural knowledge (that is, they are more proficient users of English), runs her argument, NNESTs are stronger in the area of declarative knowledge (that is, they are able to provide clearer explanations of grammar or vocabulary).

Luo (Mahboob, 2012) comes from a major initiative launched by the Taiwanese authorities to import qualified NESTs with the aim of alleviating the shortage of English teachers in primary education. During her research, Luo was sad to realize that, instead of shared responsibility, it largely fell upon NESTs to do the teaching while NNESTs merely acted as monitors or assistants. To remedy the situation, the author lays down a few basic principles to

produce a more expedient and equitable form of collaboration between native and non-native colleagues.

Based on the research done by Florence (2012), the non-native English teachers (NNETs) or Local English Teachers (LETs) have both the advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include their proficiency in students' L1, their knowledge of students' learning difficulties, the ease students experience in understanding their teaching, and in communication. The disadvantages appear to be the reverse of what the native English teachers (NETs) have, i.e. NETs have good English proficiency and have ability to facilitate student learning.

English teaching in Indonesia has a significant effect on Bahasa Indonesia teaching. As a matter of fact, there are some anxieties dealing with the domination of English as an international language that can threaten the position of Bahasa Indonesia as a national language, and it becomes one my considerations too. In Djiwandono (2002) Gunawan's review states that the current sociolinguistic situation in Indonesia implies that Indonesian is facing a threat from English language in its status as a symbol of national pride, particularly among the young generations.

Implementing code-switching, i.e. using Bahasa Indonesia during English learning-teaching activity, is not ill-advised. Sampson (2012) writes that code-switching may not necessarily be connected to ability level and serves multiple communicative and learning purposes. This indicates not only that total proscription of L1 is ill-advised, but that the mother tongue can be usefully exploited for learning, for example when performing contrastive analysis. However, along the way of the increase of communicative approach popularity, many NNETs think that using only English all the time during their learning-teaching activity in their classroom is considered much more appropriate.

The anxiety has already been responded by some experts on English teaching in Indonesia such as Mulkhan (1996) and Ramelan (1994). They argue that such an anxiety can be overcome. Even they state that English does not threaten the superiority of Bahasa Indonesia, but, on the contrary, English teaching in Indonesia can help the development of Bahasa Indonesia.

It is true that the importance of English is generally accepted by the educated people in Indonesia. They realize that English manages to spread sciences and technologies in around the world. Even, Kaplan in Nurkamto (2003) states that international federation of documentation, a world institution that deals with information distribution, reported that almost 85 percent of information of science and technology are written or abstracted in English.

Thus, there are two real conditions that Indonesian people should consider carefully. The first condition is the position of NNETs who are considered as mere the assistant of NETs. The second one the less popularity of Bahasa Indonesia especially among the young generation. Ideally, NNETs can make use of their being bilingual to teach their students more effectively. Besides, English teaching can be used to strengthen the position of Bahasa Indonesia as unitary language of Indonesian people.

Methodology

Basically, the method which I employ in conducting my research is a descriptive-qualitative research. However, because I focus on examining students' essays, my research method can be categorized as a narrative analysis. Mitchell and Eguido (2003) state that narrative is inherently multidisciplinary, and is an extension of the interpretive approaches in social sciences. Furthermore, they say that narrative analysis then takes the story itself as the object of study.

In observing the students' essay, I examine the equivalence related to the meaning of their English translation compared with their Indonesian essay. To sharpen my examining students' essay, I utilize the strategy called error analysis. Furthermore, my research can be categorized as a case study. It means I do not intend to generalize the findings of my research.

Determining students to be the respondents is the first step that I do. The respondents are the students of English Education Departments of Purworejo Muhammadiyah University in the academic year of 2012/2013. They are the fifth semester students who take the subject of Indonesian-English Translation. The second step is to ask the students to do the task before they attended the final examination. There were 13 students whom I asked them accomplishing and submitting the task given. Observing the students' task, i.e. writing an essay in Bahasa Indonesia and then translating it into English in order to find their problems is the next step that I undergo.

Asking the students to do the task is the most important step that I must go through. Examining some students' task more thoroughly for the sake of investigating the error they make is the next step I do. Dealing with students' error, I consider the categorization made by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) which include: errors dealing with omitting grammatical morphemes, double marking a semantic feature, regularizing rules, using archiforms, using two or more forms in random alternation, and misordering items.

However, the error made by students in translating their Indonesian essay into English ones need further categorizations, more than what are already proposed by them. In this case, I also need to talk about run-on sentence, paralellism, diction, punctuation, etc. to enable me to investigate the students' error more thoroughly.

To describe my investigation, I make use the following table:

Table 1: Matrix for Investigation

Indonesian	English
Student's writing in Indonesian	Student's writing in English

English	English
Student's writing in English	Revising Student's writing in English
Student's problems	

By examining the student's essay carefully, both the essay written in Bahasa Indonesia and English, I can find the student's problem in accomplishing the task. Furthermore, the student's problem will be used to be the main object of consideration to arrange materials of a coursebook.

Research Findings

After reading all essays written by students, I can state that they did accomplish their task seriously. It can be observed by examining how they organize their writing, how they convey their message, and how they elaborate the detail. Thus, the task I gave to them, i.e. writing their own experience or writing about someone whom they admire can motivate them to write an essay in both Bahasa Indonesia and English.

After examining some student's tasks, I can find that the students have problem in translating their Bahasa Indonesia essay into English one especially dealing with punctuation, run-on sentence, diction, omission, addition, misformation, sentence logic, verb agreement, pronoun, and parallelism. However, some mistakes cannot be said as translation mistakes. Sometimes students wrote their Bahasa Indonesia sentence ungrammatically. As a consequence, their English sentence was influenced by their ungrammatical Bahasa Indonesia sentence.

Although the mistakes are possibly caused by the Bahasa Indonesia sentence they write, they should have realized that their English sentence are ungrammatical. In this case, I do not discuss the cause of mistakes. I do discuss the keeping of sentence or paragraph meaning by not violating the stucture nor the diction.

Discussion

The main problems that I intend to answer are: how to motivate and encourage the students to write an essay both in Bahasa Indonesia and English and how to make use of students' tasks to facilitate them mastering Indonesian-English translation. After conducting research whose the steps are: finding the respondents, giving a task namely to write a bilingual essay, asking them to submit their works as the data, and examining their essay emphasizing on the English essay, I can describe and elaborate my findings.

1. Motivation and Students' Task

How to motivate and encourage the students to write an essay both in Bahasa Indonesia and English is the question that I want to answer. It is important because motivation is always put on the very high list of a priority scale in discussing the foreign or second language learning. There are several researches conducted dealing with student's motivation. One of the researches found that the responses to the survey and the interview transcripts were analysed separately by each researcher in order to identify salient categories, which were then collated into a number of key themes (Sakui and Cowie, 2012). Furthermore, they said that these separate interpretations were then compared and a final composite set of results was produced to answer their research question. Results suggest that there are three main areas in which teachers feel limited in motivating their learners, i.e. institutional systems, student attitudes and personalities, and teacher–student relationships.

In my research, what is meant by institutional systems can be dealt with the fact that Indonesian-English Translation class is a compulsary subject which is offered for the fifth semester students of English Education Department. Student attitudes and personalities can be accomodated with the task within such a subject which let them free to choose what they want to write (whether writing about their experience or about the most inspiring person they have ever met). Furthermore, the teacher-student relationship can be built by student presenting his or her essay in front of classroom during the translation class with the teacher as their facilitator.

How to describe the process to utilize the students' task is also need to be described. It can be the reason why the materials of Indonesian-English Translation are developed in such a way. Student's task itself is the main component in conducting Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). Many experts have defined what a task is. One of them writes that task can be identified by its criterial features. According to Ellis (2003), the criterial features of a task include: a workplan, involving a primary focus on meaning, involving real-world processes of language use, being able to involve any of the four language skills, engaging cognitive processes, and having a clearly defined communicative outcome. Furthermore, TBLT itself is the realization of Communicative Language teaching in the classroom (Nunan, 2004).

How to make use of students' tasks to facilitate them mastering Indonesian-English translation becomes the last question. Task is always connected with student's activity. Murphy (2012) states that task should therefore involve learners in reflecting on the way in which they carry them out, as well as on the language they used, thereby helping to develop the learner autonomy.

2. Translation Teaching at English Education Department

Indonesian-English Translation subject at English Education Department of Teacher Training and Pedagogy Faculty of Purworejo Muhammadiyah University is offered to the students of the fifth semester. The translation teaching has a different characteristics comparing with the translation teaching held by other department or faculty. In this English Education Department, the translation teaching belongs to what so-called pedagogic translation.

Basically, translation teaching is at least divided into two categories, i.e. real translation and pedagogic translation. Real translation teaching emphasizes on preparing the students to be translator. Meanwhile, pedagogic translation emphasizes on preparing the students to be a teacher of English as a foreign language who are aware of their students' L1. Klaudy in Vermes (2003) explains what pedagogic translation is. According to him pedagogical and real translation differ from each other on three counts: the function, the object, and the addressee of the translation. As regards function, pedagogical translation is an instrumental kind of translation, in which the translated text serves as a tool of improving the language learner's foreign language proficiency.

As a matter of fact, to utilize students' mother tongue or L1 in foreign language teaching happens not only in Indonesia but also in European countries. In this case Dilkova (2010) writes that one significant activity is worth mentioning, namely translating from and into the mother tongue. ...using mother tongue is becoming more popular nowadays exactly due to its help in foreign language learning. One reason for that it the positive result in the learners' motivation and the sense of achievement.

Making use of students' mother tongue or students' L1 does not mean that the teacher violates the principle of communicative language teaching. He by no means applies the Grammar

Translation Method in his English class. Rather, English teaching which makes use of students' L1 is done just to motivate and to facilitate the students in achieving the goal of English teaching more effectively.

3. Making Use of Students' Task to be a Coursebook Materials

Student's tasks that I managed to collect are as the data. They can be used to observe and describe the students' difficulties in accomplishing the tasks given. Furthermore, they can be used to be the basis of which the coursebook will be composed.

In arranging materials within a course book, it is indispensable to consider the guidelines or the requirements. In this case, I need to consider the guidelines of how to arrange the materials within a coursebook as having stated by Jocelyn and Major (2013). They states that English language teaching materials should be contextualized, stimulate interaction and be generative in terms of language, encourage the learners to develop language skills and strategies, allow for a focus on form as well as on function, offer opportunities for an integrated language use, be authentic, link to each other to develop a progression of skills, understandings, and language items, be attractive, have appropriate instructions, and be flexible.

Before describing the process of composing a course book, I need to discuss the task itself. The tasks that I manage to collect and analyze come from the students who take the subject of Indonesian-English Translation. Such a subject, which is offered at the fifth semester, was held in September, 2012 to February, 2013. There are 13 student's tasks that I manage to collect. I ask the students to submit the task at the end of the semester, i.e. before attending the final examination.

Table 2: Directions of Student's Task

Directions: 1. Write an essay about the most interesting experience you have had in Bahasa Indonesia, and then translate it directly into English; or 2. Write an essay about the most inspiring person you have met in Bahasa Indonesia, and then translate it directly into English; 3. Read the following student's task as an example for you.

The example which the students should read is also taken from student's task, i.e. task taken from their senior. It is of course the student's task which has already been carefully revised. It is suggested that the revision or correction is conducted during the learning-teaching activity. In such a classroom activity, the lecturer functions as the facilitator.

To make or to arrange the Indonesian-English translation materials must be based on the student's task. By examining the student's task that has been submitted, I can find student's strengths and weaknesses. Their strengths can be found, among others, by their intention and capability of writing an essay, either narrative or descriptive one. Their weaknesses can be found, among others, by the mistakes done in writing a sentence. The mistakes are mainly dealt with structure and vocabulary.There are some steps that I must undergo before determining the task to be the material. The first step is to find the student's task.

Table 3: Finding Student's Task

Pengalamanku yang Berkesan Oleh Mirwana Sari (10.212.0195)	**My Unforgetable Experience** By Mirwana Sari (10.212.0195)
Apakah kalian mempunyai idola atau pernah mengidolakan seseorang, penyanyi,	Do you have an idol or even do you idolize someone – a singer, football, club, or

klub sepakbola, atau yang lainnya? Aku yakin kalian pasti punya sosok idola masing-masing. Ketika kita mengidolakan seseorang atau yang lainnya, kita pasti ingin bertemu dengan mereka.	something else? I believe that all of you may have an idol. When we idolize someone or group, we definitely want to see them. ....

The next step is to move just the English text in order to be analyzed sentence by sentence. If the English text does not have the clear meaning or even meaningless, Bahasa Indonesia text will be the reliable reference.

Table 4: Examining English Text

My Unforgetable Experience By Mirwana Sari (10.212.0195)	**My Unforgetable Experience** By Mirwana Sari (10.212.0195)
No student's problem	
Do you have an idol or even do you idolize someone – a singer, football, club, or something else? I believe that all of you may have an idol. When we idolize someone or group, we definitely want to see them.	(Do you have an idol? Do you ever idolize a singer, football player, or others?) (I believe that all of you may have an idol.) (When we idolize someone or a group band, we definitely want to see him or it.) ....
The student's problems are: run-on sentence and pronoun agreement.	

After examining some student's tasks, I can conclude that the students have problem in translating their Indonesian essay into English one especially dealing with punctuation, run-on sentence, diction, omission, addition, misformation, sentence logic, verb agreement, pronoun, and parallelism. However, some mistakes cannot be said as translation mistakes. Sometimes students write their Indonesian sentence ungrammatically. As a consequence, their English sentence is influenced by their ungrammatical Indonesian sentence.

Table 5: Revising Student's Task

My Unforgetable Experience By Mirwana Sari (10.212.0195)	**My Unforgetable Experience** By Mirwana Sari (10.212.0195)
Do you have an idol? Do you ever idolize a singer, football player, or others? I believe that all of you may have an idol. When we idolize someone or a group band, we definitely want to see him or it.	Do you have an idol? Have you ever idolized a singer, football player, or others? I believe that all of you may have an idol. When we idolize someone or a group band, we definitely want to see him or it. ....

After discussing the paragraph translation above, students are encouraged to translate the Indonesian paragraph into English one in more acceptable translation, and the teacher must appreciate the students' effort. Actually, it is what the teacher expects student to do.

Conclusion

Non-native English Teachers (NNETs) can utilize their strengths. One of the advantages of being NNETs is being bilingual. Utilizing of being bilingual can be in the form of translation teaching which is implemented communicatively. In such a case, implementing translation teaching applying Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) can be the realization of teaching translation communicatively.

In teaching Indonesian-English Translation for students of English Education Department, the lecturer can make use of his bilingual optimally without violating the

Communicative Approach principle. Applying Task-Based Language Teaching can be of the promising attempt to realize the communicative translation teaching.

In teaching Indonesian-English Translation, the coursebook which is written by applying Task-Based Language Teaching is needed. Such a translation coursebook will motivate and encourage students to write an essay, both in Bahasa Indonesia and English.

4. In composing materials of Indonesian-English Translation, student's task is the basis of doing so.

References

Dilkova, Ts. 2012. Learning Strategies in Foreign Language Teaching: Using Translation in Foreign Language Teaching. *Jurnal of the University of Chemical Technology and Metallurgy*, 45, 4, 2010, 449-4522

Djiwandono, Patrisius Istiarto. 2002. "The Roles of Indonesian in Role-Play Activities in an English Language Class". *Linguistik Indonesia*. Agustus 2002. tahun 20, nomor 2.

Dulay, Heidi, Marina Burt, and Stephen Krashen. 1982. *Language Two*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, Rod. 2003. *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford. Oxford University Press

Florence, Lai Ping. 2012. Advantages and Disadvantages of Native- and Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers: Student Perspectives in Hongkong. *Tesol Quarterly*. June, 2012.

Howard, Jocelyn, and Jae Major. (2013). Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials www.paaljapan.org/2013.

Mahboob, A. 2010. The NNESTs Lens: Non-Native English Speakers in *TESOL*. *Review*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing 2010.

Mitchell, M and M. Aguido. 2003. *A Review of Narrative Methodology*. Edinburgh South Australia. DSTO System of Library.

Mulkan, M.R. 1996. *Kita dan Bahasa Inggris*. Jakarta. Balai Pustaka

Murphy, Jacky. 2003. Task-Based Learning: The Interaction between Task and Learners. *ELT Journal Volume* 57/4 October 2003

Nurkamto, Joko.2003. ."Problema Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris di Indonesia." *Linguistik Indonesia*. Agustus 2003. tahun ke-21, nomor 2.

Ramelan. 1994. *Introduction to Linguistics*. Semarang. IKIP Semarang Press.

Sakui, Keiko & Neil Cowie. 2012. The Dark Side of Motivation: Teachers' Perspectives and 'Unmotivation'. *ESL Journal,* April 2012.

Sampson, Andrew. 2012. Learner Code-Switching Versus English Only. *ELT Journal.* July, 2012.

Vermes, Albert. 2010. Translation in Foreign Language Teaching: A Brief Overview of Pros and Cons. *Eger Journal of English Studies* X (2010) 83-93.

The Effectiveness of Employing a Native Speaker in an English Class at the Fourth Semester Students of STMIK PROVISI Semarang

Qorinta Shinta
STMIK ProVisi Semarang
shintaprovisi@yahoo.com

Abstract

The presence of native and non-native speakers for TEFL is under a strong debate The quasi experimental study is aimed at investigating (1)how effective the native teacher is to improve students' proficiency levels, and (2) to what extent the students' level of speaking proficiency is affected by the treatment with respect to the selection of communication strategies. (3) to what extent the students' attitude is influenced by the presence of a native teacher in class. In the study, twenty eight students at the fourth semester of STMIK ProVisi were selected out of the total number of students from two different groups by using purposive sampling. One group was used as the control group and the other as the treatment group. The data were collected by administering a pre test based on IELTS standard to both groups to discover the initial scores. A native teacher, then, delivered the speaking materials to the treatment group while the same materials were given by a local teacher to the control group in one semester. At the end of the semester, a post test was given to both groups to investigate whether the students' score result under the native teacher's guidance outnumbered those under the local teacher's. The data analysis revealed that there is no significant difference between the post test score result of the control and experiment groups. Based on the t–test for equality of means, the t calculation value is 0.802, with significant probability (sig) of 0.404 t table is 2.1604 withα 0.05 and df = 13, the calculation value (0.862) < t table (2.1604). These mean that there was no significant difference between the two groups. In addition, the selection of communication strategies showed that both groups applied similar communication strategies in both pre and post tests. In the pre test, two most commonly used strategies were Appeal for Assistance (AA) and Topic Avoidance (TA). After the treatment, the choice of communication strategies shifted to Literal Translation (LT) and Message Abandonment (MA) for both groups. The results reflected the fact that despite the presence of a native speaker, the students performance (in treatment group) did not show any significant improvement compared to those in control group , this may due to the fact that their initial ability in English were still low. This study also implicates that employing a native speaker would result better for students with adequate knowledge and competence in English.

Keywords: Native speaker, Communication Strategis,STMIK ProVisi, IELTS

Introduction

Most students in Indonesia find English is one of the difficult subject to learn. Even they have learned it since they are in Junior High School. This situation causes the flourish of bilingual schools in Indonesia starting from elementary school until high school under the assumption that the exposure to an English environment, moreover with the existence of native teacher, will increase the fluency in speaking English. The term Native Speaker refers to those with American and British dialects (Torghabeh, 2007), in addition, those with caucasian ethnicity, the right nationality, and monolinguality (Nayar, 2007:2).

This research is to discover (1) how effective the native teacher is to improve students' proficiency level, and (2) to what extent the students' levels of English proficiency are affected by the treatment with respect to the selection of the most effective communication strategies to convey the messages.

Literary Review

Taxonomies of Communication Strategies.

Tarone taxonomies one of the earliest typologies classified the strategies into five : Avoidance, Paraphrase, Conscious Transfer, Appeal for Assistance, and Mime (1977). Varadi (1980) grouped communication strategies into various kinds of message adjustment. Bialystok (1983) divided the strategies into three categories ; L1-based, L2-based, and paralinguistic strategies.

Elaine Tarone (1983:62-63) divided communication strategy into paraphrase, borrowing, and avoidance. *Paraphrase* consists of three strategies : (1) Approximation. (2) Word (3) Circumlocation *Borrowing* consists of (1) Literal translation (2) Language switch (3) Appeal

for assistance (4) Mime While *avoidance* consists of (1) Topic avoidance (2) Message abandonment :

Methods

Research Design

A quasi experimental design is chosen since the subjects of the experiment have grouped together for reasons other than carrying out an experiment (Nunan,1992:27).

These group, then, conduct both pre and post tests, and only the experimental group receives treatment (Creswell (2003:167). Firstly these groups are given the same pre test to get the first scores. Then the experimental group is taught by a native speaker (the treatment) while the control group is taught by a local teacher (non treatment). Both groups use the same material taken from *Focus on IELTS* by Susan O'Connel By the end of the term, both groups are given post test to discover whether they have improved their speaking scores by comparing the pre test and post test results. Then the result on control group will be compared by using t-test with the experiment group to find out whether the experimental group show better result than the control one

The quantitative method is used because the data taken is non parametric data which is ranked from 1 to 9. The data are in the form of students' pre test and post test scores. While the qualitative approach is used to discover which communication strategies mostly occur during the speaking tests and what do they imply?

Participants

The research population samples consist of 28 a fourth semester students of STMIK ProVisi Semarang taking English 4. The students are divided into two groups: group A (experimental group) and the group B (the control group). Each class consists of 14 students.

Test Instrument

Speaking test 4 material which is IELTS based,

Examiner

The examiner giving the scores is a 55 year old British, Nick Miell, educated in England and taken some certificates in English language, English Literature, and also RSA/CELTA certificate for Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

Methods of Analysis

The t-test is applied to test the difference mean significance students' speaking scores and to determine which group is more affective to increase students' speaking score native teacher or local teacher. All of the analysis was presented by using *Statistical Package for Social Science* (SPSS) version 15.0.

ANOVA

ANOVA or Analysis of Variance is a statistical analysis test to test whether the means of two sample differ significantly or not and to test whether both samples have similar population variance or not. The underlying assumptions are: 1.Normal distribution population, 2. Same population variance, 3. Samples are not connected to one another. Before ANOVA was applied, two tests must be conducted : test of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance.

Hypotheses

In this study, three hypotheses were tested, they are :

1. There is a significant difference between the pre test and post test of control class
2. There is significant difference between the pre test and post test of experiment class.
3. There is a significant difference between the post test of control class and post test of experiment class.

Results

Preliminary Analysis

a) Test of Normality of Distribution

. All the significant value both in pre tests and post tests of experimental and control groups were higher than 0.05, in other words all the variable distribution is considered normal.

b). ANOVA and Test of Homogeneity

The result of test of homogeneity of variance showed that Levene's statistics was 0.587 with the significant value or probability is 0.451. Since the probability 0.451 > 0.05, therefore H0 was accepted and HA was rejected meaning that variances of both experimental and control groups were the same before treatment was given.

Hypotheses Testing

a) Hypothesis 1 :

There is a significant difference between the pre test and post test of the control group.

The figure below shows that there is a significant difference between the pre test scores blue line) and post test scores (pink line) of control group. Most of the students increased their scores (ranging from 0.5 – 1.5).

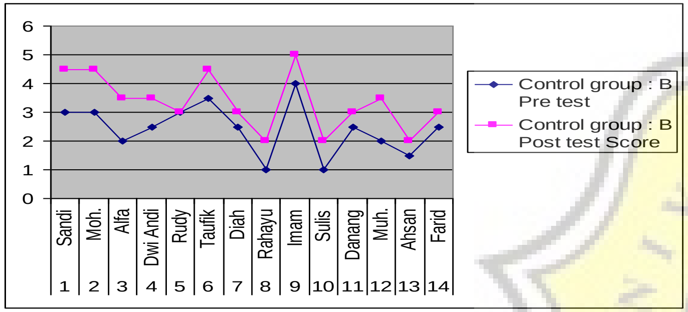


Figure 4.1 ***A Comparison between pre and post test scores of control group***

T-test on pretest – post test control group

It can be concluded that t calculation > than t table (- 7.320 > - 2.1604) with significant value 0.000 < 0.05. In other words, H null is rejected and HA is accepted which means there is a significant difference after the experiment was carried out in control class.

b) Hypothesis 2 :

There is a significant difference between the pre test and post test scores of the experiment group.

The line shows that there a significant difference between the pre test and post test scores of the experiment group. Of the 14 students participated, 13 increased their scores ranging from 0.5 to 2.

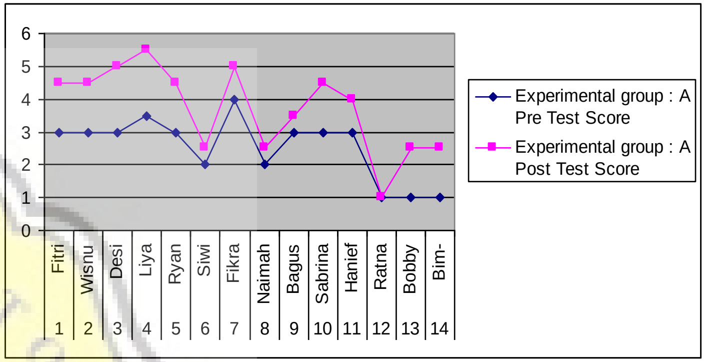


Figure 4.2 A ***Comparison between Pre and Post Test Scores of Experimental Group***

T-test pre_test - post_test experiment group

It can be concluded that t calculation > than t table (-7.255 >- -2.1604) with significant value 0.000 < 0.05. In other words, H null is rejected and HA is accepted which means there is a significant difference after the experiment was carried out in experimental group.

c) Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference between the post test of control group and experimental group.

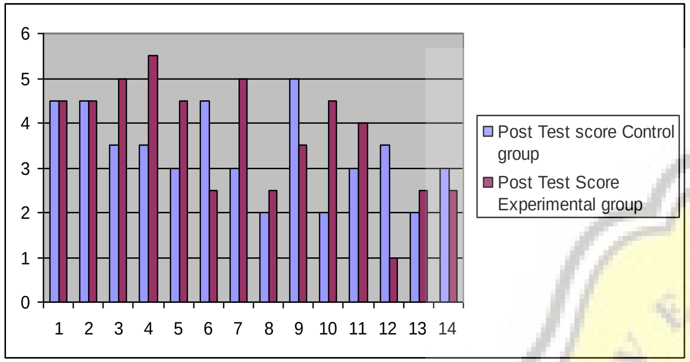


Figure 4.4 ***A comparison of post test scores of Control and Experimental Groups***

T –test on post test in experiment group - control group

Based on t- test analysis, the t calculation value < t table (0.862 < 2.1604) with the significant level 0.404 > 0.005 (higher), therefore null hypothesis is accepted. This means there is a no significant different between post test of the control and experiment groups.

Discussion

The pre test and post test scores of experimental group revealed that there was an increase of 1.2 in average for this group.

Aspect	Pre test result (mean score 2.5)	Post test result (mean score 3.7)
a) Fluency and Coherence	spoke with long pauses, produced limited simple sentences, gave simple responses and unable to convey basic messages	responded with pauses, spoke slowly, with frequent repetition and correction, produced basic sentences with repetitious use of simple connectives and some breakdowns in coherence.
b) Lexical Resource	used simple vocabulary, had insufficient vocabulary for less familiar topic	able to talk about familiar topics but only conveyed basic meaning on unfamiliar topics, made frequent word errors and rarely paraphrasing.
a) Grammatical Range and Accuracy	used limited basic sentence forms, or relied on memorized utterances, made numerous errors.	produced basic sentence forms, some correct simple sentences but rarely produced subordinate structures instead often produced errors that may lead to misunderstanding
a) Pronunciation	Their speech is sometimes unintelligible.	They used a limited range of pronunciation features, attempt to control features but lapses were frequent, produced mispronunciation which caused difficulty to the listener.

The pre test and post test scores of control group revealed that there was an increase of 0.9 in average for this group

Aspect	Pre test result (mean score 2.3)	Post test result (mean score 3.2)
a) Fluency and Coherence	paused lengthily before most words and conveyed little communication basic.	Spoke with long pauses, had limited ability to link simple sentences, gave simple responses and frequently unable to convey basic message.
b) Lexical Resource	only produced isolated words or memorized utterances	used simple vocabulary to convey personal information and have insufficient vocabulary for less familiar topic
c) Grammatical Range and Accuracy	Couldn't produce basic sentence words	attempted basic sentence forms but with limited success, or relied on memorized utterances and made numerous errors except in memorized expressions
d) Pronunciation	Their speech was unintelligible.	Their speech is sometimes unintelligible.

The table shows that during the pre test both groups lacked of grammatical mastery, fluency, vocabulary, and a little problem with pronunciation. After the materials were given both groups showed an increase in score ranging from 0.9 (control group) to 1.2 (experimental group).

However, the increase still put them as limited user of English due to the fact that their basic competence is limited to familiar situations, they have problems in understanding expressions, and are unable to use complex language.

6. Communication Strategy Analysis

The data analysis revealed that there is no significant difference between the score result of the control and experiment groups. Based on the t – test for equality of means, the t calculation value is 0.802, with significant probability (sig) of 0.404 t table is 2.1604 with α 0.05 and df = 13, the calculation value (0.862) < t table (2.1604). These results mean that there is no significant difference between the two groups

Furthermore, the result from qualitative analysis shows that based on the selection of communication strategies, it shows that both groups tend to apply similar communication strategies in both pre and post tests. During the pre test, two most commonly used strategies were Appeal for Assistance (AA) and Topic Avoidance (TA). For control group the percentage of AA is 36.70% and TA is 22.78% , while for experiment group percentage is 39% for AA and 30.4% for TA. After the treatment, the choice of communication strategies shifted to Literal Translation (LT) and Message Abandonment (MA) for both group. For control group the percentage of LT is 53.60% and MA is 25.77%. While for experiment group the percentage for LT is 34.21% and MA is 25%.

Conclusion

Some conclusions can be drawn among others are

1. Employing a native speaker in an English class at the fourth semester students did not really improve the students' competence because the post test scores post test of experimental group did not differ significantly compared to the control group.
2. This result was supported by the fact that both the students in experimental or control groups still used the L1-based strategies such as Appeal for Assistance, Message Abandonment, Literal Translation, and Topic Avoidance which were least effective strategies for the success of a communication (Kirsten 1981:155). While the avoidance behavior is an easy way out for the foreign language learner who is unable to communicate a desired meaning due to vocabulary difficulty (Palmberg, - : 140).
3. All these facts showed that the students proficiency level was still low, since their choice of strategies was highly relied on the reduction and L1-based strategies. This result supports the previous research that basically native speaker teachers are better for higher level students (Madrid, 2004:136). This answered the questions why there was no significant difference between students under a native speaker's learning process and under non native's? Because they were still in the low level of English competence.

References

Bialystok, Ellen . 1990. *Communication Strategies : A Psychological Analysis of Second-Langue Use.* United States of America : Basil Blackwell.

Bialystok, Ellen, "*Some Factors in the Selection and Implementation of Communication Strategies*", Strategies in Interlanguage Communication. England :Longman group Limited. 1984. pages 105-108.

Creswell, John W. 2003. *Research Design : Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches – Second Edition*. United States of America : Sage Publications Inc.

Madrid, Daniel. 2004. "Teacher and student preferences of native and non native foreign language teachers", in PORTA LINGUARIUM 2, Junio, page 136.

Nayar, P.B. " *Whose English is it*?" in TESL LJ Teaching English as a Second Language Vol 1, No 1, April 1994 page:2.

Nunan, David.1992. *Research Methods in Language Learning*. USA : Cambridge University Press.

O'Connel, Susan. 2005. *Focus on IELTS*. England : Longman.
Palmberg, Rolf., --, " *On the use of Lexical Avoidance Strategies in Foreign Language Communication"*. Faculty of Education, Abo Akademi.
Tarone, Elaine." *Some thoughts on the notion of ' communication strategy*" in Strategies in Interlanguage Communication. Edited by Claus Faerch and Gabriele Kasper. England : Longman. 1983. Pages 61-74
Torghabeh, Rajabali Askarzadeh. "*EFL Variations and Native Speaker Model*", Asian EFL Journal : English Language Teaching and Research Articles. 2007. Vol. 9. Issue 4. Article 5.

Teaching English for Professional Orientations: Challenges and Opportunities

Endang Soelistiyowati
English Program, Vocational College, UGM

Abstract

While English is used widely, regardless their educational backgrounds, students taking English major must also be skilful in other things other than the English competence per se. Professional orientations, which are of trend issues, such as media, tourism, language teaching, public relations, and business administrations, need to be taught along with the teaching of English. Diverse educational backgrounds of the students enrolling, minimum length of studying time, low of motivation, are possible drawbacks to face challenges. However, by foreseeing the vast vacancy that the students could fill in, teachers and educators believe that the opportunities would far outweigh the possible drawbacks educators might experience. This paper would discuss both the challenges and opportunities that teachers and educators may face.

Keywords: professional orientations, teaching approaches

Introduction

People communicate one another using English across nations throughout the world. English, as an international language, is used as a means of communication, commerce, trade, science, and many others. With such importance, English is taught in the very beginning to provide a broad exposure for the students. In Indonesia, English is taught even in the early childhood education. Parents, moreover, are aware of this huge issue; they put their students in schools which has English subject and exposure. Some parents even have their private teachers and/or tutors for their children.

It is amazing to know that people, however, whose mother tongue is not English, are fluent in speaking English regardless their educational background. Those with social economic or engineering backgrounds are capable of communicating in English with ease. This means, students majoring in English must possess other competencies to be able to compete with them. English students must be able to perform other tasks other than the English ability itself to be able to get a job. Earning a degree in English only is not enough.

Nowadays, there is a growing trend towards these fields: media, tourism, teaching, public relations, and business administrations. Thus, English students must also be equipped with the skills to prepare them to work once they graduate. Such skills need to be taught along with the teaching of English.

Challenges are always there to face. Diverse educational backgrounds of the students enrolling, minimum length of studying time, low of motivation, are possible challenges to overcome. However, by foreseeing the vast vacancy that the students could fill in, teachers and educators believe that the opportunities would far outweigh the possible drawbacks educators might experience. This paper would discuss both the challenges and opportunities that teachers and educators may face.

Diverse Educational Backgrounds

Students graduating from high schools, regardless their background, whether it is science or social backgrounds, may enrol in different kinds of fields; they may take any majors in universities, As a result, there are heterogeneous classes that teachers would face.

Some students may have a good basic of English competence, while others may not. Students may have different English levels, which require different approaches from the teacher. In this case, drilling and emphasis on basic skills are necessary to improve students' general competence.

However, concerning the various educational backgrounds that students have, different backgrounds may give an advantageous point: students possess unique skills that may

complement one another. Students who are good at mathematics and logics may synergize others who are good at language. Students with social science background may be better in terms of communication and socializing with people, which means they could be great ones to be put in the front desk for example, while those with physics good at logics may serve as technical staff dealing with non-human issues.

In short, diversity brings negative and positive points to deal with. However, as long as teachers know how to approach the possible drawbacks, these could turn into advantageous ones.

Minimum Length of Studying Time

Three-year education study program, with the scheme of 1.5 years for the basic skills, 1 year professional orientations, the rest of the semester for working on the internship and Final Paper. This is such a tight scheme that students could hardly have sufficient time to internalize what they have learnt, while students have to both learn knowledge and develop their personalities and attitudes.

However, Mussen & Rosenzweig (1973) states that attitudes change through communications. Desired attitudes and behaviours, to meet the market demand, could be taught along with the teaching of English competence. To meet this demand, real practice in and outside classrooms should be encouraged. Classes like Introduction to Administrative Business and Public Relation could be approached by training students the skills to organize and promote a company, which include working on the company profile and presenting the company in the candidate customers. Speaking Class could be directed to preparing students to be news Anchors. Writing Class can also be used to train students the skills needed in journalism.

Motivation

What initiates, directs and maintains one's behaviours to reach his goal is called motivation. It causes someone to act upon something. Gardner and Lambert (1972) assert that there are two types of motivation, integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation is the desire that someone has to be involved in the culture and society of a language. Someone with integrative motivation can be the one who wishes to be able to speak the language so as to enable them to get along with his girlfriend, or the one of heritage language learners. This personal affinity toward a language and its society drives someone to learn a language better and harder, and it is likely that this kind of learner would be more persistent in the study than the one with instrumental motivation, which usually results in a better achievement and a more successful experience in learning the language.

Someone with instrumental motivation is the one with practical reasons, such as getting a salary bonus, getting a scholarship, or getting into college and graduate. Many times, students with this instrumental motivation study to get good scores and graduate. Unlike the integrative motivated students, instrumental motivated students have more possibility to experience boredom and sometimes would focus more on the score rather than the knowledge / skills itself.

Most students in diploma programs, however, aim at earning good scores for higher GPA and others for work / a better job. This is what is called instrument motivation. While research results show that integrative motivation yields much better results than instrument motivation, students must be driven to have integrative motivation, by involving positive emotions, such as sense of belonging, prestige, need, and meaningfulness.

Discussion

The objective of language teaching is to help the students to be able to participate, to a certain extent, with particular reasons, in the community appropriately (Corder, 1980). It is

beyond the idea of teaching a language per se, but the overall effort to make the students to be the members of the community, the language and the culture. Lawes (2000) states the same arguments that learning or teaching a language is more than about academic study. It is about the effort to communicate and participate in the community of the target language, which covers language, skills, and attitudes. Some students, however, may have different purposes in learning a language, which may lead to different expectations and drive to master the language. Some may want to be translators, wives/ husbands of foreigners, poets, teachers, ambassadors, and many others. These drives may lead to different approaches and results.

Various language teaching methods, from Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Silent Way, until Communicative Approach, may be used in some classes in some parts of the world and others in other parts (Freeman, 2000). No methods are claimed to be the best. Yet, it depends on the fact whether or not they could be used to meet the desired objective in the learning of a language. Nunan (1991) agrees that methods used in class should not be used just that way. Rather, it must be chosen, adapted wisely with what actually happens in the classroom.

Richards & Lockhart (1996) clarifies that teachers need to do a kind of reflections of what happens in their classrooms. They must research and come up with methods and approaches to use. The methods available to use must be adapted with the current, specific situations that the teachers face in their classrooms. The teachers must decide the structure of the lessons, how to open, what sequence to use, the pace, and the closure, and also the follow-up activities, Teachers may also use journals, lesson reports, audio or video recording of a lesson.

Richards and Lockhart confirms the ideas presented earlier by Holliday. Continuous evaluations and efforts to upgrade the quality of a teaching learning process must be done (Holliday, 1994). These include collecting information necessary to develop appropriate strategies, approaches and methods, to re-evaluate the curriculum, redesign and manage the classroom activities. Modification must be done along with the needs analysis, adaptation of the syllabus and also observation.

Conclusion

To best provide English students with professional skills, the school systems and the teachers must provide adequate exposure to English. Raising students' awareness of the importance of English would help develop their motivation. Creative approaches to increase motivation should be implemented to provide meaningfulness of the lessons to the students' real lives. And the last one, students must also be trained to acquire the necessary soft skills for the jobs they are working on.

References

Corder, S.P. (1980). Why Teach a Foreign Language. In D. Byrne (Ed.) *English Teaching Perspectives*. Essex: Longman Group Ltd.

Freeman, D.L. (2000). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gardner, R.C., Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation for Second Language Learning*. Rowley MA: Newbury House Publishers

Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate Methodology and Social Context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lawes, S. (2000). Why Learn a Foreign Language. In K. Field (Ed.). *Issues in Modern Foreign Language Teaching.* London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Mussen, P., Rosenzweig, M.R., et.al. (1973). *Psychology: An Introduction*. Lexington: D.C. Heath and Company

Nunan, D. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*. London: Prentice Hall.

Richards, J.C., and Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Stern, H. (1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Literature as a Means of Teaching Integrated Skills

Sosiowati, I Gusti Ayu Gde
Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali
sosiowati@yahoo.com

Abstract

Prose is one of the literary genres that is taught in Udayana University. The main goal of this subject is not to make the students become writers, but to enable the students to understand what intrinsic elements that build a story and why a literary work is considered to be good. The other important goals of this subjects is to improve the students ability not only in reading, listening, speaking, writing, but also in pragmatic skill. Pragmatic skill is important in making the students aware of the meaning implied by utterances spoken by any particular person or character, and by mastering this skill the misunderstanding about meaning can be very much reduced. The purpose of this article is to show how the teaching of literature can provide great contribution to the teaching of foreign language.

Keywords: integrated, literature, prose analysis, pragmatic

Introduction

Literature and its genre is one of the subject taught in tertiary education, including in the faculty of Arts and Cultures in the Udayana University. One of its genre taught is Prose in a subject called Prose Analysis. Prose is not a popular subject for most of the tertiary education students since they usually think that in literary class they will do a lot of reading, examining something which is not factual. It also happens in the class of Prose. Actually the students are very worried about taking this subject since they think that the main goal of this subject is to make them writers. It needs some times to make them understand that in this class, the literary work is also used as the teaching material, fom which they can improve their ability in reading, writing, listening and speaking besides getting knowledge about literature. This understanding is given in the first meeting of the class when the lecturer presents the learning contract. The learning contract explains about the scope of the subject, the marking system, what the students are expected to do during taking the class, including the class procedures. It often happens that eventhough that the main goal of this class is not to produce writers, still literary class, in this case Prose, worry them a lot. Using literary text as a teaching material is better than using topic-based teaching materials. This is because the topics given are usually similar to the ones in senior high school, not knowing what the scope is in each of the education level. The teaching staff in the English Department, Faculty of Arts and Cultures, Udayana University have anticipated these similarities by producing their own teaching materials to suit the language level of the students.

The class of Prose Analysis, just like the other genre of literature has the purpose to identify the separate parts that make it up (Kenney, 1966:5). Thus, in Prose Analysis, the students have to do the reading on the given story and then look at its intrinsic elements such as characters, plots, setting, point of view, etc. of the story and used their knowledge about the story as the topic of discussion. By doing this, the integrated teaching of skills can be conducted and at the same time they can improve their knowledge about the world because literary work is rich with the cases of human beings' lives. This is in line with Knickerbocker (1963:81), saying that story can offer a serious comment, interpretation, or sometimes criticism of the human situation. To be able to do this, the students should apply the four language skills namely reading, writing, listening and speaking in the class procedures which are the realization of what so called integrated teaching. By using this method, it can be expected that the students can achieve the main goals of language learning which are called competence and performance. Competence is the knowledge about the language and performance is its realisation (Harmer, 2001:13).

Discussion

Integrated language teaching is the teaching that combines the four language skills. This idea has been improved by Hammer (2012:225) in his *Content and Language Integrated Learning* saying that the name is given to a kind of teaching (and learning) where the students study a subject such as Biology, maths or citizenship, and, at the same time learn the language they need to understand and talk about the subject in a second language. In Indonesia, English is a foreign language, and in relation to the teaching and learning situation in the English Department, the faculty of Arts and Cultures, Udayana University, the main goal of the students is to master the English by using literary text as the teaching material. They have to be able to express their ideas about a given text and discuss is with their friends. They are given a material to talk about and it is expected that the discussion is more interesting since literary work contains various social issues, moral teaching that are useful for character building.

Each session has the time allotment of one hundred minutes and in that period of time the teaching of the four skill is conducted. So, before coming to the discussion, it would stressed that what is meant by integrated skills in this paper is integrating the four skills (reading and listening as receptive skills; speaking and writing as productive skills) in one teaching session and also integrating language teaching with teaching of literature. Below is the class procedures that describe how each of the four skills is taught.

A. Teaching Reading.

The materials for the subject of the Prose Analysis are in the form of old short stories, thus they are fiction. The reasons for using this type of text are as follows.

1. Those are authentic text in the sense that those text are not supposed to use as language teaching materials.

2. Old text usually has single focus so that it will be easier for the students to analyse the intrinsic elements such as the main character, the main plot, the theme and the moral teaching, and thus, it is easier for them to talk about those elements.
3. It contains cultural values so that the students can compare them with their own cultures and then discuss and decide which one can be properly applied in their own situation. In this case they can enrich their knowledge about the foreign culture.

As the reading material, the students are given a short story a week ahead so that they have sufficient time. In reading the literary text, the students have to do both extensive and intensive reading. According to Hammer (2001:204) extensive reading is reading at length, often for pleasure, and in leisurely way while intensive reading tends to be more concentrated, less relaxed, and often dedicated not so much to pleasure as to the achievement of a study goal. Reading extensively is expected from the students because literary text is a story that can widen their view about the world, find the similarities and differences between the characters in the story and themselves, find the moral teaching, etc. so that it can be fun for them. This is in line with the principle of giving a task, that students must have purposes in reading. However, at the same time this activity becomes intensive reading since to some extent the students need the help from the teacher to make them understand about the text. In the process of intensive reading, the students can be helped by the teacher to understand the implied meaning found in the text. If the implied meaning is in the utterances of any character, the students should know the background of the character as well as the relation with the one s/he is speaking to. In this case they have to deal with pragmatics. Intensive reading expect that the teacher should play the roles as (1) organiser: telling the students what the reading purpose is, (2) observer: when asking the students to read on their own, space is needed to be given to do so, (3) feedback organiser: checking if the

students have completed the task successfully, and (4) prompter: prompting them to notice the language features (that can help them to understand better). Understanding about the text and the way of understanding it is very important because in the final exam, the students will be given a text and some questions to answer it. This kind of exam also worries the students since they are afraid that they cannot understand the story because they do not understand the vocabulary in it. To deal with the problem, the students are encouraged to read the story as a whole and understand the general meaning of it, and then they are encouraged to try to guess the meaning from the context. When answering the questions they can use their own words. Bringing dictionary into the exam is not helpful since it is time consuming to look up dictionary during the exam. Thus in reading, students can mostly learn about how to get general ideas, how to get specific ideas, and guessing meaning from the context.

B. Teaching Listening

In listening, the students can also do both extensive and intensive listening. Extensive listening is that when they have to do the discussion with their friends, agreeing and disagreeing with their opinions, listening to their friends' opinion, etc. The students can provide proper respond/answer if they can listen and understand well to what their friends say In intensive listening, the students have to listen to the presentation about literary theory (since this is a literary class) that they will use in understanding the text and doing the task. The students also have to listen to the instruction given by the teacher. During the theory presentation, it cannot be expected that the language of the teacher should suit the students' level since they have different language ability. In this case, students must train themselves to understand the general ideas of the presentation otherwise they cannot understand the content of the lecture. They also have to be able to identify which part of the presentation is the important ones. Thus, in teaching listening, the points to teach are similar to those in teaching reading because both are receptive skills, apart from the fact that they also have to make use of the stress and intonation of the speaker to help them identify the important points.

C. Teaching Speaking

Speaking is taught by asking them to do the presentation, in which the students have to present the story and answer/respond the comment from their friends. What the teacher should observe are (1) connected speech to be effective speaker, (2) expressive devices such as the use of pitch and stress, (3) lexis and grammar to express certain functions, (4) negotiation language to ask for clarification. During the students do the presentation, the teacher will not do any interruption, but the feedback and the correction will be provided at the end of the discussion. The purpose of not interrupting during the discussion is to keep the students' psychological comfort and focus.

D. Teaching Writing

The writing practice will be done by the students when they write about the questions they would like to ask and the question asked by their friends. The teacher can find out if the students doing presentation can write the questions well because there is a regulation that before answering the questions, the student has to read the questions first to show that the student can get the main idea of the questions. Another writing task is that the students have to write the summary of the story in which they can practise to organize the ideas through sentences, use sentence connectors, etc. The work will be checked by the teacher and the feedback is given so that they can improve their written language.

Conclusion

Teaching foreign language is done to get good competence and performance. Whether or not the teaching is interesting depends on the teaching materials. Without feeling interested in the topic, the students will be reluctant to participate. Teaching language needs a lot of practice, unfortunately the practice can only be done in the classrooms. To maximize the practice, the students have to be pushed to make use of the classroom time allotment.The best solution, that is proved to have worked well, is by using literary text because it talks about various topics and events related to human being which is familiar for them, thus it can be said that the text is relevant to them, and it is easier for them to talk about it. This strategy is very useful and beneficial because (1) the main target, that is to teach literature, can be achieved, (2) the target language can be improved, and (3) there is a great potency of the development of the students' character building.

References

Harmer, J. 2001. *The Practice of English language Teaching.* England: Pearson Education Limited.
Harmer, J. 2012. *Essential teacher knowledge*. England: Pearson Education Limited.
Kenney, W. 1966. *How to Analyze Fiction.* USA: Monarch Press.
Knickerbocker, K.L. & H. Willard Reninger. 1963. New York . Chicago . sn francisco . Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

The Analysis of Teacher's Directives at High School Classes of English

Isti Subandini
Kharisma Bangsa School, Banten
istisubandini@yahoo.com

Abstract

Teacher talk of directives is very important to be managed to control students' behaviour and create good atmosphere in learning. Regarding the importance of directives, the present study was conducted to find out how the directives were categorized, the purposes of directives and the politeness strategies used by the teacher in English classrooms context. This research was conducted at English classes in one international school located in Bogor, Jawa Barat, Indonesia. The participants were an English teacher and 46 students of grade X. Audio-recording was used as the research instrument. Results show several findings: a) In both two classrooms observation, imperative was the most frequently used. It contributed 75% and 73 % used by the teacher. b). Command as one of teacher's purposes in uttering the directives was also significant used by the teacher. It contributed 71% and 67%. c). Politeness marker was frequently used which contributed 28% and 43%. As the conclusion, teacher used more imperative and command in directing students to control their behaviour. The politeness strategies were also used during the directives, thus students responded the directives actively.

Keywords: teacher talk, directives, imperative, interrogative, declarative, politeness strategies

Introduction

Directive becomes one example of teacher talk used in the classroom interaction. In speech act theory stated by Meyer (2009), directive is defined as utterances intended someone to do something, for instance, asking students to sit down properly or asking them to write a journal reflection during the learning. Those directions point out students to keep their behavioral in a good way which is doing what the teacher asks.

Directive has a significant role to maintain students behavioral through giving them certain direction to accomplish several tasks. This is reasonable because through the directions given by teachers, students are trying to keep staying on teacher's direction. It is based on Allwright and Bailey (as cited in Debat & Liruso, 2003, p.140) that teacher talk can control students' behavior. If students' behavior can be controlled, learning condition will run smoothly. As the result, a good learning atmosphere in the classroom can be achieved, thus students can learn effectively.

Considering the importance of directive as a speech act to control students' behavior, teacher needs to utter it in the interaction appropriately. Performing directives in order to construct classroom instruction gives good impact on students' performance especially in improving their language acquisition. By getting more exposures of directives given by the teachers, they are able to determine how language is used in interaction. Furthermore, they are able to use English practically based on what they have learned during directives given.

Based on the researcher's experience during School Experience Program (SEP) held on November 2012 in one of public schools in Jakarta, most of students did not follow teacher's directives. Teacher gave them directives, however they did not respond it. Teacher repeated it several times to make students follow what he instructed. Finally, students followed the directives but they looked lazy and bored. Based on that experience, it becomes very urgent to know how the directives are used effectively in the classrooms. Of course, in the real life, it is not easy to direct students to do something. Several phenomenon show that not all students follow teachers' directives. Shindler (2009) finds that most teachers are hopeless because they keep in mind that not all students hear and follow teachers' directives. This condition makes teachers to repeat the directives for students who are not listening. Besides, they also walk around in order to check whether students do the assignments based on the directions or not. To minimize a misunderstanding towards directives given, the directives must be clear and well articulated so students will easy to follow.

Taylor (2004) states that teachers need to reinforce students if they follow the directives well. Giving reinforcement will motivate students because it shows teachers' appreciation. In the other hand, teachers have to remind students who do not follow the directives in positive manner. Using positive manner, students will feel that teachers respect them. He also suggests other strategies that teachers should consider in giving the directives. The strategies are teacher needs to give praise to each successful activity, increasing students' self esteem by giving support, call students' name and use polite adjectives.

Based on the background above, it is very important for teacher to use directives in an appropriate way, thus students can follow what the directives are. Hence, this present research is conducted with its objective to analyze the directives, purposes and politeness strategies used by a teacher in the classroom English context.

Method

The present study applies the descriptive qualitative. Qualitative descriptive is appropriate for the present study because it describes the real situation in the classroom, in this case, the directives expression used by an English teacher. In the end, the description of teacher' directives is related to the current theories to find out its justification point (Lichtman, 2010).

Participant

The present research took place at an international high school in Bogor, West Java. This school was chosen because of its good quality in teaching process. The participants in present

research consisted of an English teacher and 46 students of grade 10 in an international school located in Bogor, West Java, Indonesia.

Instrument

a. Data collection

In the classrooms, researcher collected the data through observation. The observation was important to seek and identify what was going on in the classrooms. The observations were conducted in two different classrooms. The first observation took 90 minutes classroom hour and the second observation took 45 minutes. The observation was conducted by audio-recording the whole session. Audio-recording was chosen because it was not possible to do video-recording because the school's regulation did not allow due to several conditions.

b. Data analysis

In analyzing the directives, researcher identified the teacher's utterances which function to ask students to do something. The utterances could be in a form of imperative, interrogative or declarative as long as it belonged to directives.

This research has several steps in analyzing the data. Firstly, data observation from the audio recorder was transcribed in a written form. Teacher did this step by listening to the audio-recording then wrote down every utterance produced by the teacher and students in the interaction. This step aimed at making the researcher ease in reading the data which contained of oral interaction between teacher and students.

To analyze the directives which used by the teacher, research uses the categorization of directives proposed by Holmes (as cited in Debat & Liruso, 2003, p.). Holmes states three categorizations, such as: imperative, interrogative and declarative.

To find out the purposes of directives, the researcher used Searle (1969) and Mey (2001) theory which divides the purposes included: (command and order), warning and advice. Teacher's politeness in giving the directions is analyzed using Meyer's theory (2009) on politeness strategies to know what kinds of politeness that they use in giving direction to the students.

Types of Directives	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
	1st Observation	2nd Observation	1st Observation	2nd Observation
Imperative	21	11	75%	73%
Interrogative	2	1	7%	7%
Declarative	5	3	18%	20%
Total Directives	28	15		
	43			

Result

Table 1. Total distribution of directives

The directives such as: "*Please, introduce yourself! Listen to me! Now please look at the symbol that you can use in editing and revising the letter! Revise your own work and then revise your partners! Please start! Start now! Discuss!"* are easily identified as directive in a form of imperative.

Other directives produced such as: *"Hello boys? Shall we try? Isna, are you going to try?"* belongs to interrogative because it ends by raising intonation and uses modal as the question mark.

Lastly, declarative is also uttered by the teacher, such as: *"I think you forget to fill. You forget filling the ink. I wanna one of you read aloud. I need three students to explain what sentence one means. I want you to work individually, as well as in paragraph."*

Some problematic directives are found in the interaction. Teacher repeated the same directive three (3) times during 45 minutes classroom interaction.

<u>*Sample 1*</u>

Teacher : Today, you're going to recognize the two tenses and to apply the concepts into reality. Once you speak, once you write, you are expected to apply, well applied. This is about little bit review *ya* from what we have done. I wanna one of you read aloud.

Students : *(no response, just keep silent)*

Teacher : **Come on!** Read aloud! Say aloud!

<u>*Sample 2*</u>

Teacher : So, this is number four and number five *(teacher wrote the number beside the sentences)*. Number four, when will you say this? I have lived here since 1990.

Students : *(no answer)*

Teacher : **Come on!**

Student : (Student who have answered the previous question raised her hand)

Teacher : Different person, please! **Come on!**

Student : *(keep silent)*

Teacher : *Ini susah ya* (It's difficult, isn't it?). I have live here in Jakarta for about *eee* 10 years, 25 years. When will you say this? **Come on!**

Student : *(One student raised her hand)*

Teacher : Yes, A *(student's name)*

Examples *(1)* and *(2)* show teacher's directives which are repeated using the same directive *"come on!"*. They are used when students do not give any response toward teacher's directives or questions.

Another repetition of directives also occurred, as below:

<u>*Sample 3*</u>

Teacher : Okay, decent. Is this the word that means "very good"? Hello, boys? *(Teacher looked at the students on the corner who were having their own* chat). **Listen to me, ya!**

Students : *(The male students)* Yes.

<u>*Sample 4*</u>

(Students were revising other's works)

Teacher : **Guys, listen!** *(Clapping her hands).* If you are done, I'll let you discuss with your partner. Now, why did you change this? Or why do I need to improve that? Start now! Discuss! Discuss with your partner!

Both example *(3)* and *(4)* above display the repetition of directives which uttered by the teacher in order to direct students to listen.

It is also found several directives which are employed not only to direct the students, but also to help students in improving their language ability. The directives used are:

1) *Revise your own work first and then revise your partner's"*
2) *Number four, when will you say this?*
3) *Number two, please say something. I have taken my English test several times. Is it true? I mean is the sentence correct grammatically? Is it true?" have lived here since 1990. Come on!*

Table 2. Purposes of directives

Purposes	Frequency		Percentage	
	1st Observation	2nd Observation	1st Observation	2nd Observation
Command	20	10	71 %	67 %
Orders	8	4	29 %	27 %
Warning	-	1	-	6 %
Advice	-	-	-	-
Total	28	15		

Warning as one of purposes in uttering directive is only contributed one (1) time, as below:

<u>*Sample 5*</u>

Teacher : *(Teacher wrote down sentences on the whiteboard)* I hope you don't get bored learning tenses all the time.

Students : No, miss. *(Only a few students responded)*

Teacher : Ummmmm? Did you feel bored?

Students : No *(Many students responded louder)*

Teacher : Well, please do not care for the names *ya*! Whatever they are, whatever they are for. Would you care for?

Students : No, miss.

In the example *(5)*, teacher uttered a directive which aimed to give a warning, *"Well, please do not care for the names ya!"* It is meant to remind students for not paying attention much on the tense's name.

An order also was uttered by the teacher to the students in a unique way because teacher did not mention the specific verb. It can be seen as below:

<u>*Sample 6*</u>

Teacher : *(Teacher heard some students speak in Bahasa Indonesia)* **Guys, English please!** Officer *(Students who were assigned to reinforce the English use in the classroom)* please work!

<u>*Sample 7*</u>

Teacher : So this is number four and number five *(Teacher wrote the number beside the sentences).* Number four, when will you say this? I have lived here since 1990. Come on!

Students : *(The same student raised her hand)*

Teacher : **Different person, please!**

Example *(6)* and *(7)* show how the way teacher directs students in unique way without mentioning the verb or action, but students understand it well. It can be seen from the directives, *"Guys, English please!"* and *"Different person, please!"*

Table 3. Politeness strategies

Politeness Strategy	Frequency		Percentage	
	1st Observation	2nd Observation	1st Observation	2nd Observation
Use in group identity markers	4	1	28%	14%
Be optimistic	-	-	-	-
Include both speaker and hearer	2	1	14%	14%
Give reason	2	1	14%	14%
Use politeness marker	4	3	28%	43%
Use modal	1	-	7%	-
Indirect and off record	1	1	7%	14%
Total	14	7		
	21			

The politeness strategy used in group identity markers is easily identified, such as: *"Now, listen guys! Guys, listen! Okay, listen guys! Guys, listen! Guys, English please! Isna, are you going to try?*. Those examples use group identity markers "guys" and "calling student's name".

Including both the teacher and students in the interaction also becomes the identification of politeness strategies. The directives, such as: *"Shall we try? Let's go to the number five! Okay, now let's get up everyone!",* are easily identified because they include all the speakers by mentioning *"we"* and *"let's".*

Addressing politeness strategy is also done by the teacher through giving reason toward certain directives produced. *"Now, please look at the symbol that you can use in editing and revising the letter" Everyone say thanks to Nikita who brings markers for our class! I need three students to explain what sentence one means!"* Those directives are uttered by adding the reason why teacher gave them directives.

Politeness marker *"please"* is also used to address politeness, such as: *Please introduce yourself! Now please look at the symbol that you can use in editing and revising the letter!*

Please start! Please work! Yes, you please! Please do not care for the names ya! Different person, please!" Modal is also used for one directive, *"Shall we try?"*

Indirect or off record is also uttered by the teacher. "*Hello Aryo, I am talking. I think you forget to fill!",* those are directives which are off record.

Discussion

The result shows the directives used by the teacher which consists of several types and patterns. It can be seen, in sample *(1)* and *(2)* that teacher used directives to control students' behavior. Taking example of sample *(1)*, teacher uttered a directive *"come on!"* when students do not respond to teacher's directives. Several minutes later, teacher also repeats the same directive *"come on!"* when there is no answer from students.

Other examples also shown in sample *(3)* and *(4)*, teacher directs the students to listen to her explanation by saying *"Listen to me, ya!".* That directive is imposed to the students on the corner who were having their own chat. Later on, in another activity, when students were revising other's work, teacher asked students to listen her explanation. It means, a directive to encourage students to listen is repeated more than one time in one classroom interaction.

All those examples *(1) (2) (3)* and *(4)* show that directive has a function to control students' behavior. In those contexts sample (1) and (2), teacher tries to control students' improper behavior who does not actively respond to teachers' directive previously. These are in accordance with Allwright and Balley (as cited in Debat & Liruso, 2003, p.140) as mentioned that directive can be used to control students behavior.

Besides controlling students' behavior, it is also found several directives which are employed to help students in improving their language ability. Directives produced by the teacher help students to enhance their English proficiency. It means, directives have a function to guide students in producing their English output. Krashen (1985) has mentioned that helping students in enhancing their output can be effectively done if teacher uses two ways communication in the classroom. Fortunately, teacher in this research implemented active learning which used two ways communication in the interaction. Based on that communication, it is found several directives that tried to enhance students' English skills.

Those directives are presented in these following with its description of each:

Teacher: "Revise your own work first and then revise your partner's"

Directive shows a command for students to revise their work. At first, they already finished their own work. However, after getting feedbacks from teacher, they were assigned to revise their work. This assignment gave students' opportunity to practice what they have learned before. Furthermore, they also had to revise their partner's. This means, that directive involved them to enhance their English skill, especially both in individual assignment or collaborative assignment.

Teacher: "I'll let you discuss with your partner".

During the learning process, teacher involved students to learn collaboratively. That is why, discussion happened in the learning. Getting students to have a discussion was done by the teacher through directive. That directive above showed how it could be used to let the students have a discussion. Through discussion, students can experience how to deliver their thoughts and ideas to their partners.

Teacher: "Number four, when will you say this? I have lived here since 1990. Come on!

In explaining the material, teacher did not directly give the answer to the students. Like on the utterance above, teacher actually encourage students to think the answers. Firstly, teacher gave a question which required students to think, *"When will you say this?".* It continued by

giving a statement to be answered," *I have lived here since 1990".* In the end, the directive *"Come on!"* was used to ask students to start thinking the answer. This means, the directive above could be used to sharp students' critical thinking. Finally, students were able to give their opinion through oral production.

Teacher: "Number two, please say something. I have taken my English test several times. Is it true? I mean is the sentence correct grammatically? Is it true?"

That utterance above reveals a directive for students to give explanation on number two. Teacher does not stop only directing them to answer. However, she gives more guidelines in order to make students easier in getting the ideas by giving statement and question. These are very important since teacher can vary the use of speech acts to achieve learning goals.

Teacher: "I need three students to explain what sentence one means. To explain or to give the reason when you say that.

In the learning process, teacher does not tell the answer directly to the students. However, she gives students opportunity to find out their answers. In that case, she does not merely need the answers. More on that, she wants to know how the students activate their critical thinking. That is why, teacher wants students to explain or give reason when they say that sentence. That explanation indicates the directive chosen is very important to shape students' critical thinking toward certain material.

Overall, those descriptions show how teacher used directives to function comprehensible and in right quantities input (Krashen, 1985). Using two ways communication, finally it leads into an active learning where students can engage in each activity. The interaction between students and teacher above also has its significance to create meaningful learning process as it is stated by Sinclair and Brazil (as cited in Yanfen & Yuqin, p.77). Furthermore, through meaningful learning process, students can feel the real experiences and get good output of English (Nunan, 1991).

Besides having its function, directives also have its own purposes. In directing the students to do something, teacher set the purposes. The purposes beyond the directive were meant to achieve certain goals. Therefore, identifying the purposes is very important as a tool for teacher to maintain students' response toward certain directive given. During the interaction in the classroom, it can be identified the purposes in every directives given by the teacher. On the *table 3,* it has been presented the finding related to the purposes of teacher's directives.

The purpose of directives which address to command students were occurred frequently during the classroom interaction. Teacher produced 23 commands during the classroom interaction. Using a command shows teacher's status as the one who has more authority to direct students. It is does not wrong when she used her power to command her students to accomplish several tasks. It aligns with Austin (as cited in Dinu, 2012, p.13) that command is mostly issued by person who has higher status in the society.

However, as she understood her position in the classroom that has an authority, she tried to balance it through minimizing commands. To overcome that, she produced orders which were considered more polite than command. For orders, she uttered 12 times. This mean, she had an effort to balance her position within the students by giving both command and order as a form of requests for the students to do something.

Furthermore, a warning was found in teacher's interaction. She only uttered one time in the whole classroom interaction. *"Please do not care for the names ya!"* That directive had its purpose to warn students. In that context, teacher did not want student to remember or care of the tense's name. It was not important to remember about that. She wanted students to know the

concept and implementation of it, but not remember the name. Thus, she warned the students to keep in mind about it. As a warning, that directives tried to remind students about something which is urgent and important. It is based on Mey (2001) that warning is addressed to remind someone.

An order also is showed by the teacher without mentioning the action or verb, but students understand it. Sample (6) and (7) written in the chapter finding reveal the use of directive to order students. Teacher did not direct students to do something. She just said "*Guys, English please!"*, it can abbreviated as *"Guys, please speak in English please!".* It indicates that teacher wants the students to use English. If students do not use it, means the officers (*(Students who were assigned to reinforce the English use in the classroom)* will remind them or even give them punishment.

Another example also uttered by the teacher in sample (7). *"Different person, please!",* it can be abbreviated as "*Answer by different person, please!"*. However, without mentioning the verb, students understand what is ordered by the teacher. Those are in accordance with Trisnawati (2011).

The directives given by the teacher did only reveal its functions and purposes, but also it shows how the teacher aware on the politeness. It is found politeness strategies which were used by the teacher to show her respect toward directives given. She used politeness strategies which emphasized on the use of politeness marker, modal and indirect speech (off record).

In general, a politeness marker is commonly used by the teacher to show the politeness. She was aware of politeness in directing her students. Because of that, 21 out of 43 directives are used politeness strategies. The result indicates that teacher is aware of politeness used in the classroom.

There are found several politeness strategies used by the teacher which is in accordance with Meyer (2009) and Brown and Levinson (cited in Trisnawati, 2011, p.17-18).

Showing the politeness is done by using group identity markers. In the finding, it is found that teacher calls students using their names or their group identity markers. Mostly, teacher calls students *"guys"*. It is a symbol of showing politeness as stated by Brown and Levinson (1987, cited in Trisnawati, 2011, p.17-18) that using *"guys"* show the identity markers.

Teacher also shows the politeness by including herself and students altogether in completing several tasks, such as: *"Shall we try? Let's go to the number five! Okay, now let's get up everyone!",* The use of "we" indicates both teacher and students will try together. "Let's", also indicates both teacher and students will go together to the number five. Those utterances indicate both teacher and students are involved in the interaction where politeness strategy is used Brown & Levinson (as cited in Trisnawati, 2011, p.17-18).

During the interaction, teacher made a variation in which using *"please"* both in beginning or the end of the directives. It is simple thing for her to put a politeness marker *"please"* since it is flexible to be placed before or after the base form. Formulating a politeness marker *"please"* before the base form can be seen from the following directives uttered by the teacher, such as*: "Please, introduce yourself! Now please look at the symbol that you can use in editing and revising the letter. Please work! Please go back to your seat! Please do not care for the names ya! Please start!"*

Those directives above which employed politeness strategies placed *"please"* before the base form. This was meant to emphasize students to be more aware on the base verb or active verb uttered after *"please"*. The use of "*please"* to show politeness could be placed both in beginning and in the end of the directives. Inserting *"please"* in directives shows teacher' respect to the students. It means, teacher rejected her position as the one who has higher social power. She used *"please"* in order to ask students to do something in polite way. It means, she needed her students' help to do something which was not explicitly command them (Meyer, 2009).

Another result of politeness strategy found the use of modal and indirect speech (off record). However, those politeness strategies did not significantly used by the teacher. An indirect speech uttered by the teacher was *"I think you forget to fill"*. That directive was uttered when she would use the board marker, but the ink run out. She did not want to blame students who were on duty because they did not fill the ink. Thus, she assumed that they forgot to fill the ink. That indirect speech tried to save students' face. It means, she did not want to make students them felt guilty because they did not do their job well. Thus, she did not make them shy in front of their classmates because of that thing. It is based on Yule (1996) that politeness is used to show awareness of another person's face.

In several directives, teacher also showed how she appreciated their students who did work well. A directive uttered, *"Everyone, say thanks to Nikita who brings markers for our class!*. That directive was a symbol from teacher to student named Nikita who has been brought markers for the classroom. Teacher asked students to say thank you to Nikita because of her kindness. Students responded positively by saying *"Thank you, Nikita"* altogether. *"Applause for her!"* was also a directive which aimed to appreciate what a student has done in the learning activity. Teacher asked all students go give applause to a student who could answer teacher's question correctly. She gave an appreciation by inviting all students to give applause.

Those two examples of giving an appreciation were really important for teacher to motivate her students, especially in giving response to certain directives. This is based on Taylor

(2004) that teacher needs to reinforce students if they follow the directives. It means, there should be an appreciation to make students more motivated to follow the directives in another activity.

Conclusion

Teacher utters all three categorization of directives during the classroom interaction. The categorization consists of imperative, interrogative and declarative. Imperative is the most frequently used by the teacher with total number of 32 out of total 43 directives. At some points, teacher repeats the same directives in order to control students' behaviors. Some directives also function not only to ask students to do some tasks, but also it helps students producing their language outcome comprehensively.

Teacher addresses several purposes of directives in the directives uttered. There are command, order and warning. It is not found an advice from the data observation.

Teacher realizes the use of politeness strategies in directing students to do something. The politeness strategies used covers politeness marker, modal and indirect (off record) speech. Teacher mostly uses a politeness marker *"please"* to show respect to the students. At some points, teacher gives appreciation towards students who did good job in the classroom activities. It is kind of motivation to make students respect others.

Suggestion

The method in the present study is only focusing on the observation in the classrooms, specifically to find out how directives are used by the teacher. Using observation becomes a way for the researcher to analyze the directives. However, it is suggested for the further research in the same field to also use interview as the method besides observation. The interview could be addressed to the teacher who becomes the main participants to strengthen the data analysis.

Based on the result and discussion of the present study, it recommends for the teachers to formulate the directives they are going to utter in the classroom. Formulating the directives means that teacher must know what directives are for. Directives are not only for imposing students to do something, but it must have purposes behind it. For instance, it can be used to maintain students' behavior and also to improve students' English language proficiency.

Besides, in giving the directives, teacher must pay attention to the politeness strategies used. It is important to insert politeness strategies as a way to make students more be appreciated, thus they will be easy to follow teachers' directives.

References

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Debat, E.V., & Liruso S.M. (2003). Giving oral instructions to EFL young learners. *Journal of Encuentro revista de e innovacion en la clase de idlomas*, Vol.13-14, 2002-2003.

Dinu, A. (2012, February). *Pragmatics 2*. Retrieved on March 21st 2013, from http://www.unibuc.ro/prof/dinu_a_d/docs/2012/mar/01_08_07_50pragmatica2 .pdf

Krashen, S.D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: issues and implication*. New York: Longman Inc.

Lichtman, M. (2010). *Qualitative research in education: a user's guide*. New Delhi: Sage Publications, Inc.

Mey, J.L. (2001). *Pragmatics. an introduction. 2nd edition*. Oxford: Blackwells.

Meyer, C.F. (2009). *Introducing English linguistics*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology*: *a textbook for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J.R. (1969). *Speech acts: an essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shindler, J. (2009). *Transformative classroom management: Positive strategies to engage all students and promote a psychology of success.* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Taylor, G.R. (2004). *Practical application classroom management theories into strategies.* United States of America: University Press of America.

Trisnawati, G. (2011). *Directive illocutionary acts in relation to politeness strategy in the historical movie the King's Speech.* Thesis, unpublished. Universitas Diponegoro, Semarang.

Yanfen, L., & Yuqin, Z. (2010, April). A study of teacher talk in interaction in English classes. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (Bimonthly)*, Vol.3 No.2

Yule, G. (1996). *The study of language: Second edition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Television as Popular Culture Media and Parental Attention and Their Correlation to the Students' Motivation to Choose Major

Sudiran
University of Muhammadiyah Malang.
sudiran@yahoo.com

Abstract

Television as one of popular culture media plays an important role in the development of students' personality and knowledge because it provides them with countless information and entertainment that increase their knowledge. This study was conducted to give an idea whether television viewing and parental attention can assist students to take a decision of choosing major at the senior high school. This study used descriptive method which analyzed the correlation among television viewing, parental attention and the students' motivation to choose a major. The sample of this study consisted of 100 students of the state senior high school in Malang, East Java. The finding shows that there is no correlation among television viewing, parental attention and the students' motivation to choose major at the senior high school. In other words, the possibility of choosing the major can be attributed to some other factors such as interest, talent, aspiration and other expectation to achieve their goals.

Keywords: Television, popular culture, pedia, parental pttention, students, motivation

Introduction

Television can be regarded as one of the popular culture media that is used by teachers in teaching and learning process (Bruce and Ewing, 2009: 8). It gives considerable influence to the development of youths' personality and knowledge because it provides information and entertainment. Similarly, Rubin (2012: 70) claimed that the media like television is truly one of our greatest and most influential teachers. Thus, television becomes popular culture media which bring great impact on the senior high school students' learning achievement. Likewise, the importance of television in improving students' knowledge is examined by Gill (2012: 739) who quotes UNESCO statement that empowerment of young people through information and media

literacy is an important prerequisite for fostering equitable access to information and knowledge, and building inclusive knowledge societies.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1) How is the correlation of television viewing and the students' motivation to choose major at the senior high school?
2) How is the correlation of parental attention and the students' motivation to choose major at the senior highs school?

Television as the Popular Culture Media

Television as popular culture media become effective teaching aids at schools because it provides the students with information and entertainment which increase their knowledge. As *Busyteacher* (2013: 1) reported, one of the best ways to educate students across all skills is via the means of television. It is due to television programs also provide students with realistic conversation and dialogues, which aid listening skills by offering a diverse range of accents for the students to hear.

Television provides a great social impact on society, teenagers in particular. This influence can be seen in their everyday behavior and conversation. It means that the influence of television in the teenagers' lives will be seen in the style of their speech, their vocabulary and social insight. Even the influence can also be seen in the form of ways to enjoy entertainment, such as watching television with a discussion or debate with other viewers. Rubin (2012: 1) argues that we are constantly bombarded by messages about how one should look, dress, think, feel, and act; these messages are then internalized as truth.

Parents play an important role in providing their children with the advice to help them achieve their goals. Parents' attention is needed by children as the senior high school students to be successful learners. As Hoffmann and Dufur (2008: 31) said, without attention and interaction with children, parents cannot recognize their children's characteristics and interest on which their academic achievement are based. Likewise, Hayes (2012: 568) remarks that parental involvement or attention has consistently been associated with school success in a multitude of areas such as better achievement and behavior, lower absenteeism, and more positive attitudes toward school. Parental attention is very important for children to improve their academic achievement. Many students who are getting enough attention from their parents win brilliant achievements at school. Therefore, the parental attention is one of the essential elements for the students to promote their academic achievement.

In the academic life, motivation is very important which enables students to be successful learners. It encourages them to do positive things in order to improve their school performance. According to Anwar (2004: 147), motivation is categorized into two: 1) intrinsic motivation, arising from any individual such as needs, talents, interests, wishes, and expectations existed in a person, and 2) extrinsic motivation, arising from outside the individual that arose because of the stimulus from the outside environment.

Mulyasa (2003: 80) remarks that the curriculum of Senior High School (SMA) comprises two structures: 1) curriculum with specified major, and 2) curriculum without specification. Implementation of the specified major at the Senior High School is intended to provide students with the possibility of choosing it specifically. The majors at the senior high school are natural sciences, social sciences, and language sciences. The choosing of the majors starts from grade XI because at grade X all students take all subjects, and there are no majors at this grade. Therefore, all subjects which are offered by schools at this grade are general courses that students must take all of them.

Research Method

This study used descriptive method with the sample of 100 students of the state senior high school (SMAN) 3 Malang, East Java. The data obtained from the questionnaire was analyzed by using SPSS 10 program. The hypothesis formulated as follows:

1) HO: "There is no significant correlation among television viewing, parental attention and the students' motivation to choose major at school."

2) HA: "There is a significant correlation among television viewing, parental attention and the students' motivation to choose major at school." The result of the computation of the hypothesis test was used to interpret the research findings.

Findings

Based on the result of the data computation, it was found that the values of hypothesis test showed:

1) The value of the correlation between the frequency of television viewing and the students' motivation to choose major was $r = 0.075$, and the value of $r_{tab} = 0.195$, and $P = 0.605$ or $P > 0.05$. It meant that the value of $r = 0.075 < r_{tab} = 0.195$ and $P = 0.605$ or $P > 0.05$. For this reason, Ho was accepted which meant no correlation between the frequency of television viewing and the students' motivation to choose major.
2) The value of the correlation between parental attention and the students' motivation to choose major was $r = 0.184$ and $r_{tab} = 0.195$, and the value of P equaled to 0.201 or $P > 0.05$. It meant that the value of r was equal to $0.184 < r_{tab} = 0.195$ and $P = 0.201$ or $P > 0.05$. Accordingly, Ho was accepted which meant no correlation between the parental attention and the students' motivation to choose major at the senior high school.

It can be explained that the frequency of television viewing has not affected the students' motivation to choose the major at school. Similarly, the students' motivation to choose the major at the senior high school has not been influenced by their parental attention. Thus, reason for choosing major is not associated with both the frequency of television viewing and parental attention. However, the possibility of choosing the major can be attributed to some other factors such as interest, talent, aspiration and other expectation to achieve their goals.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that: 1) the students' motivation to choose major at the senior high school is not strongly affected by the frequency of television viewing; 2) the parents' attention has no influence on the students' motivation to choose major at school. It is assumed that other dominant variables such as interest, career aspirations, and desire to continue study have strongly influenced the students' motivation to choose major at the senior high school.

References

Anwar. 2004. *Pendidikan Kecakapan Hidup*. Bandung: Alfabeta.

Bruce, Jacklyn A and Ewing, John C. 2009. "Popular Culture Media as a Teaching Tool in Agricultural and Extension Education" *NACTA Journal* Vol. 53 No.4 Dec 2009: 8-11.

Busyteacher, Admin. 2013. How To Use TV In Your Classroom: 6 Creative ESL Approaches. (http://busyteacher.org) accessed: Dec. 21, 2013:08:11

Gill, Rosalind. 2012. "Media, Empowerment and the 'Sexualization of Culture' Debates." *Feminist Forum* (2012) 66:736–745

Hayes, DeMarquis. 2012. "Parental Involvement and Achievement Outcomes in African American Adolescents." *Journal of Comparative Family Studies* Vol. 43 No. 4 (2012): 567-XI.

Hoffmann, John P. And Mikaela J. Dufur. 2008. "Family And School Capital Effects on delinquency: Substitutes Or Complements?" *Sociological Perspectives*, Vol. 51, Issue 1, 2008: pp. 29–62, ISSN 0731-1214.

Mulyasa, E. 2003. *Kurikulum Berbasis Kompetensi: Konsep, Karakteristik, dan Implementasi.* Bandung: P.T. Remaja Rosdakarya Bandung.

Rubin, Daniel Ian. 2012. "Critical Pedagogy and Dialectical Thought in the Secondary English Classroom." *Theory in Action* Vol. 5 No.2 (Apr 2012): 70-81.

The Role of Collaborative Learning toward Pre-Service Teachers' Learning Experience

Didik R. Sumekto
English Education Department
Widya Dharma University, Klaten, Indonesia
didikrinan@unwidha.ac.id; didirinan@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study focused on exploring the collaborative learning roles toward pre-service teachers' learning experience during the genre-based writing lectures conducted in one semester. The population was 165 from English Education Department, Tidar and Widya Dharma University. The method used simple random sampling which involved 86 respondents. Data was collected by means of questionnaire using 5-scaled Likert rating to obtain pre-service teachers' perception. The collected data was quantitatively examined through the descriptive statistics with SPSS program. The findings showed that the highest response toward each category in the perception referred to questionnaire on the instruction evaluation and reflection toward assessment need was (1) 41.9% or 36 respondents on *sometimes* toward the lecturer's instruction method; 44.2% or 38 respondents on *seldom* toward the learning assessment process; 48.2 or 41 respondents on *seldom* toward the lecturer's assessment mechanism; and 53.5% or 46 respondents on *sometimes* toward the lecturer's instruction evaluation and reflection; and (2) questionnaire on the collaborative learning evaluation showed that there were 47.4% or 45 respondents on *sometimes* toward group's performance goals; 48.4% or 46 respondents on *seldom* toward interpersonal competence; 48.4% or 46 respondents on *frequent* toward group maintenance; and 41.1% or 39 respondents on *sometimes* toward classroom work style emphasizing the collaborative learning evaluation during the genre-based writing meetings.

Keywords: collaboration, genre-based writing, learning contribution.

Introduction

Collaborative learning was widely defined as a technique designed to make learning a lively and successful process. When engaging in collaborative learning practices, lecturer(s) was positioned as a guide to the learners towards the attainment of skills, such as initiating, managing, emphasizing, and achieving the learning process and progress (Brown, 2008), because collaborative learning became the interdependence of the individuals where learners shared ideas and reached a conclusion or produced a product (Robert, 2003). Hence, the constructive purposes of collaborative learning should ensure each member of a group had a role, so that all participants were actively engaged with an equal opportunity as well among participants (Osterholt and Barratt, 2010).

In this context, collaborative learning activities should require the reorganization of the material to be learned and possibly contributes to cognitive conflict that can lead to restructuring. The activities involved mixed-ability groups tend to favour high- and low-ability participants in the meetings (Gilles and Ashman, 2003). They performed equally well in all groups and when working individually as well (Webb et al, 1998; Gilles and Ashman, 2003). In the collaborative classroom, lecturers were also required to understand its implementation including the class preparation as the principal guiding among the participants (Osterholt and Barratt, 2010). The lecturer's attention was drawn to monitoring the participants, which can disrupt the instruction and learning activities in the small group by requiring an attentive, responsive lecturer and participants during the process (Strickland, Ganske, and Monroe, 2006).

Collaborative learning supported the instructional use of small groups or teams where peer interaction plays a key role in learning. Team learning increased students' involvement, improved problem-solving and communication skills, and enhances their achievement (Yazici, 2005). Interaction with peers could result in the development of cognitive or intellectual skills or to an increase in knowledge and understanding among the members (Falchikov, 2001). Some

activities could be regarded as mutually compatible, for example: a simple, reliable collaboration system designed to select the participants for those who might not able to serve the purpose of providing valid diagnosis of collaborative learning difficulties (Lambert and Lines, 2000). They were responsible for one another's learning processes as well as their own and the success of one learner helped other learners to be successful in promoting critical thinking (Gokhale, 1995) and it was highly expected that collaborative learning can help learners generally to reduce the polarisation within the instruction system, to the particular benefit of those higher education students who were on the edges of the system and poorly relative performance (Muijs et al, 2011) and to reduce higher education students' anxiety and improve skills and knowledge as a consequence of working in a group as the ultimate purpose to understand, achieve solution, and/ or create learning products (Delucchi, 2006).

Canagarajah (2002; Casanave, 2003; Hyland, 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005) focused on particular attention on procedures for solving problems, discovering ideas, expressing them in writing (e.g.: thematic genres), and revising emergent texts, in which writing products might take place. The indications of what learning aspects involved and how the lecturer might assist the process were through the lecturer's roles mostly facilitate the effective and independent learners during the learning process by designing students–students and students–lecturer participation. Another perspective was conveyed by Nayan et al (2010) that the proponents of collaborative learning believe that *'noise'* inside the classes indicates that students were actively learning, as long as a lecturer set the rules and standards to be mentioned in the classes activities at the beginning of the class, the 'noise' might convey positive learning is going on.

The constructive judgement on collaborative learning concept was also shown by Dunn and Griggs (1998), where EFL learners' learning styles were the use of small-group as opposed to large-group instruction. As a transition from lecturer-directed instruction, experiment with team learning to introduce difficult new information, circle of knowledge to reinforce it, brainstorming to develop problem-solving skills, and case studies for relevant reasons and to provide variety and interest. As shown in Figure 1, the different level of learning interdependence started from the independent learning or self-study to collaborative learning groups, in which the learning step indicated the zero or none level for independent or self-study, medium level for discussion and cooperative learning groups, and high level for collaborative learning groups (Roberts, 2003).

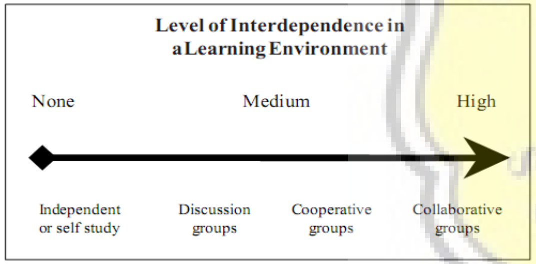


Figure 1. Interdependence in Learning Environments

However, in encouraging students' paradigm toward the collaborative learning atmosphere, McCormick and Pressley (1997; Falchikov, 2001) required that the learning atmosphere needs to (1) diagnose students' current developmental stages on their developmentally appropriate assignments and instruction; (2) design instruction which leads to the students' active participation; (3) make students aware of conflicts between their approaches

to problems and the features of the problems; (4) reduce adult power as much as possible; and (5) encourage students to think in their own ways and analyse the errors to gain a better understanding of their thought processes. Falchikov (2001) pointed out that any task skills were those which assisted a group to achieve its aims, such as solving problems and preparing group report(s), while maintenance skills related to the working of the group relating with resolving conflict and building trust.

Genre-Based Writing Collaboration

Recently, genre knowledge is believed to facilitate consciousness-raising for developing academic literacy, students' self-efficacy, and writing performance (Lee, 2012), since each genre has its own features and structures to express the intended meaning (Sullivan, Zhang, and Zheng, 2012). The learning condition could be used for grouping texts together, representing how pre-service teachers typically used language components to respond to recurring learning situations (Hyland, 2008). Another fact claimed that genre approach enabled learners to become aware of writing as a tool that could be used and manageable and it focused on increasing participants' awareness of different ways of organising information in writing, by discussing distinctive features of different purposeful texts (Swami, 2008; Ahn, 2012). Therefore, Nayan et al (2010) indicated through their research finding that collaborative learning could be effectively applied during the meetings. The participants agreed that collaborative learning activities promoted learners' academic progress; improved learners' interaction skills; encouraged learners' intrinsic motivation; created a collaborative learning environment; be appropriate for the use with small groups; and would be competitive toward participants' learning styles toughness.

Nevertheless, non-native students of English education sometimes have difficulty in transferring ideas from their native language (e.g.: Indonesian and/or other mother tongues) into the target language (e.g.: English) when they collaborated into genre-based instruction context. But, a lecturer might ask participants to produce a text or composition on the basis of purpose, organization and audience (Paltridge, 2001; Widodo, 2006). Both lecturer and students could develop texts together and share the responsibility for a certain performance till the students had the sufficient knowledge and skills (Widodo, 2006). This condition was strengthened by Yazici's collaborative learning research (2005) which had provided the students' preferred learning by sharing all supporting aspects with peers and lecturer. They were willing to participate and to seek guidance, structure and control in learning the course material. Collaborative role play, discussions, and projects had been successful instructional tools in enhancing critical thinking, communication and implementation skills for team building.

Hence, the instruction strategies might model and explicitly teach the types of strategies used or might predict routines where writing processes such as planning and revising were expected and strengthened (Negari, 2011), where the lecturer's best methods were flexibility and support in responding to the specific instructional contexts, first or second language and experience, writing purposes, and target writing communities, and providing extensive encouragement in the form of meaningful contexts, peer involvement, prior texts, useful feedback and guidance in the writing process (Hyland, 2003). These theoretical approaches are supported by Ansari's research (2012) on collaborative learning as well, where a group of learners are able to accomplish tasks. Participants use team members' morphological knowledge and produced more accurate text working together among group members toward the same goal

have played a significant role in the overall performance of the learners. Additionally, participants gain the improved accuracy observed among collaborative writing groups which may have been due to the increased motivation to focus on grammatical accuracy, as well as to engage each learner in collaborative groups to participate to the course activities and in the multi-revision process.

However, even in the genre-based approach instruction context, non-native students of English education sometimes have difficulties in transferring ideas from their native language (e.g.: Indonesian and/or other mother tongues) into the target language (e.g.: English). By using genre-based approach, a writing lecturer might be required to ask participants to produce a text or composition on the basis of purpose, organization and audience (Paltridge, 2001; Widodo, 2006). Both lecturer and students could develop texts together and share the responsibility for a certain performance till the students had the sufficient knowledge and skills (Widodo, 2006). Because writing process involves creating a text that a learner assumes the readers will recognise and expect and genre-based writing breaks down a top to down procedure, starting with texts, which first considers how a text is structured and organised at the level of the whole text in relation to its purpose, audience and message before structuring, organizing, and coding the paragraphs and sentences (Hyland, 2008). To support the structure and organization, herein, seven genre-based writing themes commonly considered as part of the undergraduate curriculum to meet a standard qualification on writing process in Indonesia as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Commonly Genre-based Writing Instructed (Ahn, 2012)

Genre	Social Purpose	Social Purpose

Recount	to reconstruct past experiences by retelling events in original sequence	Personal letters, police reports, insurance claims, incident reports
Procedure	to show how something is done	Instruction manuals, science, reports, cookbooks
Narrative	to entertain and instruct via reflection on experience	Novels, short stories
Report	to present factual information, usually by classifying things and then describing their characteristics	Brochures, government and business reports
Description	to give an account of imagined or factual events	Travel brochures, novels, product details
Explanation	to give reasons for a state of affairs or a judgment	News reports, textbooks
Exposition	to give arguments for why a thesis has been proposed	Editorials, essays, commentaries

Research Questions

The primary research questions of the study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. How do pre-service teachers perceive genre-based writing implementation engaged in the collaborative learning classroom?
2. What factors may contribute to the collaborative learning context among pre-service teachers?

Research Objectives

Due to the pre-service teachers' genre-based writing meetings, they were engaged in small groups to work together on particular types of tasks which had not successfully been examined in collaborative learning scheme before. Thus, these research objectives would (1) reveal pre-service teachers' perceptions on collaborative learning process during the genre-based writing meetings as a learning experience, and (2) analyze the learning organization that might facilitate or lead to the collaborative learning context among pre-service teachers.

Methods

A questionnaire was used to quantify pre-service teachers' learning experience on instruction evaluation and reflection towards assessment need and collaborative learning evaluation referring to the collaborative learning method. This quantitative survey was to investigate the perceptions from undergraduate pre-service teachers of English education department, Tidar University of Magelang and Widya Dharma University of Klaten who had conducted several genre-based writing themes, such as recount, narrative, analytical exposition, and hortatory exposition paragraph in the running semester.

Population and Sample

Both Tidar University of Magelang and Widya Dharma University of Klaten were chosen as the population for this study. The participants were 108 from Tidar University of Magelang and 57 from Widya Dharma University of Klaten; they were equal to 165. From the population data provided, the number of sample size (N) obtained in this research was 86 or 52% respondents and 95 or 57% respondents out of 165 population and had taken from simple random sampling. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) stated that the sample size determination must impact to the research design, hypothesis, benefits, number of variables focused, data collection method, and findings.

Procedure

The genre-based writing meetings, such as recount, narrative, explanation, analytical exposition, and hortatory exposition paragraph were provided into 2 section-questionnaires. All respondents had participated during the first semester in the academic year 2012/2013. First questionnaire consisted of sixteen closed questions rated on a five-point's Likert scale. Responses in each instrument were expressed in a Likert scale, starting from 1 to 5. Throughout the survey the participants were asked to cross one of the numbers that corresponded to the notion of frequency (Dunn et al, 2004). The questionnaires theme covered *instruction, students' perception toward learning assessment,* and s*tudents' involvement during assessment*. This questionnaire was adopted from Nitko's *Educational Assessment of Students (2nd ed.)* in 1996, where there were three parts of the instruments describing specifically about the lecturer's instruction methods, particularly involving interaction between students and lecturer during the process; learning assessment conducted in the class, which stressed on cognitive and non-cognitive aspects; and students' involvement in genre-based writing assessment themes, particularly when collaborative learning was adopted during the learning process. Then, second questionnaire described seventeen closed questions rated on a five-point's Likert scale as well. This Likert scale responses reference to agreement with statement and questions, where the scale started from 1 to 5 as well. The questionnaire covered *group's performance goals, interpersonal competence, group maintenance, and classroom work* which was developed from Nitko's

Educational Assessment of Students (2nd ed.) in 1996; Ferris and Hedgcock's *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process, and practice (2nd ed.)* in 2005. This questionnaire explained about pre-service teachers' collaborative learning experience which had mainly supported participants' contribution during the activities included doing tasks or assignments; and expectation on collaborative learning works.

Data Collection

This research data was collected from the genre-based writing meetings with the certain themes, such as recount, narrative, analytical exposition, and hortatory exposition paragraph instructionally adopted from the syllabus, either English Education Department, Tidar or Widya Dharma University engaged in the first semester of academic year 2012/2013. Data was collected from 4 various classes, two out of four were conducted from Tidar University of Magelang and the other two classes were from Widya Dharma University of Klaten randomly.

Data Analysis

Data was collected from the returned quantitative surveys, descriptive, and inferential statistics included item frequency and mean. Firstly, there would be 16 statements and 8 questions attached, secondly it was continued by l9 statements attached for data analysis. All data was quantitatively examined by statistical descriptive testing to reveal the mean, frequencies in numeric and percentage categorization, and comparison analysis from the *instruction, students' perception toward learning assessment,* and s*tudents' involvement during assessment* and *group's performance goals, interpersonal competence, group maintenance, and classroom work* through the SPSS program.

Findings

Data analysis underlined the descriptive analysis on the pre-service teachers of English education undergraduate program at Tidar University of Magelang and Widya Dharma University of Klaten based on the instruction evaluation and reflection toward collaborative need identification questionnaire. Table 2 showed survey pre-service teachers' learning experience (perception-based among Tidar and Widya Dharma University respondents) on instruction evaluation and reflection toward collaboration need identification which consisted of instruction, perception toward learning assessment, and students' involvement during assessment instrument within providing the highest score achieved through each instrument. In accordance with the descriptive analysis presented on the table, there was noted that 41.9% or 36 respondents showed their learning experience on *sometimes* category for instruction instrument, 44.2% or 38 respondents answering *seldom* category for perception toward learning assessment instrument. Meanwhile, there were 48.2% or 41 respondents determining their learning experience on *sometimes* category for students' involvement during assessment instrument. The last perception concerned about *always* category, but there was no respondent revealing his or her learning experience on neither instruction, perception toward learning assessment nor students' involvement during assessment instrument during the genre-based learning meetings.

Table 2. Pre-Service Teachers' Learning Experience on Instruction Evaluation and Reflection toward Collaboration Need Identification

Instrument	**Category**	**Pre-Service Teachers**		**Total**
		Tidar University	**Widya Dharma University**	
Instruction	*Never*	1 (2.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.2%)
	Seldom	10 (22.2%)	12 (29.3%)	22 (25.6%)
	Sometimes	16 (35.6%)	20 (48.8%)	36 (41.9%)
	Frequent	18 (40%)	9 (22.0%)	27 (31.4%)
	Always	N/A	N/A	N/A
Perception toward learning assessment	*Never*	1 (2.2%)	2 (4.9%)	3 (3.5%)
	Seldom	18 (40%)	20 (48.8%)	38 (44.2%)
	Sometimes	19 (42.2%)	16 (39.0%)	35 (40.7%)
	Frequent	7 (15.6%)	3 (7.3%)	10 (11.6%)
	Always	N/A	N/A	N/A
Student's involvement during assessment	*Never*	4 (9.1%)	3 (7.3%)	7 (8.2%)
	Seldom	9 (20.5%)	22 (53.7%)	31 (36.5%)
	Sometimes	28 (63.6%)	13 (31.7%)	41 (48.2%)
	Frequent	3 (6.8%)	3 (7.3%)	6 (7.1%)
	Always	N/A	N/A	N/A
Total		**100%**	**100%**	**100%**

Another finding on the descriptive analysis depicted in table 3 was summarized survey pre-service teachers' learning experience among respondents from Tidar and Widya Dharma University on collaborative learning evaluation which was presented in groups' performance goals, interpersonal competence, group maintenance, and classroom work instrument within the highest score achieved in its each category. According to the analysis presented on the table, there was in percentage illustrated that 47.4% or 45 respondents answering *sometimes* category for groups' performance goals. It was worthwhile to note that there were 48.4% or 56 respondents providing in *seldom* category for interpersonal competence instrument. Meanwhile, group maintenance instrument noted that there were 48.4% or 46 respondents choosing *frequent* category to perceive their learning experience on collaborative learning evaluation. Another notable result was that displaying *sometimes* category noted on classroom work. There were 41.1% or 39 respondents presenting their learning experience. The last but not least, herein *always* category was the only category determined by the respondents as their collaborative learning evaluation within group maintenance instrument. There were 25.3% or 24 respondents revealing their learning experience. Therefore, groups' performance goals, interpersonal competence, and classroom work instrument did not obtain responses among the participants in *always* category during the collaborative genre-based learning evaluation.

Table 3. Pre-Service Teachers' Learning Experience on Collaborative Learning Evaluation

Instrument	**Category**	**Pre-Service Teachers**		**Total**
		Tidar University	**Widya Dharma University**	
Group's performance goals	*Never*	2 (4.7%)	9 (17.3%)	11 (11.6%)
	Seldom	11 (25.6%)	14 (26.9%)	25 (26.3%)
	Sometimes	28 (65.1%)	17 (32.7%)	45 (47.4%)
	Frequent	2 (4.7%)	12 (23.1%)	14 (14.7%)
	Always	N/A	N/A	N/A
Interpersonal competence	*Never*	1 (2.3%)	4 (7.7%)	5 (5.3%)
	Seldom	18 (41.9%)	28 (53.8%)	46 (48.4%)
	Sometimes	17 (39.5%)	18 (34.6%)	35 (37.8%)
	Frequent	7 (16.3%)	2 (3.8%)	9 (9.5%)
	Always	N/A	N/A	N/A
Group maintenance	*Never*	1 (2.3%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.1%)
	Seldom	3 (7.0%)	9 (17.3%)	12 (12.6%)
	Sometimes	4 (9.3%)	8 (15.4%)	12 (12.6%)
	Frequent	24 (55.8%)	22 (42.3%)	46 (48.4%)
	Always	11 (25.6%)	13 (25.0%)	24 (25.3%)
Classroom work	*Never*	2 (4.7%)	1 (1.9%)	3 (3.2%)
	Seldom	11 (25.6%)	20 (38.5%)	31 (32.6%)
	Sometimes	21 (48.8%)	18 (34.6%)	39 (41.1%)
	Frequent	9 (20.9%)	25.0%)	22 (23.2%)
	Always	N/A	N/A	N/A
Total		**100%**	**100%**	**100%**

Discussion

This discussion attempted to reveal the instruction evaluation and reflection toward collaboration need identification and collaborative learning evaluation aspects during pre-service teachers' genre-based writing meetings. First, the descriptive analysis on the pre-service teachers of English education undergraduate program at Tidar University of Magelang and Widya Dharma University of Klaten was based on the instruction evaluation and reflection toward collaborative need identification questionnaire. As shown in table 4, there were three profiles highlighting the instruction, perception toward learning assessment, and pre-service teachers' involvement during assessment instrument. According to the table, the highest mean gained from both Tidar and Widya Dharma University respondents was *instruction* with 3.8496. This instrument was especially influenced by convenience and transparency shown in the learning atmosphere; equal opportunity given to access and involve during the learning activities; relevant quiz or assignment drilled to improve the writing competence; the learning quality was well-constructed; and collaboration works among pre-service teachers' learning activity. Another notable result on the second level was that reflecting *perception toward learning assessment* with the gained mean was 3.5855. This instrument was reported by criteria on the basis of assessment relationship with the course objective, assignment, and examination; pre-service teachers evaluation needs facilitated by the writing lecturer; pre-service teachers' readiness on assessment model given; non-academic affairs which supported to the assessment implementation; and pre-service teachers' cognitive and affective performance that should contribute to the collaborative learning circumstance in the genre-based writing meetings. The least mean ranked on the third level was 3.5145 complying with *students' involvement during assessment*, where this instrument contributed to the participants' involvement during assessment; lecturers' intensity in engaging collaborative learning; appreciation among pre-service teachers during the collaborative learning involvement; pre-service teachers' participation to do peer assessment or evaluation during the genre-based writing meetings; and assessment activity's condition relating with the learning objective which had fulfilled the academic qualification. All gained mean from three instruments shown in table 4 had **significant** category.

Table 4. Descriptive Analysis on Instruction Evaluation and Reflection toward Collaboration Need Identification

University		Instruction	Perception toward learning assessment	Students' involvement during assessment
English Education Dept., Tidar University	Min.	2.60	2.60	2.60
	Max.	5.00	4.60	4.60
	Mean	**3.9489**	**3.6367**	**3.6455**
	Median	4.0000	3.6000	3.7000
	Std. Dev.	**.63080**	**.49491**	**.52272**
	N	**45**	**45**	**45**
English Education Dept., Widya Dharma University	Min.	2.67	2.50	2.33
	Max.	5.00	4.60	5.00
	Mean	**3.7407**	**3.5293**	**3.3740**
	Median	3.6667	3.4000	3.2000
	Std. Dev.	**.65995**	**.54601**	**.64942**
	N	**41**	**41**	**41**
Both Tidar and Widya Dharma University	Min.	2.60	2.50	2.33
	Max.	5.00	4.60	5.00
	Mean	**3.8496**	**3.5855**	**3.5145**
	Median	3.8333	3.6000	3.6000
	Std. Dev.	**.64952**	**.51961**	**.59944**
Total	**N**	**86**	**86**	**86**

On the other hand, it was worthwhile to note that the alternative description about the instrument of instruction evaluation and reflection toward collaboration need identification could be verified through the histogram as shown in figure 2.

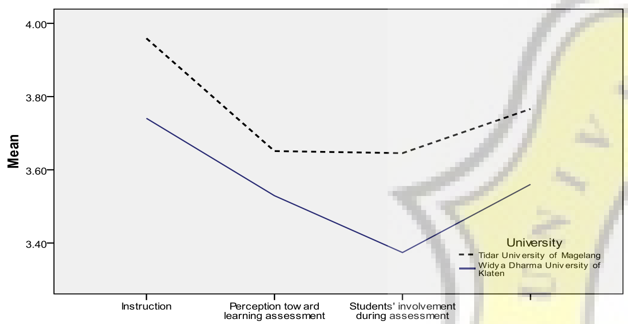


Figure 2. Histogram on Instruction and Reflection toward Collaboration Need Identification

Second, as illustrated in table 5, there were four profiles highlighting group's performance goals, interpersonal competence, group maintenance, and classroom work instrument. According to the table, the highest mean attained from both Tidar and Widya Dharma University respondents was *group maintenance* with 3.7263. This instrument was particularly supported by some influential factors, such as peers' participation in joining collaborative works during their learning process, as well as preparing individual learning activities among the participants, meanwhile engaging collaborative works, peers also attempted to achieve their committed goals, and they responsibly attempted to do and finish their assignments outside the group's learning timetables. Another notable result on the second level was that reflecting *classroom work* with the gained mean was 3.6684. This result was provided

in the basis of peers' mutual interaction with other participants while learning collaboratively and participants (peers) learning accommodation through their sense of sensitivity and appreciation to others' ideas as their learning perspectives and behaviour. It was concerned to the third level when mean attainment related to *group's performance goals* as well. The mean score was 3.5447, as portrayed from peers' assistance on decision making in relevance with the group's learning necessities and their active collaboration with other participants to help the problem solving. The least mean ranked on the fourth level was 3.4632 indicating *interpersonal competence*. This instrument led to respondents' contribution on giving opportunities to work on assignments with fellow classmates and convenience working with other peers in planning and completing genre-based writing themes. When a peer worked in small group consisting of five to six participants, she or he would concentrate to learn more, feel comfortable, and produce better work than working individually. Thus, they would have time properly to revise and give comments on other participants' genre-based writing they had collaborated in. Relating to the attained mean from four instruments shown in table 5, they had **significant** category definitely.

Table 5. Descriptive Analysis on Collaborative Learning Evaluation

University		Group's Performance Goals	Interpersonal Competence	Group Maintenance	Classroom Work
English Education Dept., Tidar University	Min.	2.25	2.33	1.50	2.00
	Max.	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.88
	Mean	**3.6047**	**3.6202**	**3.7907**	**3.6977**
	Median	3.7500	3.6667	4.0000	3.6250
	Std. Dev.	**.53238**	**.59797**	**.74986**	**.62454**
	N	**43**	**43**	**43**	**43**
English Education Dept., Widya Dharma University	Min.	2.00	2.33	2.00	2.50
	Max.	5.00	4.67	5.00	5.00
	Mean	**3.4952**	**3.3333**	**3.6731**	**3.6442**
	Median	3.5000	3.3333	3.5000	3.7500
	Std. Dev.	**.76134**	**.60499**	**.86254**	**.63948**
	N	**52**	**52**	**52**	**52**
Both Tidar and Widya Dharma University	Min.	2.00	2.33	1.50	2.00
	Max.	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
	Mean	**3.5447**	**3.4632**	**3.7263**	**3.6684**
	Median	3.5000	3.3333	4.0000	3.7500
	Std. Dev.	**.66642**	**.61559**	**.81138**	**.62997**
Total	**N**	**95**	**95**	**95**	**95**

Meanwhile, it was worthwhile to note that the alternative description about the collaborative learning evaluation instrument could be synchronized through the histogram as shown in figure

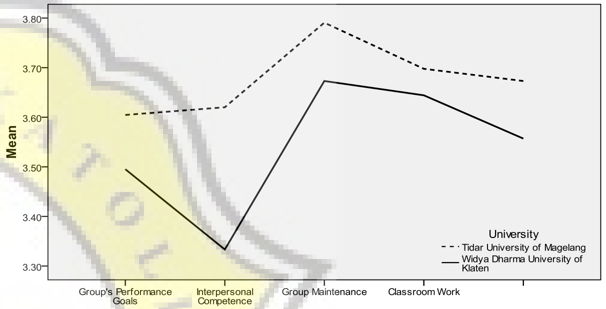


Figure 3. Histogram on Collaborative Learning Evaluation

Conclusion

This conclusion attempted to point out pre-service teachers' perception which based on their genre-based writing experience. There would be two major points portrayed in the collaborative learning roles. First of all, it relied on the *instruction, perception toward learning assessment*, and *students' involvement during assessment* aspect. Based on the empirical findings, there were notable facts that pre-service teachers of English education department had revealed their collaborative learning experience through the lecturer's instruction methodology which had contributed 41.9% (*seldom* category). This learning condition was considered as the impact of convenience and transparency created the learning atmosphere, equal opportunity given to access and involve during the learning activities, relevant quiz or assignment drilled to improve the writing competence, well-constructed on learning quality; and collaboration works among pre-service teachers' learning activity. Then, pre-service teachers' perception toward learning assessment facilitated by their lecturer while learning collaboratively contributed 44.2% (*seldom* category). The contributing reasons verified on how assessment relationship with the course objective, assignment, and examination were done; pre-service teachers evaluation needs facilitated by the writing lecturer, pre-service teachers' readiness on assessment model provided, non-academic affairs supporting toward the assessment implementation, and cognitive and affective performance aspect that should contribute to the collaborative learning circumstance in the genre-based writing meetings. After that, students' involvement during assessment contributed 48.2% (*sometimes* category). Obviously this participation involved on lecturers' intensity in engaging collaborative learning, appreciation among the participants during the collaborative learning activities, active involvement toward peer assessment or evaluation during the genre-based writing meetings, and assessment activity's condition relating with the learning objective fulfilling the academic qualification.

Another point of view regarding with this conclusion was how some factors had positively contributed to the collaborative learning implementation among pre-service teachers. Herein, it focused on collaborative learning evaluation presenting in *groups' performance goals*, *interpersonal competence*, *group maintenance*, and *classroom work* aspect. It was remarkably considered that groups' performance goals gained 47.4% (*sometimes* category). The influencing aspects referred to peers' participation in joining collaborative works during their learning process, as well as preparing individual learning activities and engaging collaborative works, peers also attempted to achieve their committed goals, and they responsibly attempted to do and finish their assignments out of group's learning timetables accordingly. Then, interpersonal competence contributed 48.4% (*seldom* category). This condition influenced to the internal

issues, such as peers' interaction with others while learning as teamwork and accommodation through their sense of sensitivity and appreciation to different ideas as they learned about perspectives and behaviour. Next, group maintenance revealed 48.4% (*frequent* category), where peers' assistance on decision making in relevance with the group's learning necessities and their active collaboration with other group members to bridge and find the problem solving were suggested as important points. The last but not least, another notable finding which attained 41.1% (*sometimes* category) on classroom work within the collaborative learning evaluation. Herein, by giving opportunities to work collaboratively on assignments with the classmates and feeling convenience working with others in planning and completing genre-based writing themes would be a priority. Also when a peer worked in small group, she or he would concentrate to learn more, feel comfortable, and produce better work than working individually. Thus, all members would have time properly to revise and give constructive comments on their counterparts' works.

References

Ahn, H. (2012). Teaching writing skills based on a genre approach to L2 primary school students: An action research. *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 5, No. 2, 2-16.

Brown, F. A. (2008). Collaborative learning in the EAP classroom: Students' perceptions. *English for Specific Purposes*, Vol. 7, No. 1, 1-18. Retrieved on 15th October 2012, from http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_17/PDF/Collaborativelearning.pdf.

Canagarajah, S. (2002). *A geopolitics of academic writing.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Casanave, C. P. (2003). Looking ahead to more sociopolitically oriented case study research in L2 writing scholarship (But should it be called "post process"?). *Journal of Second Language Writing*, Vol. 12, 85-102.

Delucchi, M. (2006). The efficacy of collaborative learning groups in an undergraduate statistics course. *College Teaching*, Vol. 54, No. 2, 244-248.

Falchikov, N. (2001). *Learning together: Peer tutoring in higher education*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.

Ferris, D. R., & Hedgcock, J. S. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process, and practice (2nd ed.).* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Gilles, R. M., & Ashman, A, F. (2003). Co-operative learning: The social and intellectual outcomes of learning in groups. In Ross, J. A., & Rolheiser, C, *Student assessment practices in co-operative learning*. (Pp. 119-135). London: RoutledgeFalmer.
Gokhale, A. A. (1995). Collaborative learning enhances critical thinking. *Journal of Technology Education*, Vol, 7, No. 1, 22-30.
Hyland, K. (2008). Genre and academic writing in the disciplines. *Language Teaching*, Vol. 41, No. 4, 543-562
-------------. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, Vol. 12, 17-29.
Lambert, D., & Lines, D. (2000). *Understanding Assessment: Purposes, perceptions, practice*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
Lee, I. (2012). Genre-based teaching and assessment in secondary English classrooms. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, Vol. 11, No. 4, 120-136.
Nayan, S., Shafie, L. A., Mansor, M., Maesin, A., & Osman, N. (2010). The practice of collaborative learning among lecturers in Malaysia. *Management Science and Engineering*, Vol. 4, No. 1, 62-70.
Negari, G. M. (2011). A study on strategy instruction and EFL learners' writing skill. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, Vol. 1, No. 2, 299-307.
Paltridge, B. (2001). *Genre and the language learning classroom*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press.
Roberts, T. S. (2003). Online collaborative learning: Theory and practice. In Treleaven, L., *A new taxonomy for evaluation studies of online collaborative learning* (Pp. 160-180). Hershey: Idea Group Inc.
Sullivan, P., Zhang, Y., & Zheng, F. (2012). College writing in China and America: A modest and humble conversation, with writing samples. *The Journal of the Conference on College Composition and Communication*, Vol. 64, No. 2, 306-331.
Strickland, D. S., Ganske, K., & Monroe, J. K. (2006). *Supporting struggling readers and writers: Strategies for classroom intervention 3-6*. Portland: Stenhouse Publishers.
Swami, J. A. (2008). Sensitizing ESL learners to genre. *TESL-Education Journal*, Vol. 13, No. 3, 1-13. Retrieved on 18th May 2013, from http://www.tesl-ej.org/ej47/a9.html.
Widodo, H. P. (2006). Designing a genre-based lesson plan for an academic writing course. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, Vol. 5, No. 3, 173-199.
Yazici, H. J. (2005). A study of collaborative learning style and team learning performance. *Education + Training*, Vol. 47, No. 3, 216-229.

Nominal Group in the Abstracts of Journal Article written by Native and Non-Native Speakers of English

Fitri Budi Suryani
Muria Kudus University
fitribudisuryani@gmail.com

Abstract

One of the distinguished features of academic written texts is that it is rich in nominal groups regarding the complexity and density. Abstract of journal article is one example of academic written texts; therefore, it is expected to have complex and dense nominal groups. This study is aimed at comparing the nominal group in the abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English. The method of the study is qualitative using content analysis design. The data come from two journals written in English language, i.e., Teflin and Journal of Writing Research. The finding reveals that there are similarities as well as differences in the nominal group of abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English.

Keywords: nominal group, lexical density, abstract of journal article, native and non native speakers of English

Introduction

One of the distinguished features of academic written texts is that it is rich in nominal groups. Coffin et al. (2009: 422) state that in formal written English there is a tendency to represent events, qualities of objects and events, and logical connections, not in their most 'natural' or congruent form as verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions, but as nouns. This is what the so-called nominalisation.

Furthermore, Coffin et al (2009: 423) argue that without the ability to nominalise, it would be difficult to develop many scientific notions. The meanings that would be spread across clauses in the text will be condensed through nominalisation in nominal groups. Therefore, most academic written English will show the complexity of nominal groups and high lexical density.

The complexity of nominal groups is indicated by the complex elements found in the nominal groups. Coffin et al (2009: 88) mention that the simplest kind of nominal group consists of a single pronoun or noun, whereas the more complex nominal groups include modifiers. Meanwhile, lexical density refers to the condition where the information in the text is packed into nominal groups due to the use of more specialised lexis. Lexical density is calculated by dividing the number of lexical items by the number of ranking (non-embedded) clauses.

This study is aimed at comparing the nominal groups in the abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English. It focuses on the similarities and differences in the elements of nominal group and the lexical density in the abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English.

Review of Related Literature

1. Nominal Group Structure

Nominal group is a group of words which has a noun as its headword and all additional information related to that noun (Gerot and Wignell, 1995: 141). Butt et al. (2000: 66) state that at the nucleus of the nominal group structure is the word that most generally represents the thing-ness concept that is being talked about called head or thing. In the simple nominal group, this thing is typically a single pronoun or noun. On the other hand, the complex nominal group structure might include other elements called modifiers. These modifiers or functional elements function as a means to represent experience.

There are two types of modifiers: pre-modifier and post-modifier. Pre-modifier itself has several elements namely deictic, numerative, epithet, and classifier. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 312) assert that pre-modifier "serve to realize terms within different systems of the system

network of the nominal group". Unlike pre-modifier, post-modifier only includes one element called qualifier.

Deictic, according to Butt et al (1994: 67), point to, or in some way selects the noun functioning as Thing. It includes specific deictic (the, this, my) and non-specific deictic (some, both, either, a). Numerative tells how many of Thing there are or in what order it occurs which includes cardinal numbers (one, a thousand) and ordinal numbers (first, last). Epithet functions to describe the quality of a Thing and is realized in adjectives (exciting, painful). The last pre-modifier, classifier, signifies the Thing as a member of a class. This may include adjectives (Indonesian, public) or nouns acting as classifier (cedar tree, car pool).

The post-modifier, i.e. qualifier has a function to qualify the Thing in more detail. It does so by means of a clause (which came early in the morning) or prepositional phrase (in the train).

2. Lexical Density

Both spoken and written languages are complex on their own ways. If spoken language is complex grammatically, written language is complex lexically. In other words, Gerot and Wignell (1995: 161) say that "spoken language tends to be grammatically intricate whereas written language tends to be lexically dense".

Lexical density refers to "a measure of the amount of content information in a clause (or in a text)" (Gerot and Wignel, 1995: 163). To calculate lexical density, the number of content words, i.e. noun, adjective, verb, adverb, is divided with the number of clauses in the text.

Gerot and Wignel (1995) argue that lexical density shows a reasonable measure of the readability of a text. This occurs through nominalization, i.e. packing the content of clauses into noun groups (Lock, 2005: 60). Eggins (1994: 59) mentions two textual advantages of nominal group: it allows us to organize our text rhetorically and pack in more lexical content per clause.

Therefore, Eggins (1994: 60) infers that by turning verbs and other parts of speech into nouns, the possible content of the text is increased that will make its lexical density also increase.

Methodology

The method of the study is qualitative using content analysis design. The data come from two journals written in English language, i.e., Teflin and Journal of Writing Research (JOWR). Teflin is an Indonesian journal published biannually by the association of English teachers in Indonesia. Most of the writers in Teflin journal are Indonesians or non-native speakers of English. On the other hand, JOWR is a journal written mostly by native speakers of English. It is an international peer reviewed journal focusing on writing research whose editors come from UK, USA, Belgium, and the Netherlands.

The Teflin journal taken as data source is the Teflin Vol. 24 Number 2, 2013 , meanwhile the JOWR is Vol. 2 Number 2, 2012. The number of abstracts taken from each journal is six. The data is analysed for lexical density and elements of nominal group.

Findings

The findings of the study reveal that the abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English employ the elements of nominal groups as shown in the following table.

Table 1. Nominal Group Structure

Elements of Nominal Group	Nominal Group Structure	
	Abstracts of Journal Article Written by Native Speakers	Abstracts of Journal Article Written by Non-Native Speakers
Deictic	47	61
Numerative	9	12
Epithet	18	19
Classifier	26	29
Qualifier	61	46
Pre-Deictic	1	1
Pre-Numerative	-	2
Total Number of Elements of Nominal group	162	170
Number of Nominal Group	87	87

It can be seen that the abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English have the same number of nominal groups. However, the abstracts of journal article written by non-native speakers of English have more varied elements of nominal group, whereas those written by native speakers of English show less varied elements of nominal group as they do not have pre-Numerative.

Furthermore, the total number of elements of nominal group in the abstracts of journal article written by non-native speakers of English is higher than those by native speakers. This is also found in each kind of elements (deictic, numerative, epithet, classifier, pre-deictic, pre-numerative), except for classifier. The abstracts of journal article written by native speakers of English have higher number of classifier.

This finding indicates that the non-native speakers of English employ more complex and varied elements of nominal groups in their abstracts of journal article. Moreover, they put all additional information characterizing the noun by using all possibilities of pointing, quantifying, describing quality, classifying, and qualifying. However, the native speakers of English did qualifying more in their abstracts of journal article than the non-native speakers of English.

From the finding, it is known that the complex elements of nominal group found does not automatically refer to the high lexical density in the abstracts of journal article. This is shown in the table 2 as followed

Table 2. Lexical Density

Abstract	Lexical Density	
	Abstracts of Journal Article Written by Native Speakers	Abstracts of Journal Article Written by Non-Native Speakers
1	10.4	8.9
2	7.5	10.5
3	12.2	9.3
4	9.7	12.6
5	18.7	8.7
6	13	13.2
Average	11.9	10.5

The table above reveals that the average lexical density of the abstracts of journal article written by native speakers of English is higher than those by non-native speakers. This means that the native speakers packed their content information in their clauses in the abstracts of journal article more than the non-native speakers did. In other words, they nominalise their verbs and other parts of speech more.

The fact that the abstracts of journal article written by non-native speakers have more elements of nominal group, but present the lower lexical density than those by native speakers is an interesting phenomenon. This seems to be contradictory with Eggins (1994) who states that nominal groups will increase the lexical density. However, this fact might occur so because the native speakers of English spread the content information not only in the nominal groups, but also in other content words like verbs, adjectives, and adverbs outside the nominal groups. Thus, the abstracts of journal article written by native speakers, even though have lower number of elements of nominal group, are still possible to have higher lexical density.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the abstracts of journal article written by native and non-native speakers of English perform the complex elements of nominal group.

However, the abstracts of journal article written by non-native speakers of English tend to characterize their nouns through more various and complex elements of nominal group. Meanwhile, regarding the lexical density, the abstracts of journal article written by native speakers of English show higher readability.

References

Butt, David et al. (2000). *Using Functional Grammar An Explorer's Guide*, Second Edition. Sydney: Macquarie University.

Coffin, Caroline, Jim Donohue, and Sarah North. (2009). *Exploring English Grammar, From Formal to Functional*. London: Routledge.

Eggins, Suzanne. (1994). An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics. London: Pinter.

Gerot, Linda and Peter Wignell. (1995). Making Sense of Functional Grammar. New South Wales: Gerd Stabler.

Halliday, MAK, and Christian Matthiessen. (2004). An Introduction to Functional Grammar. New York: OUP.

Lock, Graham. (2005). Functional English Grammar, An Introduction for Second Language Teachers. Cambridge: CUP.

Developing a Self-assessment Model in Teaching Academic Writing for Indonesian EFL Learners

Taufiqulloh
Pancasakti University Tegal
taufiqkayla@gmail.com

Abstract

In the EFL context of higher education in Indonesia, writing is considered an important skill since it is not only an object of education, but also it is merely a skill leading to professional development. Students in particular, must produce academic writing works as part of their study. During my observations as an EFL instructor in my university for several years, many writing courses were set in traditional classroom. Teachers still dominated the role in both learning and assessment process. Students were also demanded to write referring to the given norms or rules without having independent thinking and action. On the other side, the contemporary trend of English language learning today in international context focuses on creating competent language learners and autonomous agents. The task of language education is then to help learners develop self-reliance and autonomy, which will enable them to communicate successfully in international settings. This article offers a self-assessment model which can be applied in academic writing instruction at university level in Indonesia. The idea of developing the model was to provide an alternative technique in academic writing instruction which is more student-centered and more specifically to promote learner autonomy in EFL learning. The model embraces some instruments to undertake self-assessment practices in academic writing class. It was developed on the basis of the results of need and literary analysis, as well as try-out of the existing model. The model was then validated through focus group discussion and statistic measurement.

Keywords: model, self-assessment, development.

Background

The contemporary trend of English language learning in international context focuses on creating competent language learners and autonomous agents. The task of language education is then to help learners develop self-reliance and autonomy, which will enable them to communicate successfully in international settings. Learner autonomy is therefore one of the

issues that needs to be addressed when the focus is on the learner in present day ELT. (Illes, 2012:506).

This study proposes a self-assessment model in learning academic writing for EFL students at the university level in Indonesia. The idea of developing an effective model in teaching academic writing and creating learners' autonomy become major concern in this study. Illes (2012:509) defines learner autonomy as the capacity to become competent speakers of the target language who are able to exploit the linguistic and other resources at their disposal effectively and creatively. Self-assessment is the key to using portfolios successfully in the classroom in which it involves the students and enables them to see possibilities for reflection, redirection and confirmation of their own learning efforts (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996:38).

Previous Studies

Studies in self-assessment showed the effectiveness of self-assessment in English language learning. Sadek (2011) investigated the effect of self-assessment on the EFL-learners' expository essay writing. Self-assessment in her study was employed as a revision technique in the process of writing in order to raise learners' awareness of their common mistakes through providing them with a chance to locate these mistakes by themselves. The participants of the study were 40 engineer freshmen at MSA (Modern Science and Arts) University. The result of this experimental study demonstrated that there was a significant improvement towards students' writing ability. The result also showed positive awareness of the students in learning to write essay. Birjandi (2010) explored the role of journal writing as a self-assessment technique in promoting Iranian EFL learners' motivation. The participants were 60 intermediate TEFL students of Islamic Azad University of Tabriz. The result showed that the use of the journal contributed positive influence in promoting students' motivation.

Oscarson (2009) explored a study on how upper secondary school students perceived their own general and specific writing abilities regarding syllabus goals and whether these perceptions were affected by self-assessment practices. She also explored students' and teachers' experiences of integrating self-assessment into everyday classroom practice. The results showed that students' assessments of their writing ability in general showed a stronger relationship with teachers' grades and students' assessments tended to become more realistic with practice. Wang and Wang (2007) introduced both affect test and self-assessment into the traditional assessment scheme of non-English major post-graduates ESL writing classes. Results showed that both affect test and self-assessment were welcomed by the majority of learners and played a relatively positive role in the whole ESL writing process. Brown (2005, p.185), conducted a small study of students on an independent learning program. She used annotated learner produced texts to reflect communicatively oriented criteria (e.g. content and sociolinguistic appropriateness, text structure, organization and coherence) for students who assessed their own performance by comparing the annotated texts with their own. She found the method both reliable and useful for student self-assessment of writing, as well as for learning specific language skills. Ferris (1995) developed and used a semester-long editing process approach to help advanced ESL writing students become more self-sufficient as editors. The results of the study showed that self-editing contributed a positive effect in improving student's ability in writing.

The previous studies as previously described have shown the effectiveness of self-assessment in English as a foreign language (EFL) learning both in secondary and higher education. Self-assessment studies in higher education, in particular, has grown considerably and received much

attention since the last decade because of its philosophy in promoting learners' autonomy (Boud, 1992, 1995; Penny & Grover, 1996 cited in Downs and Kirby, 2007). It is considered as an effective medium to promote independent learning programs for EFL learners by which they lie in the conditions of attempting to be more aware of themselves, lead their learning in the right direction and finding their own learning goals.

Underlying Theories of Self-Assessment

Self-assessment in EFL context is based on the theory that metacognitive skills are important in developing autonomous learning skills. The metacognitive skills cover self-regulation, self-monitoring and self-assessment. Metacognition essentially means cognition about cognition; that is, it refers to second order cognitions: thoughts about thoughts, knowledge about knowledge or reflections about actions (Eleonora and Louca, 2008:15). Thus, it can be said that metacognition is about the role of an individual in perceiving, understanding and remembering. It also facilitates the strategic performance of expert learners and that reflection provides the critical link between knowledge and control of the learning process (Ertmer and Newby, 1996). Reflection or reflexitivity is the central concept of self-assessment. Reflection is the concept of enlightenment of individual autonomous learning. Through reflection, we learn how to improve ourselves in learning. Reflection, in language learning, is something worthwhile for the learners to view back and evaluate what they have done or learnt, to adjust in various situations to get better enlightment in future (Dyke, 2006:105). Reflection helps learners deepen their understanding of one experience with other experience and ideas as it is about our systematic way of thinking, our interaction with others and an attitude in which it values growth to us and others (Rodgers, 2002:842). The reflective learner is the one who possesses disciplined thought and open to obtain meanings in their experience. Thus, they enable to interpret their experience, recognize problems or weaknessess and generate possible or alternative solutions.

Self-Assessment in Writing

Self-assessment encourages the learners to recognize their strengths and weaknesses in learning, and cope with various learning problems. It promotes learning, raises learner's awareness of their own learning, improves the goal orientation of individual learners, reduces teacher's burdens of assessment and entails a long-term effect on the learner's autonomy (Oscarson, 1989:62). Brown (2004:270) defines self-assessment as one of the primary foundation stones of successful learning. The ability to set one's own goals both within and beyond the structure of a classroom curriculum, to pursue them without the presence of an external prod, and to independently monitor that pursuit all keys to success. According Blanche and Merino (1989:313) cited in Oscarson (2009:63). Students often need support in understanding the importance of self-assessment, in becoming independent evaluators of their own progress, and in setting goals for future learning.

In writing, self-assessment enables learners to monitor their progress in learning to write and set their own learning goals. In other words, it encourages the learners the reflection needed to gain increased control as writers (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996:151). Students need to be able to appraise their performance accurately for themselves so that they themselves understand what more they need to learn and do not become dependent on their teachers.Self-assessment is effective since it involves the students and enables them to see possibilities for reflection, redirection and confirmation of their own learning efforts. Students often need support in

understanding the importance of self-assessment, in becoming independent evaluators of their own progress, and in setting goals for future learning.

Self-assessment is a process through which students must be led (O'Malley and Pierce, 1996:39). Teaching students to evaluate their progress begins with realizing that students will be learning new skills and it can be carried out with these four steps: setting criteria, applying criteria, setting and working towards goals. Taras (2001:605) describes three features which allow students increased access to assessment procedures to help them carry out self-assessment from an informed position: using summative graded work for self-assessment, receiving tutor feedback to understand and identify errors prior to self-assessment, and working with formative self-assessment practices for learning purposes.

Method

This is a developmental study which aims at developing a self-assessment model in academic writing for EFL writing students in higher education context, more particularly the students of English Department of Pancasakti University Tegal.. The participants who were involved in developing the model were writing lecturers and the fourth semester students who attended academic writing class in the academic year of 2013/2014.

The self-assessment model in this study was developed on the basis of needs and literary analysis, as well as try-out of the existing model. The model was then validated through focus group discussion and statistic measurement.

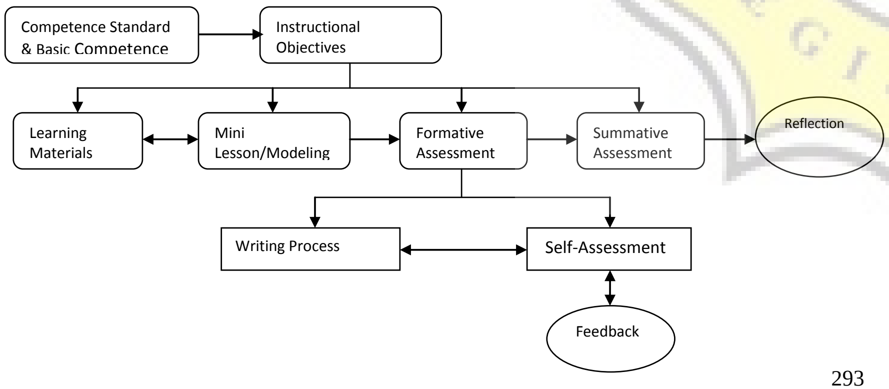
Needs analysis in this study was carried out to obtain some information about the existing teaching and learning process of academic writing in the English Department of Pancasakti University Tegal. Observation and interview were conducted to both the students and writing lecturers to figure out their needs. Meanwhile, literary analysis was undertaken to find out some related sources concerning about self-assessment practices in academic writing. In developing the self-assessment model in teaching, the try-out of the existing model was also conducted to find its drawbacks. The drawbacks were then refined to develop the model in this study.

In addition to that, validation was conducted after the development of the model throughout focus group discussion (FGD) and statistic measurement for validity and reliability since the self-assesment model in this study consists of several instruments. Focus group discussion (FGD) was conducted to review the model prototype of self-assessment in academic writing instruction. Four English writing lecturers of the English Department of Pancasakti University Tegal whose expertise is teaching writing and language testing were involved in the discussion. It was addressed to revise the draft of the model. Regarding self-assessment instruments, 20 students were also involved for measuring the validity and reliability of the instruments.

Self-Assessment Model in Teaching Academic Writing for EFL Learners

The proposed model of self-assessment in academic writing instruction is illustrated in the following figure:

Figure: Self-Assessment in Academic Writing Instruction



Drawn from the figure, the self-assessment model in academic writing encompasses several components: competence standard and basic competence, instructional objectives, learning materials, mini lesson, formative assessment, writing process, self-assessment instruments, feedback, summative assessment and reflection. The implementation procedure of the model is described further in the followings:

1. Formulating Instructional objective

The instructional objective of academic writing instruction is formulated regarding the competence standard and basic competence in the academic writing syllabus. The following is the instructional objective of academic writing formulated in the syllabus of academic writing of the English Department of Pancasakti University Tegal.

> At the end of the semester, the students are able to produce well organized essays by employing certain rhetorical strategies, cohesive devices, mechanical aspects, a variety of vocabulary and sentences, as well as grammatical structures,

2. Selecting learning materials

Regarding the instructional objective, the type of academic writing as the subject matter taught in implementing this model is essay. It is considered as a defined structure writing which consists of an introduction, a body and a conclusion. There are several types of essay as the learning materials students learn to write: argumentative, chronological, cause/effect, and comparison/contrast essays, etc.

3. Conducting mini lesson/setting criteria

Mini lesson (criteria) is an important part in self-assessment. Teacher should provide criteria or standards students must follow in order that they can make judgment on their own. This is a key element of self-assessment. According to Boud (1995) criterion is a requirement of self-assessment to be able to engage with and if possible involve students in discussion and understanding of criteria and/or formulating the criteria used in assessment. Through mini lesson, teacher provides some models of well-organized essays. Teacher and students work together on establishing critical review throughout the model essays. The critical review was addressed to reveal the accuracy, clarity and cohesiveness of the model essays. Moreover, they work together on assessing such essays using the criteria/rubrics. The essay writing rubrics in this self-assessment model was developed referring to that of Oshima and Hogue (2006). (See appendix 1). \

4. Conducting self-assessment practices in academic writing class

Self-assessment practices in this model are implemented when students do their writing assignment and tests (formative and summative assessment). The practices are carried out through some instruments which are embedded in the writing process stages developed from Oshima and Hogue (2006): planning, writing the first draft, assessing, revising, editing and writing the final draft. There are four types of self-instruments proposed in this model as follows:

a. Checklist of Writing Dimension (CWD)

Through this checklist, students learn to self-edit several aspects of their essay writing including format, mechanics, and content, organization, grammar and sentence structures. (See appendix 2). This checklist can be implemented in the revising and editing stages of the writing process. Through this checklist, students self-edit their essay draft to have good format, correct spelling, punctuation and other mechanical skills. They also learn to assess whether their writing is interesting or not to read, and whether their writing is produced with care and thought or not, and whether or not their essay has a good organization. In addition, through this checklist, students gather feedback in doing editing their works from teacher or their peers. Feedback is a part of self-assessment. Students do not rely on themselves in coping with their learning problems. Thus, peer and teacher feedback are of a great assistance. Both teacher and

peers can provide students with oral and written feedback for the improvement of their learning

b. Checklist of Writing Strategies (CWS)

Through this checklist, students assess their strategies before, during and after writing. Pre-writing strategies focus on topic review and organization. Students learn to recognize the strategies in generating ideas about the topic and making outline or semantic map of the topic. Strategies used during writing focus on the content. After writing, students identify their strategies in rereading, editing and revising their essays. This checklist can be implemented as the students accomplish a certain writing task (formative and summative assessment). (See appendix 3).

c. Survey of Writing Interest and Awareness (SWIA)

This questionnaire is employed to determine the student's attitude toward academic writing. Students are asked to identify their interest and awareness which include their perceptions, care, and seriousness in learning to write essay. Simply, students are asked to indicate their attitudes in learning academic writing and gauge their improvement as writers. Hence, teacher can share with students' experiences during the writing process. Teacher can find out the strengths and weaknesses of the students so that they can give feedback for improvement and resetting instructional goals in future. This questionnaire is employed to the students at the end of the course for summative assessment. (See appendix 4)

d. Questionnaire of Learning Monitoring Strategies (QLMS)

Through self-assessment, learners monitor and regulate their learning as metacognition is its central concept. Knowledge of cognition includes knowledge about tasks, strategies, plans, and goals. While the regulation of cognition refers to goal setting, planning, monitoring one's understanding, and evaluating progress toward the completion of task (Flavel, 1979). This questionnaire is employed to find out the ways the students monitor their own learning after they accomplish the course for summative assessment. (See appendix 5).

In addition to that, the self-assessment instruments previously described were measured for its validity and reliability to figure out whether such instruments were applicable or not. The try-out of these three instruments were conducted to 20 students of the fourth semester students of the English department of Pancasakti University Tegal in the academic year of 2012/2013 who attended academic writing class and selected randomly.

To measure the validity and reliability of the self-assessments in the model, the correlation technique of product moment by Pearson was applied. SPSS 20 was also used for statistic calculation. The results of statistic measurement in showed that the instruments were valid and reliable. Accordingly, these instruments are considered applicable as self-assessment instruments that can be applied in academic writing instruction.

5. Conducting reflection

The outcome of academic writing instruction is then analyzed for reflecting or giving a meaning: things that have not been passed or achieved would be recognized. The strengths and the weaknessess of the students in learning academic writing will be the reference to reset the instructional goals.

Conclusion

To sum up, this study has developed a model of self-assessment in academic writing instruction for EFL learners. The model embraces some instruments which enable students to do self-editing on their writing works, reveal their writing strategies, figure out interest and awareness in learning, and monitor their learning strategies. Through these instruments, students learn to share with others to cope with various learning problems through feedback.

The try-out of the model small and large scale context should be conducted for the sake of its refinement and for measuring its effectiveness.

References

Birjandi P, (2010). The Role of Self-Assessment in Promoting Iranian EFL Learners' Motivation. ELT Journal, Vol.3/3 Published by Canadian Center of Science and Education.

Blanche, Patrick & Merino, Barbara, J., (1989). Self assessment of foreign language skills: Implications for teachers and researchers. *Language Learning, 39*, 313-340.

Boud, D. (1992) The use of self-assessment schedules in negotiated learning, *Studies in Higher Education*, 17(2), 185–201.

Boud, D. (1995) *Enhancing learning through self-assessment* (London, Kogan Page).

Bullock D, (2011). *Learner's Self-Assessment: An investigation to Teacher's Belief*. ELT Journal, 65/2 114 -125

Dyke, Martin. (2006). the role of the 'Other' in reflection, knowledge formation and action in a late modernity. *International Journal of Lifelong Education, 25*, (2), 105-123.

Eleonora P., Louca., (2008). *Metacognition and Theory of Mind.* Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Ertmer, P. A., & Newby, T. J. (1996). The expert learner: Strategic, self-regulated and reflective. *Instructional Science, 24*, 1-24.

Ferris, D., (1995). *Teaching Students to Self-Edit.* TESOL Journal.

Illes, E. (2012). Learner Autonomy Revisited. ELT Journal 66/4 505-513

Kirby, F., N., Downs, C.,T., (2007). Self-assessment and the disadvantaged student: potential for encouraging self-regulated learning?. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education Vol. 32, No. 4, August 2007, pp. 475–494*

Matsuno, S. (2009). Self-, Peer-, and Teacher- assessments in Japanese University EFL Writing Classrooms. *Language Testing*, 29(1), 75-100.

O'Malley and Pierce J.M., Pierce,V., (1996). *Authentic Assessment for English Language Learners.* Longman.

Oscarson, A.,D., (2009). *Self-Assessment of Writing in Learning English as a Foreign Language:* A Study at the Upper Secondary School Level. Göteborg : Geson Hylte Tryck.

Oscarson, M. (1989). Self-assessment of Language Proficiency: Rationale and Applications. *Language Testing*, 6(1), 1-13

Oshima A., Hogue A., (2006). *Writing Academic English.* Pearson : Longman

Oskarrson, M. (1980). Approaches to Self-Assessment Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon

Rodgers, C., (2002). *Defining Reflection*: *Another Look at John Dewey and Reflective Thinking*. Teachers College Record, 104, (4), 842-866.

Sadek, N., (2011). The Power of Self-Assessment in Language learning. LAP Lambert Academic Publishing

Taras, M., (2001). The use of tutor feedback and student self-assessment insummative assessment tasks: Towards transparency for students and for tutors. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *26*(6), 289–306.

Wang, H. & Wang, Y. (2007). The Addition of an Affect Test and Self-assessment into ESL Writing Assessment: Process and Effect. *Asian EFL Journal*, 20

English-First Language Code Mixing in ESP Classrooms: Bridging the Needs

Nur Utami SK
Pakuan University, Bogor
utamiutar@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study takes place in Indonesian ESP classrooms where English is the foreign language. It investigates the use of students' first language, which is Indonesian, at an Indonesian private university, as well as the attitudes of Indonesian ESP instructors and ESP students towards employing Indonesian in ESP classrooms. Data are collected by means of a questionnaire. The results reveals that ESP instructors use Indonesian in specific situations such as explaining grammatical points and expressions, managing classroom, explaining instructions, and checking students' understanding. The findings also show that the instructors hold positive attitudes towards employing Indonesian in the ESP classroom. Similarly, the results of the questionnaire indicate that ESP students have positive attitudes towards the use of Indonesian in their ESP classes.

Keywords: ESP, L1, teachers' and students' attitudes and perspective

Introduction

In EFL setting, especially in ESP classrooms, the use of the learners' first language might be perceived as a twofold approach. Despites its cons, those who perceive first language as a scaffolding in a foreign language learning may adhere it as a part of learners' experience and knowledge which help them in carrying out their tasks (Swain & Lapkin, 2000 as cited in Machaal, 2001). The use of L1 may also decrease the anxiety and allow for a more significant progress.

Some previous studies on the use of the first language in an EFL classroom might reveal different findings. Teachers use the first language in explaining grammatical points and new words, managing classroom, explaining instructions and checking students' understanding (Kim Anh, 2010; Al-Nofaie, 2010).

In ESP context, Jafari and Shokrpour (2013) finds in their research on the Iranian ESP class, both the teachers and the students use Farsi in an English class. However, English is more frequently used than Farsi. The teachers are aware of the disadvantages of the overuse of Farsi. They use it for explaining grammatical points and new words, managing classroom, explaining instructions and checking students' understanding.

Research questions

This study is aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What are the perspective and the attitude of ESP students towards employing Indonesian in ESP classroom?
2. To what extend is Indonesian used in Indonesian ESP classroom?

Significance of the study

The study provides the Indonesian ESP teachers with some insights on the use of the first language in their classroom. It helps them to design their teaching activity concerning their own context.

Methodology

This study employs both quantitative and qualitative methods. Mackay and Gass (2005) state that using multiple research methods and techniques are necessary regarding the complexity of second language classroom.

As many as 80 freshmen (62 male and 18 female) of 2013/2014 academic year in the Civil Engineering department participated in the study. They took English as one of the compulsory subjects on the first semester. It earned two credits and was held once a week for 90 minutes. They ranged in the age of 20 to 22. They shared the same first language, i.e. Indonesian. All of them had been studying English for more than six years.

A questionnaire was used in this study. It consists of eight multiple choice questions. The first three statements ask about the learners' attitude and their perspective on using Indonesian in their English class. The rest is about the extent of the first language use.

Data were collected during the first semester of the academic year 2013/2014 by distributing questionnaire. Following a brief explanation, the participants were given 10 minutes to answer the questionnaire.

Those data were supported by the explanation from the teacher as the qualitative data. The teacher-researcher gave the explanation on the use of the first language in the English class and her perspective on the matter.

Results and Discussion

The students' answers to the questionnaire were summarized and then supported by the explanation given by the teacher which served as qualitative data. The descriptions are presented in the order found in the questionnaire accordingly.

It was noted that the number of participants was 80, but at the time of the questionnaire distribution there was one student absent. So, hereon, the number of the participants referred to was 79.

The data showed that the students did not mind of the teacher's using Indonesian in their English class. Their answers varied but mostly agreed that the mixing between Indonesian and English was acceptable (Item #1). As many as 71 participants agreed on it, eight of them did not specify their answers and no one disagree.

However, they did not expect it to last for the whole term (Item #2). It showed that they were enthusiastic and motivated to learn. Sixty-nine participants agree on it, five disagreed and the last five did not specify their answers.

They strongly agreed that the mixed classroom language helped them on their understanding and comprehension on English such as grammatical items and expressions but

not on the content (Item #3 and 4). As many as 65 students agreed that the explanation should be focused on the grammatical items and unfamiliar expressions; they thought that they understood the content material better than the teacher who did not have the civil engineering background. The participants preferred having the teacher translating the grammatical items or unfamiliar expressions into Indonesian than having her explaining them in English (Item #5). This option was chosen by 70 participants. Four of them did not specify their answers and the rest disagreed on the matter.

The use of the first language is much less than that of English. Atkinson (1987) mentions that the use of the first language in an English setting should be no more than 5%. In this study, the teacher gradually reduced the use of the first language. At first, it was used for about half of the entire session, but then decreased to 5%-10% at the end of the semester (Item #6 and #7). This option was chosen by more than 60 participants. It showed the teacher hold the positive perspective that the first language should not be overused in an English class.

In those limited time, Indonesian language was used by the teacher for explaining grammatical points and expressions, managing classroom, explaining instructions, and checking students' understanding (Item #8). These functions were done on par, except for explaining grammatical points which emerged most frequently, which was 61 times. Other options earned 58, 48 and 25. These varied numbers existed as they were allowed to choose more than one given option. Although the participants had been studying English for more than six years, there were some who had poor understanding on the grammar, even for a very simple grammatical item.

It came to the conclusion that the use of Indonesian did not hinder the English learning because the teacher kept it on limited situation. Here, the use of the first language helps the learners in encountering their problem in the second language context.

The use of the first language in a second language setting is unavoidable. In this case, Indonesian is used to help the learners minimize their anxiety. It was caused by their lack of vocabulary and their poor proficiency in English. This situation was particularly hindered the learners who came from schools in the suburb areas of the town.

Conclusion

The analysis on the answer given by the participants to the first research question led to the conclusion that they had positive attitude and perspective on the use of Indonesian in their English class. They were sure that it helped them with their achievement in English subject particularly on the grammatical items and expressions. They were not sure it did so on their understanding on the content material due to the teacher's educational background. The Indonesian-English code mixing mostly emerged when the teacher gave explanation of unfamiliar words and expression using Indonesian.

The use of Indonesian was gradually reduced. It was more than half of the session at the beginning of the term and it became less than 10% at the end. This was done because the teacher was aware of the disadvantages of the overuse of the first language in a second language classroom. The results showed that the teacher used Indonesian for explaining grammatical points and expressions, managing classroom, explaining instructions, and checking students' understanding.

References

Al-Nofaie, H. (2010). The attitudes of teachers and students towards using Arabic in EFL classrooms in Saudi public schools: a case study. *Novitas-RoyaL (Research on Youth and Language), 4* (1), 64-95 retrieved on January 2, 2014 from http://www.novitasroyal.org/Vol_4_1/al-nofaie.pdf

Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: A neglected resource? *ELT Journal*, *41*(4), 241-247.

Jafari, Sayed Mohammad and Nasrin Shokrpour. (2013). The Role of L1 in ESP Classroom: A Triangulated Approach. *International Journal of English and Education*. Volume 2, pp 90-104 retrieved on January 20, 2014 from http://ijee.org/yahoo_site_admin/assets/docs/9.17210125.pdf

Kim Anh, K. H. (2010). Use of Vietnamese in English language teaching in Vietnam: Attitudes of Vietnamese university teachers. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(2), 119-128 retrieved on January 2, 2014 from www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/download/5015/4912

Machaal, B. (2012). The use of Arabic in English classes: A teaching support or a learning hindrance? *Arab World English Journal 3*(2), 194-231.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: the uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4 (3), 251-274.

Cohesive Devices of Abstracts Used in International Seminar

Held by TEFLIN in 2010

Slamet Utomo
English Education department
Faculty of Teacher Training and education
University of Muria Kudus
Slamet_utomo16@yahoo.com

Abstract

Paper which is written can be understood well if it is written cohesively and coherently. But this is not always realized by writers. They usually write papers do not pay attention about the connection between one clause and the other clauses. Based on the condition may cause some readers confused because the papers are less cohesive or may be not cohesive any more. The research was conducted to see some cohesive devices of the abstracts used in International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010. The readers have complained that the abstracts are very confusing to understand.
The problem statements to which I wanted to find are:
1/ What kinds of grammatical cohesive devices are found in abstracts used in International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010 ?, 2/ what of kinds of lexical cohesive devices are found in abstracts used in International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010 ?,/ To what degree are those abstracts cohesive?

Keywords : Cohesive Devices, abstract, TEFLIN

Introduction

Message can be delivered well through a text if the text is easy to understand. Sometimes, readers are not easy to understand the written text because the quality of reading text is not good. Based on Halliday's book, a good reading text should fulfill the quality of reading text, namely Coherence and Cohesion. When we look at the quality of reading text above, I can say that the abstracts used in International seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010 may be less cohesive. It causes the readers difficult to understand those abstracts.

The condition why the readers are hard to understand those abstracts may be due to some reasons. One, I sometimes found the abstracts used in International Seminar less cohesive.

Two, I also still found there are some ambiguity words, especially in the form of references. Those references do not refer to anything or anyone. They are called exophoric references. Halliday said that exophoric reference can create ambiguity and confusion. He also added that a text has exophoric reference, it is considered not a good text. To reduce confusion in understanding the abstracts, the cohesive devices can help the readers. Cohesive devices can be used to relate one clause to the other clauses in a text. The other quality of a good text is coherence. It means that a group sentences are inter relationship to each other. In this paper, I only pay attention on Cohesive Devises. Cohesion here can be Grammatical and Lexical devices.

Statements of the Problems

1. What kinds of grammatical cohesive devices used in the abstracts of International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010?
2. What kinds of lexical cohesive devices used in the abstracts of International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010?
3. To what degree are those abstracts cohesive?

Purposes of the Research

1. To find out kinds of grammatical cohesive devices used in the abstracts of International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010.
2. To find out kinds of grammatical cohesive devices used in the abstracts of International Seminar held by TEFLIN in 2010.
3. To describe the level of cohesiveness of those abstracts.

Kinds of Cohesive Devices

There are two kinds of cohesive devices, based on Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1989), they are:

1. Grammatical Cohesive Devices

   Grammatical Cohesive devices can be; reference, conjunction, substitution, and ellipsis

   Example : In Indonesia, where English is a foreign language, it has been reported to be in the implementation for about three decades.

   The word it refers to English. It is called anaphoric reference because it is preceded by by the word English.

2. Lexical Cohesive Devices

   Lexical Cohesive Devises can be; repetition, Synonym, Antonym, Hyponym, and Meronim.

   Example : They are our power of imagination, emphaty, sympathy, antipathy, feeling, and thinking.

   The four words emphaty, sympathy, antipathy, feeling and thinking belong to Hypony because they are the same class of the power of imagination. Those words belong to good lexical cohesive devices.

Research Findings

The findings are based on the analysis of kinds of cohesive devices of reading passages: i.e. 1) reference, 2) conjunction, 3) substitutions, 4) Ellipsis, 5) repetition, 6) synonym, 7) antonym, 8) hyponym, 9) meronym. The findings are also based on the analysis of level of cohesive devices of reading passages, i.e. 1)Grammatical and Lexical Devices, 2)Frequency of a per clause, 3) percentage of 1 entering in chains, 4) explicit lexical token, 5) cohesive interpreted lexical tokens, 6) total lexical tokens, 7) percentage of interpreted exophorically, and 9) percentage of 1 interpreted ambiguity.

Following are examples of each type of cohesive devices :

1. Compare to other literally works, drama is the most unique one, it is based on the definition that drama is made to be performed.

The word it refers to drama, it belongs to anaphoric reference.

2. This poor environment does not provide them with good inputs which they can use to filter or correct incorrect or inappropriate form,

The words them and they refer no ones before, they are called exophoric reference because they are not preceded nor followed by anyone. The cohesive devices like this will create the ambiguity, and this text is considered not a good text.

1. The number of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices found in those abstracts.

No	Items	Texts				
		A	B	C	D	E
1.	Grammatical and lexical devices	13	12	10	11	16
2.	Frequency of 1 per clause	0.6	10.7	0.6	07	0.6
3.	Percentage of 1 entering in chain	8.5	21	7	7.5	7.5
4.	Explicit interpreted lexical tokens	15	5	14	18	23
5.	Cohesive interpreted lexical tokens	22	32	26	22	34
6.	Total lexical tokens	36	35	41	40	54
7.	5 percentage of 6	28	43	32	26	32
8.	Percentage of 1 interpreted anaphorically	67	88	98	75	81
9.	Percentage of 1 interpreted exophorically	33	12	2	25	19
10.	Percentage of 1 interpreted ambiguous	2	-	-	-	-

Based on the table above, we can see that the most cohesive abstract is abstract C. It has 98% anaphoric references, whereas the exophoric references is 2 %. According to Halliday and Hasan that the text is considered cohesive if the text has more anaphoric references than exophoric ones. Besides that reason, the abstract C is the most cohesive among 5 abstracts because there are some reasons (1) it has more anaphoric references than exophoric ones, (2) it has more anaphoric of cohesive ties, co-referntiality than exophoric ones, (3) this abstract covers all kinds of cohesive ties devices, (4) this abstract does not create confusion and ambiguity.

When we see the table above, the least cohesive abstract is abstract A, This abstract has most exophoric references (33%) among the 5 abstracts, whereas the anaphoric references only 67%, and the ambiguity is about 2%. This abstract is considered the least cohesive because there are some reasons; (1) this abstract is not cohesive in term of cohesive ties, co-referentiality, (2) this abstract is not good enough in term of cohesive ties, co-classification, (3) this abstract also has 2% ambiguity, it may create confusion.

2. The level of cohesiveness of 5 abstracts.

No	Text	Level	Anaphoric (%)	Exophoric (%)	Ambiguous (%)
1.	C	1	98	2	-
2.	B	2	88	12	-
3.	E	3	81	19	-
4.	D	4	75	25	-
5.	A	5	67	33	2

Based on the table above, we can see that the 5 abstracts (ABCDE) stated in the International Seminar held by TEFLIN 2010 respectively the everage score of anaphoric references : abstract C 98%, abstract B 88%, abstract E 81$, abstract D 75% and abstract A 67%. Based on Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan (1989) and also Garet and Wignel (1995), the most cohesive abstract is abstract C and the least cohesive abstract is abstract A. this text has the lowest anaphoric references and the highest exophoric references among the 5 abstracts.

Conclusions

1. Abstract which is considered cohesive, if clauses, sentences, and also paragraphs in a text are linked to each other. Those clauses, sentences and paragraphs are tied together by using cohesive ties devices, they are grammatical cohesive devices (references, conjunction, substitutions, and ellipsis), lexical cohesive devices (repetition, synonym, antonym, meronym and hyponym). Hopefully, that the text does not have exophoric references. A good text should have two requirements of a good reading passage, they are cohesion and coherence.
2. Abstract which has good requirement of good reading passage is abstract C, because it has more anaphoric references(98%) than exophoric one (2%), when we look at the table percentage of cohesive devices above, the abstract A is the least cohesive abstract because it has anaphoric references (67%), and exophoric references (33%), ambiguity (2%). It means that the text is hard to understand because those exophoric references may create ambiguity and confusion.

References

Couthard, M. 1986. *On composing and evaluating text.* The modern Language Journal. Vol.3 : 179 -187

Celce-Murcia, et al's.1995. *Communicative Competence : A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications.*The modern Language Journal Vol.6 : 10-11

Garot, Linda & Peter Wignell. 1995. *Making sense of functional grammar*. Sydney : Gerd Stabler

Halliday, M.A.K & Hasan, Ruqaiya. 1989. *Language, context*, and text : aspects of language in a social – semiotic perspective. Victori : Deakin University Press

Halliday, M.A.K & Hasan, Ruqaiya. 1994. *Cohesion in English*. Singapore: Longman Singapore Publisher (Pte) Ltd.

The Use of Multiple Intelligences on Teaching Writing to University Students

Fibriani Endah Widyasari, Erna Dewi Kartikasari
English Department of Widya Dharma University, Klaten
fibri.feelgood@gmail.com, ed.kartikasari@gmail.com

Abstract

Rather than a single intelligence, all human beings possess all eight intelligences in varying degrees, these intelligences include, logical-mathematical, linguistic, musical, spatial, kinaesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. Based on the human ability, it can be seen that each individual has a different intelligence profile, education can be improved by assessment of students' intelligence profiles and designing activities accordingly, each intelligence occupies a different area of the brain, the eight intelligences may operate in consort or independently from one another, and these eight intelligences may define the human species. Regarding to the education can be improved by using the eight intelligences, in this article the writers will show how Multiple Intelligences theory can be applied in the English language classroom, specifically in teaching Writing. The benefits of adapting Multiple Intelligences can be seen from the teaching and learning activities that involve the university students who characteristically as the part of monotonous teaching and learning in developing their eight intelligences at the same time to enhance their achievement on writing skill. This article will describe the university students' learning engagement by infusing the study of words with imagery, logic, oral language, physical activity, emotion, music, social involvement, and nature experiences.

Keywords: multiple intelligences, teaching writing, university students

Introduction

In this article the writers describe the use of Multiple Intelligences (MI) and its implementation in teaching writing activities. First of all, it is very important to define the intelligence itself. Intelligence is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge, information and skills. It usually works together in complex ways (Armstrong, 2000). In addition (Gardner in Armstrong, 2000) said that intelligence as describe a fiction, that is, no intelligence exists by itself in life (except perhaps in very rare instances in the definition of MI. It is obvious that MI

is not "type theory" for determining the one intelligence that fits (Armstrong, 2000). Furthermore, he also said that Multiple Intelligences is a theory cognitive functioning, and it purposes that each person has capacities in all eight intelligences and it is unique to each person. The eight intelligences are commonly called Multiple Intelligences and consist of logical-mathematical, linguistic, musical, spatial, kinaesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. As a proven argument (Gardner in Armstrong, 2000) said that virtually everyone has the capacity to develop all eight intelligences to a reasonably high level of performance if given the appropriate encouragement, enrichment, and instruction. Armstrong (2000) said that the intelligences have been taken out of context in MI theory only for the purpose of examining their essential features and learning how to use them effectively. One's of the key point in MI theory according Armstrong (2000), that there is no standard set of attributes that one must have to be considered intelligent in a specific area. Consequently, a person may not be able to read, yet be highly linguistics because he can tell a terrific story or has a large oral vocabulary and write different story without learning writing technique. It is very clear that human beings are able to enhance their ability of both oral and written language by developing their intelligences.

In applying MI theory in teaching writing likes the Armstrong (2000) said that MI theory has the rich diversity in such ways. In his book, Armstrong (2000) also made the point that before applying any model of learning in a classroom environment, people should first apply it to them as educators and adult learners, unless they have an experiential understanding of the theory and having personalized its content. University students as the adult learners have always been set as the monotonous and self-learners who must be able to provide the learning needs by their selves, but it is very possible for them to learn using particular teaching method such as MI. According to Brown (1994: 94):

Adults have superior cognitive abilities that can render them a bit more successful in certain classroom endeavours. In addition, adults are more readily able to handle abstract rules and concepts; have longer attention spans for material that may not be intrinsically interesting to them; often bring a modicum of general self-confidence into a classroom; and with their more developed abstract thinking ability, are better to take a context-reduced segment of language and understand it.

It is clearly that MI theory not only gives the chance to the university students to enrich their intelligences but also the lecturers to develop much more innovation activities in their teaching and learning process, by applying MI theory, the teachers must be able to create various teaching activities to encourage and develop eight intelligences in the same time while delivering writing materials.

Having considered all aspects above, it is expected to have some outputs for the lecturers on teaching and learning activities. Based on the statements above there is such view of what MI is. Somehow, teaching and learning writing creatively and innovatively by using MI is very essential point that the writers want to describe. Furthermore, Raimes (1983) point out that writing helps the students learn something. In this point, when peoples write, they are necessarily very involved with the written language and are challenged to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. By implementing the MI they are also forced to activate their intelligences and involving with various learning activities in developing and enhancing their ability on writing skill. The university students are engaged in teaching and learning activities by infusing the study of words with imagery, logic, oral language, physical activity, emotion, music, social involvement, and nature experiences.

Discussion

The Multiple Intelligences

Theory of Multiple Intelligences emphasizes on cognitive and developmental psychology, anthropology, and sociology to explain the human intellect. The theory was

introduced in 1983, with Gardner's book, *Frames of Mind*. Gardner's research consisted of brain research and interviews with stroke victims, prodigies, and individuals with autism. Based on his findings, Gardner established eight criteria of intelligences. The eight criteria used by Gardner to identify the intelligences are listed below:

1. Isolation by brain damage/neurological evidence
2. The existence of prodigies, idiot savants, and exceptional individuals
3. Distinguishable set of core operations
4. Developmental stages with an expert end state
5. Evolutionary history and plausibility
6. Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system
7. Support from experimental psychological tasks
8. Support from psychometric research

Gardner's theory challenges traditional and narrower views of intelligence. Previously accepted ideas of human intellectual capacity contend that an individual's intelligence is a fixed entity throughout his lifetime and that intelligence can be measured through an individual's logical and language abilities. According to Gardner's theory, intelligence encompasses the ability to create and solve problems, create products or provide services that are valued within a culture or society. He also adds that All human beings possess all nine intelligences in varying degrees; Each individual has a different intelligence profile; Education can be improved by assessment of students' intelligence profiles and designing activities accordingly; Each intelligence occupies a different area of the brain; The eight intelligences may operate in consort or independently from one another; These eight intelligences may define the human species. The eight intelligences introduced by Gardner are as follows:

1. **Verbal/Linguistic**

Verbal/Linguistic intelligence refers to an individual's ability to understand and manipulate words and languages. Everyone is thought to possess this intelligence at some level. This includes reading, writing, speaking, and other forms of verbal and written communication. Teachers can enhance their students' verbal/linguistic intelligence by having them keep journals, reports, genre based writing, play word games, and by encouraging discussion. People with strong rhetorical and oratory skills such as poets, song lyric, authors, and attorneys exhibit strong linguistic intelligence.

2. **Logical/Mathematical**

Logical/Mathematical intelligence refers to an individual's ability to do things with data: collect, and organize, analyze and interpret, conclude and predict. Individuals strong in this intelligence see patterns and relationships. These individuals are oriented toward thinking: inductive and deductive logic, numeration, and abstract patterns. They would be a contemplative problem solver; one who likes to play strategy games and to solve mathematical problems. Being strong in this intelligence often implies great scientific ability.

3. **Visual/Spatial**

Visual/Spatial intelligence refers to the ability to form and manipulate a mental model. Individuals with strength in this area depend on visual thinking and are very imaginative. People with this kind of intelligence tend to learn most readily from visual presentations such as movies, pictures, videos, and demonstrations using models and props. They like to draw, paint, or sculpt their ideas and often express their feelings and moods through art. These individuals often daydream, imagine and pretend. They are good at reading diagrams and maps and enjoy solving mazes and jigsaw puzzles. Lecturers can develop this intelligence by providing charts, graphs, diagrams, graphic

organizers, videotapes, colour, art activities, doodling, microscopes and computer graphics software. It could be characterized as right-brain activity.

4. **Bodily/Kinaesthetic**

Bodily/Kinaesthetic intelligence refers to people who process information through the sensations they feel in their bodies. These people like to move around, touch the people they are talking to and act things out. They are good at small and large muscle skills; they enjoy all types of sports and physical activities. They often express themselves through dance. Lecturers may encourage development in this area of intelligence through the use of touching, feeling, movement, improvisation, "hands-on" activities, permission to squirm and wiggle, facial expressions and physical relaxation exercises.

5. **Naturalistic**

Naturalistic intelligence is seen in someone who recognizes and classifies plants, animals, and minerals including a mastery of taxonomies. They are holistic thinkers who recognize specimens and value the unusual. They are aware of species such as the flora and fauna around them. They notice natural and artificial taxonomies such as dinosaurs to algae and cars to clothes. Teachers can best foster this intelligence by using relationships among systems of species, and classification activities. Encourage the study of relationships such as patterns and order, and compare-and-contrast sets of groups or look at connections to real life and science issues.

6. **Musical Intelligence**

Musical intelligence refers to the ability to understand, create, and interpret musical pitches, timbre, rhythm, and tones and the capability to compose music. Lecturers can integrate activities into their lessons that encourage students' musical intelligence by playing music for the class and assigning tasks that involve students creating or writing lyrics about the material being taught. Composers and instrumentalists are individuals with strength in this area.

7. **Interpersonal**

Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to interpret and respond to the moods, emotions, motivations, and actions of others. Interpersonal intelligence also requires good communication and interaction skills, and the ability show empathy towards the feelings of other individuals. Lecturers can encourage the development of Interpersonal Intelligences by designing lessons that include group work and by planning cooperative learning activities.

8. **Intrapersonal**

Intrapersonal Intelligence is the ability to know oneself. It is an internalized version of Interpersonal Intelligence. To exhibit strength in Intrapersonal Intelligence, an individual must be able to understand their own emotions, motivations, and be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses. Lecturers can assign reflective activities, such as journaling to awaken students' Intrapersonal Intelligence. It is important to note that this intelligence involves the use of all others. An individual should tap into their other intelligences to completely express their Intrapersonal Intelligence.

Teaching Writing

Writing will be used as a generic term to refer to all the various activities that involves transferring thought through paper. Writing that focuses primarily on the conventions of language form, i.e. grammatical or lexical structures will be termed transcription. The term composition will refers to the skills involved in effectively developing and communicating an idea or making a point. (Lee & Vanpatten, 1995: 30). People may not have written anything in the past week, but possibly they have written a shopping list, a postcard, a birthday card, some emails, your diary, or maybe a story. If they are studying, perhaps they have written an

essay. All of those examples of written text types that involve different kinds of writing, e.g. single words only, short sentences or long sentences, paragraphs, special layouts, etc that show different ways of ordering information. When people learn to write, they need to learn how to deal with the different writing features.

Writing is transforming thoughts into language; it means that it is needed to think about the content of the writing first and then arrange the ideas using appropriate language (e.g. grammar and vocabulary). According to Nunan (2003: 88) writing is the mental work of inventing ideas, thinking about how to express them, and organizing them into statements and paragraph that will be clear to reader. Consequently it is must to learn about organizational skills in writing. Writing involves several sub-skills. Some of those are related to accuracy, i.e. using the correct forms of language. Writing accurately involves spelling, forming letters, punctuating, using correct layouts, using grammar, joining sentences and using paragraphs correctly, choosing the right vocabulary, and writing legibly.

However, writing is not just about accuracy. It is also about having a message and communicating it successfully to other people. To do this, it is necessary to have enough ideas, organise them well and express them in an appropriate style.

> Written texts are usually more structured than spoken texts (with possible exceptions such as formal speeches which however often exist in written form as well). “Writing demands a greater degree of explicitness, since writers and their readers are separated in time and space. They therefore can’t rely on immediate feedback in order to clear up misunderstandings.” (Thornbury, 2008: 2).

While According to Hyland (2002: 1) writing is central to our personal experience and social identities and we are often evaluated by our control of it.

Considering the complexity and difficulties faced by people on writing, they have many reasons to increase their writing ability in order to share their ideas. According to Harmer (2003: 251-253) There are a number of reasons that students find particular production language such as writing is difficult, especially with tasks at the communicative end of the communication continuum as follows:

1. Language

Learners engaged in a productive task can become very frustrated when they just do not have the words or the grammar they need to express themselves. Sometimes, of course, they can research language they would like to use, but this can make writing a very cumbersome process, and in speaking such an options as anyway not available, at least not in spontaneous speech. There are a number of steps can take which will help students achieve success:

a. *Supply key language*: However, where speaking is concerned, we remember that language which students have only just met for the first time is often not available for instants use in spontaneous conversation.

b. *Plan activities in advance*: need to plan production activities that will provoke the use the use of language which they have had a chance to absorb at an earlier stage.

2. Topic and Genres

In order to write successfully it is very helpful if people know what they are talking about. Yet the variety in general English classroom sometimes means that students are at times expected to write about topics have little knowledge of.

When students with language limitations are asked to work with topics that do not interest them, perhaps in unfamiliar genres, and without the necessary information, then production activities suffer.

a. *Choose interesting topics*: the teacher should try and choose topics which our students will be interested in.

b. *Create interest in the topics*: we can create students' interest by talking about the topics and communicating enthusiasm.

c. *Activate schemata*: in the same way we create interest by giving students predictive tasks and interesting activities

d. *Vary topics and genres*: the way of countering student unfamiliarity with certain written and spoken genres is to make sure we expose them to the variety of different text types.

e. *Provide necessary information*: writing and speaking task we needs to ask ourselves which bits of information are absolutely essential for the task to be a success and then gain information to our students before they start.

3. Principles of teaching writing

Bryne (1988: 1) suggests the principles for teaching writing with the following points:

a. Teach students to write

Classroom writing tasks need to be set up in ways that reflect the writing process in good writers. We need to encourage our students to go through a process of planning, organizing, composing, and revising.

b. Provide adequate and relevant experience of the written language.

Care is needed in the selection of text types for both reading and writing, always bearing in mind that students can usually read language that is more advanced than they can produce.

c. Show students how the written language function as a system of communication.

When setting writing tasks, teachers need to vary the audience, identify who the readers are to be, and try to make every piece of writing fulfil some kind of communicative purpose, either real or simulated, when students understand the context they are much likely to write effectively.

d. Teach students how to write texts.

Unless you encourage the production of whole texts, you will not have the opportunity to teach all the important features that can help to make a text coherent.

e. Teach students different kinds of texts.

Students need opportunities to practice various forms and functions in writing and within these to develop the different skills involved in producing written texts.

f. Make writing tasks realistic and relevant.

Classroom writing tasks should reflect the ultimate goal of enabling students to write whole texts which form connected, conceptualized, and appropriate pieces of communication.

g. Integrate writing with other skills.

It will be better if teachers design a task or activities in which we integrate writing with other skills. For example when we ask students to listen to an English song, we can provide a worksheet in which the students will try to complete the missing words.

h. Use a variety of techniques and practice format.

Teachers need to provide various writing activities from the controlled writing to the guided writing until free writing. Each activity will need different techniques and practice. Collaborative writing in the classroom generates discussions and activities which encourage an effective process of writing.

i. Provide appropriate support.

The process of marking, with its traditional focus on error-correction by the teacher needs review and modification into a range of activities involving students as well s teachers, thus making revision an integral part of the process of writing.

In addition, Harmer (2003) stated the reason for teaching writing to the students of English as a foreign language include reinforcement, language development, learning style and, most importantly, writing as a skill in its own right.

Reinforcement: some students acquire languages in a purely oral/ aural way, but most of us benefit greatly from seeing the language written down. The visual demonstration of language construction is invaluable for both our understanding of how it all fits together and as an aid to committing the new language to memory. Students often find it useful to write sentences using new language shortly after they have studied it.

Language development: we cannot be sure, but it seems that the actual process of writing (rather like the process of speaking) helps us to learn as we go along. The mental activity we have to go through in order to construct proper written texts is all part of the ongoing learning experience.

Learning style: some students are fantastically quick at picking up language just by looking and listening. For the rest of us, it may take a little longer. For many learners, the time to think things through, to produce language in a slower way, is invaluable. Writing is appropriate for such learners. It can also be a quite reflective activity instead of the rush and bother of interpersonal face to face communication.

Writing as a skill: by far the most important reason for teaching writing of course, is that it is a basic language skill, just as important as speaking, listening and reading. Students need to know how to write letters, how to put written reports together, how to reply to advertisements – and increasingly, how to write using electronic media. They need to know some of writing's special conventions (punctuation, paragraph construction etc.) just as they need to know how to pronounce spoken English appropriately. Part of our job is to give them that skill.

The Teaching Writing Activities by Using Multiple Intelligences

Writing is always being an interesting and challenging activity because of its various techniques and stages. In research writing, it is demanded for university students to enhance a critical writing ability which needed very high level writing skill and will get many benefits from it; allowed to take greater responsibility for their own material; promoted reflective thinking and questioning; and helped to make connections between events, people, and ideas. Students need to acquire writing requirements in developing their writing skill by providing various writing activities, material, media and topics. Classroom activities frequently activate and utilize more than one of the multiple intelligences. Now consider how lecturers would add to and interpret the items on the following list:

Table 1. Classroom activities for writing classified based on each intelligence

Class Activities	**Intelligences Involved**
Group discussion	Verbal-Linguistic; Interpersonal
Journal writing	Intrapersonal; Verbal/Linguistic
Constructing timelines	Logical-Mathematical; Visual-Spatial
Making a video script	Logical-Mathematical, Musical-Rhythmic; Verbal/Linguistic; Interpersonal; Visual-Spatial
Writing a report or essay	Verbal-Linguistic
Making graphs	Logical-Mathematical; Visual-Spatial
Designing posters	Verbal-Linguistic, Visual-Spatial
Communicating with peers or experts online	Verbal-Linguistic; Interpersonal
Presentation	Kinaesthetic; Logical/Mathematical
Composing a song	Musical/Rhythmic; Verbal-Linguistic

In the following table, Borek links types of intelligence to appropriate prewriting and writing activities for the persuasive essay:

Table 2. Classroom activities for teaching writing by using MI

Intelligence	**Persuasive Essay Activity**
Logical-Mathematical	Format rough draft as a series of questions and answers that flesh out both sides of the argument. The questions should follow logical pattern to lead through supporting ideas.
Linguistic	Create a poem for the outline of the argument. Sonnets and limericks have been the most popular.
Musical	Create a cassette tape of the argument. This tape can include sound bites from TV, radio, and Internet sites, as appropriate.
Spatial	Develop a persuasive computer document that leads to hyperlinks on the Internet.
Kinaesthetic	Role play positions, either verbally or through pantomime, dance, or puppet play.
Naturalistic	Focus on environmental topics. The teacher can provide student research not readily available through popular media.
Interpersonal	Create both sides of the argument that can then be debated in front of the class.
Intrapersonal	Draw mind map of two sides of a debate focusing on one's own emotions. Explore how the author of the other side might feel. Think about the topic from her point of view

The different classification of writing classroom activities by using Multiple Intelligences proposed by Bellamy and Baker (2005) which divide it into two learning centres can be seen in the following table:

Table 3. Classroom Application (Table added by Brandy Bellamy and Camille Baker, 2005 described in Giles, E. et al.)

Intelligences	**Teacher Centred**	**Student Centred**
Verbal/Linguistic	• Present content verbally • Ask questions aloud and look for student feedback • Interviews	• Student Presents Material • Students read content and prepare a presentation for his/her classmates • Students debate over an issue
Logical/Mathematical	• Provide brain teasers or challenging questions to begin lessons. • Make logical connections between the subject matter and authentic situations to answer the question "why?"	• Students categorize information in logical sequences for organization. • Students create graphs or charts to explain written info. • Students participate in web quests associated with the content
Bodily/Kinaesthetic	• Use props during lecture • Provide tangible items pertaining to content for students to examine • Review using sports related examples (throw a ball to someone to	• Students use computers to research subject matter. • Students create props of their own explaining subject matter (shadow boxes, mobiles, etc.) • Students create review games.

	answer a question)	
Visual/Spatial	• When presenting the information, use visuals to explain content:</br> • PowerPoint Slides, Charts, Graphs, cartoons, videos, overheads, smart boards	• Have students work individually or in groups to create visuals pertaining to the information: • Posters; timelines; models; power point slides; maps; illustrations, charts; concept mapping
Musical	• Play music in the classroom during reflection periods • Show examples or create musical rhythms for students to remember things	• Create a song or melody with the content embedded for memory • Use well known songs to memorize formulas, skills, or test content
Interpersonal	• Be aware of body language and facial expressions • Offer assistance whenever needed • Encourage classroom discussion	• Encourage collaboration among peers • Group work strengthens interpersonal connections • Peer feedback and peer tutoring • Students present to the class • Encourage group editing
Intrapersonal	• Encourage journaling as a positive outlet for expression • Introduce web logging (blogs) • Make individual questions welcome • Create a positive environment.	• Journaling • Individual research on content • Students create personal portfolios of work
Naturalistic	• Take students outside to enjoy nature while in learning process (lecture) • Compare authentic subject matter to natural occurrences. • Relate subject matter to stages that occur in nature (plants, weather,	• Students organize thoughts using natural cycles • Students make relationships among content and the natural environment (how has nature had an impact?) • Students perform community service

etc)

Those three tables suggested can be used for teacher on making creative activities on teaching writing based on MI theory that can provoke students to actively involve on it and activate their eight intelligences in enhancing their writing skill. Lecturers can enclose the essential theory of writing in those various activities and grasp them into critical writing proportion with excitement.

Conclusion

Multiple Intelligences can be used to creating various activities to develop university students' intelligences in order to enhancing writing skill. Using Multiple Intelligences theory in the classroom has many benefits:

- There are many ways to the lecturers in delivering material to learners and making them to be smart.
- All forms of intelligence which learners have are equally celebrated.
- A sense of increased self-worth may be seen as students build on their strengths and work towards becoming an expert in certain areas.
- Students may develop strong problem solving skills that they can use real life situations.

The principle advantages that can be reached from using MI in teaching writing are students can use the different teaching material, topics, and media in awaking their intelligences to support their writing skill with excitement. The university students can express their ideas confidently using various writing activities and styles.

References

Armstrong, Thomas. (2000). Multiple Intelligences In The Classroom 2nd Edition. Virginia: ASDC.

Borek, Jeniffer (2003). Inclusion and the Multiple Intelligences: Creating a Student-Centred Curriculum. The quarterly. Vol 20. N0:4

Brown, H. Douglas. 1994. *Teaching by Principle*: *An Interactive Approach to language Pedagogy*. New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs

Bryne, Adam. 1988. *Good Writing*. (http://www.educ.ar/). Saturday, 5th February 2014, at 20.45.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: the theory of Multiple Intelligences*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Giles, E., Pitre, S., Womack, S. (2003). *Multiple intelligences and learning styles*. In M. Orey (Ed.), Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching, and technology. Retrieved <February 6 2014>, from http://projects.coe.uga.edu/epltt/.

Hyland, K. 2002. ***Second Language Writing.*** Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Harmer, Jeremy. 2003. ***The Practice of English Language Teaching***. London: Cambridge University Press.

Lee, J.F & Vanpatten, B. 1995. ***Grammar and Second Language Teaching.*** New York: McGraw Hill.

Nunan, D. 2003. ***Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom***. Cambridge: CUP.

Thornbury, Steven. 2008. ***Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice***. http://www.professorjackrichards.com/pdfs/teaching-listening-and-speaking-from-theory-to-practice.pdf. (Downloaded on February 6, 2014).

Nurturing Students' Survival in Communication: An Enhanced Aspect in Communicative Language Classroom

Marwito Wihadi
LBPP-LIA Bandung Branch
m_wihadi@yahoo.com

Abstract

Attending conversation class requires students coming from diverse backgrounds interact so as to attain communicative competence. On the basis of questionaires and deep interviews on 16 participants , the emphasis of strategic competence as one of communicative competence aspects stemming from classroom activities is highlighted. Hence, this paper revealed how to nurture students' strategic competence as one of resolving ways to deter from communication breakdowns referring to a number of previous studies and writer's reflections of years teaching conversation in non-formal education settings. Customizing the topics and benefiting their various personal backgrounds may lead to real-world communication in the classrooms. It is expected that the shared ideas and practical findings enhance our insights of pedagogical agility to nuture conversation class as an ESP program.

Keywords: Interaction, Communicative Competence, Communication Strategies, Conversation Class

Background

Conversation Class (CV) is one of Language programs offered to cater the learning participants' needs to be proficient in oral communication. It comprises six levels: CV 1 – CV 6. Typically, learning participants are from a number of state-owned and private universities in Bandung, majoring diverse fields of study. Rarely do I have high school students or other professions, such as housewives, goverment employees, policemen, etc. In other words, CV classes, although designed to cater students with any professions, are occupied by homogeous background: college students with diverse majors.

Referring to the books themselves in details, each consists of eight lessons and two reviews. One lesson contains **Warm Up** get ready for the lesson, **Say it smoothly** to show the model dialogs and to give practice, **Let's Do it** to provide real-life situations for futher practice, and **Toolbox** to reinforce grammar. These are aimed at improving students' conversational skills in English required for for present or future jobs, especially in multi-national companies (LBPP-LIA, 2007).Likewise, the purpose of language is shifted from langauge as a subject and langauge as a service (Robinson, 1980 in Mcdonough, 1984).

Conversation (CV) book highlights the fuctional sylabus, the content of language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used or of the notions that language is used to express (Krahnke, p.10, 1987). Examples of functions include: agreeing, apologizing, requesting, promising, and so on, also examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on. (ibid).

Having taught conversation classes for years and had informal talks with those experienced in teaching this language programs, two major challenges confronted: the monotonous topics and students' reluctance to talk in English. It is a fact that the topics are of boredom as all language functions are geared to function in workplace situations, deliberately intended by the book writer team to emphasize a particular need of students via language as a servive as one of the ESP essences (Dudley-evans, 1988). Thus, I planned to find out their strategic behaviors that learners (CV-2) use when facing communication during interactional tasks; this is *oral communication strategies (OCS*) mainly focus on (Nakatani, 2006). From their reflection, the obvious description of *communication strategies* is revealed, then pedagogical suggestions are unleashed.

Students' Reflections

There is no any empirical and formal research profiling Conversation Class Students yet. Even, up to know, any activities reflecting, then figuring out their problems in oral communication problems have not been conducted. Subsequently, no empirical interviews digging up their strategies as they are engaged in oral communication in English. Hence, the questionairre of OCSI (Oral Communication Strategi Inventory) pedagogically designed by Nakatani (2006) was used as well as semi-structured interview seeking their oral communication strategies in depth. These instruments were employed as to cater empirical data so that teachers' pedagogically profound roles shall be implemented.

The questionairres were ditributed in the sixth session of the term (one term consists of 20 sessions) so that the data of their strategies are revealed. As investigating their communication, two broad aspects include,namely *Stratgies for Coping with Speaking Problems (32 items)* and *Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems (26 items)* as speaking and listening are intertwined in oral communication (In order to find out which items belong to which factor, please visit <u>*http://old.fltrp.com/*</u> *wyzx/07techer/doc/papers/Developing an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory.pdf*).

Futhermore, 16 participants of conversation 2 (CV-2), 14 college students from various majors aged 18-24 years old, one architect (26), and one retire (56) from two classes were requested to fill in questionnaires. Before hand, the teacher explained what they had to do in *bahasa*, then letting them know any responses just described themselves. In details, they write a certain number responding to the stataments: 1. *Never or almost never true of me* ;2. *Generally not true of me;* 3. *Somewhat true of me* ;4. *Generally true of me* ;5. *Always or almost always true of me.*Now, let's take a look at the tapestry of students' oral strategies as follow:

Table 1
Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems

FACTORS	RESPONSES				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1: Social Affecetive	0.*	8.3	32.3	42.7	16.7
Factor 2: Fluency Oriented	0.0	4.2	41.7	40.7	13.5
Factor 3: Negotiatiation for meaning while speaking	0.0	1.6	32.8	50.0	15.6
Factor 4: Acuracy Oriented	0.0	18.8	38.8	32.5	10.0
Factor 5: Message reduction and alternation	0.0	2.1	35.4	43.8	18.8
Factor 6: Non verbal Strategies while speaking	0.0	6.3	34.4	43.8	15.6
Factor 7: Message abandonment	6.3	10.9	28.1	40.6	14.1
Factor 8: Attempt to think in English	0.0	3.1	34.4	56.3	6.3

N= 16 *= in percentage

Based on the data deriving from table 1, it was plausibly drawn a conlusion that the majority of the participants responded that *it was generally true and alwayas or almost always that they attempted to think in English* (62.6%) so that *they made use of social affective strategies* (59.4%) and *non verbal strategies while speaking* (59.4%) to get their messages across. Subsequently, to get through the messages successfully, most of them *practiced negotiation for meaning while speaking* (65.6%). It was found that *they possibly ragarded both fluency and accury essential* as its respective perncetage was dominant.

However, most of them reflected that *they generally and always or almost always had problems in conveying the messages so that they had to reduce and alter them* (62.6%). Even, it was likely that they *abandoned the messages* as they gave up posing them to their interlocutors (54.7%). As the first collumn – itdescribed that it was never or always never true of them- it was mostly none described themselves relative to the seven factors. Likewise, they utilized all available and plausible strategies to handle with speaking problems despite mere a

minority of them self-reflected that *they make it to continue conveying the messages so that they DO NOT abandon them* (17.2%).

Table 2
Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems

FACTORS	RESPONSES				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1: Negotiation for meaning while listening	5.0*	6.3	23.8	47.5	17.5
Factor 2: Fluency-maintaining strategies	3.8	6.3	43.8	35.0	11.3
Factor 3: Scanning Strategies	3.1	3.1	37.5	45.3	10.9
Factor 4: Getting the gist strategies	3.1	10.9	40.6	39.1	6.3
Factor 5: Non verbal strategies while listening	3.1	6.3	18.8	50.0	21.9
Factor 6: Less active listener strategies	3.1	12.5	50.0	28.1	6.3
Factor 7: Word-oriented strategies	0.0	3.1	29.7	54.7	12.5

N = 16 * in percentage

In interactional tasks, strategies to comprehend interlocutors' talks play an important role as well. What can we draw a conlusion from the above table is that half of them reflected that they employed strategies confirming *it was somewhat true* that *they were less active listeners* (50%) despite the fact that *most of them confirmed that it was geneally true of them or always or almost always true of them that they still negotiated the meaning while they were listening* (65%). It was a pity that most of them generally or always or almos always t*relied on words to comprehend interlocutors' talk* (67.2%).

In addition, interviews were conducted on agreed schedules; the 16 students were voluntarily interviewed in *bahasa*. Prior to the agenda, they were notified that their true reponses or answers would not affect their promotion. If they were reluctant to interview due any constraints, they were cordially permitted to self-withdraw. Theye were interviewed to find out (their) problems in sepaking and listening, as well as (their) solutions to cope the problems despite their language deficiency. All the interview results were transcribed and read more than once to gain better and holistic understanding. Then, they were condensed involving an abridgment of the meanings utteredby the interviewees into shorter formulation, *meaning condensation* (Kvale, 1996). It was succinctly stated that *when conveying the messages, they attempted to do it in target language by changing or simplifying them although they ended up unfinished due to defiecient necessary vocabulary.* Also, it was profoundly condensed that *as comprehending the talk, they capitalized themselves with any contexts helping them to decipher the messages eventhough they adequately relied on word-meaning strategies, but less active as listeners to have better understanding.*

Referring to the conluded findings from, in particular, table as well as the condensed meanings of speaking difficulties and strategies specifically, the possible scenario to develope strategies for communication is to be implemented. Hence, the next part is concerning the elaborated concepts of strategic competence in which teachers own their pedagogic roles to nurture them among students'.

Strategic Competence and Teachers' Nurturing Roles

Conversation Skills as intended by the book writes are essentially in line with communicative competence, particularly verbal/oral competence. Three categorization of communicative competence: *Grammatical,Sociolinguistic* and *Strategic Competence* (Canale & Swain, 1980). The last competence, *Strategic one* which is highlighted in the paper, is defined as *Strategic Competence is defined as verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for breakdown in communication* (ibid). This encourages students, in particular, use English as a medium of communication despite their lack of proficiency. Furthermore, a typology of communication strategies was enacted: *Pharaprase (approximation, word coinage,& circumlocution), Borrowing (literal translation & language switch), Appeal for Assistance, Mime, and Avoidance (topic avoidance & message abandonment)* (Tarone, 1980 in Lukmana, 1996). It is argued that learners can improve communicative proficiency by

developing an ability to use specific communication strategies enabling them to compensate for their target language deficiency (Bialystok, 1990).

Then, what should the teachers do to nurture students' strategic competence? It is argued that

Teachers put the learners into simulated *communicative situations* where they have to take a risks so as to facilitate the development of communication strategies and expose the learners to *communicative situations* (Schmidt, 1983). The communicative situastions according to Grant (1987) are the ones reflecting the students' interests and needs (customizing); emphasizing the communicative functions of the language; encouraging works in group or pair; promoting real-life purposes and endorsing information-gap.

The writer would propose to customize the students' needs and interests by seeking, cultivating extra materials e.g. *speaking solutions* (Matthews, 1994) in which the objective(s) of language functions and expressions are incorporated in the interactional activities in the classroom. Besides, to value students' presence with different majors and backgrounds may trigger the endorsement of information gap-activity. For example, a moment as talking about stuff to bring and to mention a price, confidently he –the one who loves camping and mount-climbing- told the price ranges of *forestry hat* and preponderantly he uttered the reasons why they should buy such stuff while two week-vacation in an isolated island.

Conclusion

Having behavioral facts from OCSI and condensed-meaning from interviews, teachers in Conversation Class in which the functional sylabus is the used one, the boredom of the topic and students' seemingly lethargy to talk shall be coped by facilitated them with communicative situasions. Therefore, the intention to nurture students' competence shall be much endorsed.

References

Bialystok, E. (1990). *Communication Strategies.* Oxford, UK: Basil, Blackwell

Canale, M. & Swain,M. (1980). Theoritical bases for communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics* 1 (1): 1-47.

Dudley-evans, T. (1988).*Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Grant,N. (1987). *Making the most of your Textbook.* New York: Longman.

Krahnke, K. (1987). *Approaches to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching.* New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, INC.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. London: SAGE Publication.

LBPP-LIA (2007). *Conversation in English 2.* Jakarta: LBPP-LIA Publisher.

Lukmana, I. (1996). *Communication Strategies in L1 and L2.* A Thesis for MA degree, Faculty of Arts, Deakin University, Melbourne.

Matthews, C. (1994). *Speaking Solutions*: *Interaction, Presentation, Listening and Pronounciation Skills*. Prentice Hall Regents. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

McDonough, J. (1984). *ESP in Perspective: A Pratical Guide.* London and Glasgow: Collins ELT.

Nakatani, Y. (2006). *Developing an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory*.[Online]. Available:http://old.fltrp.com/wyzx/07techer/doc/papers/Developing an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory.pdf. Accessed on December 4th 2013.

Developing Intercultural Awareness in the Business English Classroom

Andreas Winardi
Duta Wacana Christian University, Yogyakarta
aw_ukdw@yahoo.com

Abstract

We live in a multicultural world. As a result, we often have to deal with people from a different culture. This is not easy since we may have very different ways of thinking and doing things from the people we meet. What is considered good in our culture may mean opposite somewhere else. The understanding of cultural distinctions is very crucial in the business world. According to Blanchard (1997:202) "Those who understand the culture are more likely to develop successful, long-term business relationships", while "business executives who are not alert to cultural differences simply cannot function efficiently overseas."Considering the significant contribution of understanding cultural differences to successful business endeavour, the teachers of Business English need to equip their students with knowledge and strategies that they can use to cope with cultural diversity. In this paper, the writer discusses some activities that can be used to develop students' intercultural awareness.

Keywords: multicultural world, intercultural awareness

Introduction

Why should culture be integrated with the teaching of language in the business classroom? One important argument presented by Neff and Rucynski (2013: 12) is that merely knowing the language is inadequate to interact successfully with business people from other cultures. This is because each culture has their own rules regarding acceptable/unacceptable behaviour. Breaking the rules may cause confusion, embarrassment, and huge losses. Therefore, in order to communicate effectively with foreign partners, Business English students need to be equipped with both linguistic and intercultural competence. Blanchard (1997: 210) posited that "Understanding the language and culture of target markets in foreign countries is one of the keys to successful marketing"

Blanchard (1997:212) gave an example of how a lack of understanding of other cultures can be problematic. A detergent company that tried to expand its business in the Middle East had to face the reality that its products weren't selling well. The company later found out that the decline in sales was caused by misinterpretation. The advertisement showed the picture of the product located between a pile of dirty clothes on the left, and the clean ones on its right. This made the Middle-East People who are accustomed to read from right to left assumed that the detergent turned their clean clothes into dirty ones. The example proved that it is necessary for the teachers of Business English to develop their students' intercultural awareness in order to avoid costly and fatal mistakes. Businessmen who are aware of cultural distinctions have a higher chance of growing their business than those who are not.

In some cultures, certain numbers, things or color are associated with death; therefore, it will be better if we avoid giving gifts that bring negative connotations. Le Baur (1997:58) listed some examples of gifts that may endanger a business relationship because they bring sad or uncomfortable feelings. They are as follows:

- In some parts of China, avoid giving clocks.
- In some parts of Japan, try not to give gifts in group of four.
- In some parts of France, chrysantemum is mostly used for funeral; hence, not suitable to be given as gifts.

Those warnings may prompt us to think that it will be safer for us to avoid presenting gifts. This is not always true since in some cultures, gifts are highly appreciated, and our business counterparts may feel offended if we fail to do so. One of the best ways to deal with this situation is by conducting research (through reading, browsing, or interviewing local people) before we start doing business with our foreign partners. Frendo (2005:113) suggested that it is necessary for Business English teachers to give their students intercultural trainings

so that the learners know how to deal with people who may have different ways of thinking, behaving, and doing things.

Activities to Develop Students' Intercultural Awareness

These activities are developed based on Pre-Reading, While-Reading and Post-Reading sequence of activities. The Pre-Reading activities are used to stimulate the students' interests about the topic; the second set of activities encourage learners to increase their knowledge of the subject; and the last one is the extended production task which is " not to focus on discreet language knowledge but rather on naturalistic language use and, to varying degrees involve performance in the target language" (Neff and Rucynski, 2013:14)

Pre-Reading Activities

1. Teacher demonstrates some gestures, and ask the students to write down their meanings.
2. Teacher explains that the meanings of the gestures can vary from culture to culture.
3. Distribute the International Gesture Dictionary written by Roger Axtell (as cited by Blanchard & Root, 1996: 11-13). The excerpt contains 32 gestures with their meanings. Axtell illustrated that one gesture can have different meanings in different places. For

[1] **Eyebrow Raise**: In Tonga, a gesture meaning "yes" or "I agree" In Peru, means "money" or "Pay me."

6 **Nose Tap**: In Britain, secrecy or confidentiality. In Italy, a friendly warning

example:

4. Divide the students into groups.
5. Each group makes a table and fills it with information they obtain from the dictionary.

Country (ies)	Gesture	Meaning (s)

- Tonga - Peru	Eyebrow raise	Yes/I agree Money/Pay me

Each group discussses 4-6 gestures depending on the number of groups.

6. Teacher invites each group to explain and perform the gestures in front of the class.

While-Reading Activities

1. Teacher explains that culture consists of "...product of human interaction, that is, the ideas shared by people in a particular society. It includes language, values, beliefs, rules, institutions and organization" (Applebaum, 1997:64, cited in Rini, 2005:102)
2. Distribute the text "Do's and Taboos" : Cultural Aspects of International Business written by M. Katherine Glover (in Blanchard & Root, 1997, pp. 201-207)
3. Teacher introduces the scanning technique, for example: to find the different meanings of number around the world, the students do not need to read the whole text; they just look for numbers and read the sentences around them.

   From the passage, for instance, the students learn the following fact:

- Number 7 is considered bad luck in Kenya, good luck in Czechoslovakia, and has magical connotations in Benin (p. 201)

4. Game: Teacher gives questions; the groups compete to answer by using scanning technique. For example:

   Question: What colour has a positive meaning in Denmark?

   Answer: Red (p. 202)
5. Teacher assigns a certain topic to each group, e.g.: greetings, gift-giving, punctuality, business style, etc.

6. Each group finds the information in the text, and then present what they learn in front of the class.

Post-Reading Activities

1. The students are divided into new groups consisting of 4-5 members.
2. The teacher explains that the groups will be given a situation, then they make a performance using the information that they have learned. It is important to note that the students need to extend the conversation by adding their own knowledge or experiences related to culture. Each group receives a card that could look something like this:

You are going to meet some foreign business people for the first time. Be , and follow their cultural rules. Since they are going to stay for a few days, n to them what they should/shouldn't do in your country.

The performances, then are followed by follow-up discussion. During the discussion, teacher has opportunities to develop students' awareness of cultural differences, and help them to become less ethnocentric. **Ethnocentricity** refers to "the judging of another culture using one's own standards and beliefs" (Frendo, 2005: 117). This attitude, of course, should not exist in intercultural business relationship.

Conclusion

Understanding cultural distinction is one of the keys for winning in the global marketplace. Business executives who value and respect cultural differences and are willing to behave according to the acceptable norms and behavior of a country are more likely to be successful in developing long term business relationships. On the other hand, businessmen who neglect the importance of learning something about the culture of a country before doing business there may not be able to see their business grows and thrives in that particular place.

As we can see, culture plays a very significant role in the business world. Therefore, it is of crucial importance for Business English Teacher to develop their students intercultural awareness. This can be done through various activities such as games, role plays and simulations. Those activities give the students intercultural experiences and since they involve emotions and interpersonal skills, the learners may not easily forget the message and may apply what they have learned in the marketplace.

References

Blanchard, K., and Root, C. 1996. *For Your information 2 : Intermediate Reading Skills*. NY: Addison Wesley Longman.

Blanchard, K., and Root, C. 1997. *For Your information 3 : High Intermediate Reading Skills*. NY: Addison Wesley Longman.

Frendo, E. 2005. *How to Teach Business English*. Edinburgh: Pearson Education Limited.

Le Baur, R. *Journeys Reading 2*. Hongkong: Prentice Hall Asia ELT.

Neff, P., and Rucynski, John Jr. Task for Integrating Language and Culture Teaching. *English Teaching Forum* 51(2): 12-21

Rini, Julia E. 2005. *Preserving Culture in Translation: Translator's Strategies in the Dancer*. A paper presented in an International Seminar held by the Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University on 13-14 January 2005.

Is Video Project Supportive to Linguistic and Non-Linguistic Skills?

Nanang Zubaidi
Universitas Islam Indonesia
nanang.zubaidi@uii.ac.id

Abstract

ESP instructors put more concerns on communicative competence. Thus, they seek to find teaching techniques which could promote student's productive skills. Traditionally, video project is used to encourage student's speaking performance. However, there is a demand for video project to be able to achieve more learning goals. The purpose of this study is to argue that video project could be supportive to ESP teaching, supported by previous research. Video project actually facilitates the teaching of linguistic and non-linguistic skills, such as collaborative work.

Keywords: Video project, ESP teaching, linguistic and non-linguistic skills, collaborative work

Introduction

There are many English learners are learning English for Specific Purpose (ESP) recently. In opposite to general English (English studied by English students), many ESP instructors are mainly focused on training learner's productive skills of language, especially speaking. To do so, instructors create many teaching techniques to train students' speaking skill and utilize technology to aid learner's English mastery, including video. Compared to traditional listening task using audio player, video provides picture and voice that help learners to hear and see the speaker and the surrounding environment in the video. The visualization in video helps the reader to better understand the context. Learners who cannot get the meaning by listening can understand the context by watching video which shows feelings and emotions elicited by speakers.

Video project is becoming increasingly popular in language teaching because video technology becomes more and more accessible for language learners. The development of digital video technology and media sharing such as Youtube and other video sharing websites give a straightforward process for learners and instructors to produce their own videos and use it for class tasks and training learners' language skills. Video can be produced easily using simple video hardware (such as video camera, digital camera, webcam, or even handphone), other camera hardware (tripod, microphone, etc.), and computer hardware and software. There are many digital video tools available for video makers. Learners today tend to choose learning styles which emphasize on the use of technology. The video components thus potentially provide a best fit to the characteristics of internet generation today (Berk, 2009:1). Therefore, video project should be utilized as a major resource for developing learners' language skills to increase learners' success.

This paper hence aims to review whether video project could be supportive to facilitate the teaching of linguistic and non-linguistic skills, to engage learners in collaborative work. 62 first year Indonesian students of law department taking ESP Law course worked in groups of 5-8 learners to produce a 4 minute video titled "things learners learned in the university". The video project is integrated with progress report writing, reflective writing, and oral presentation. Learners submitted two progress reports in week 2 and 4. In week 6, learners made an oral presentation discussing: 1) what the video was about, 2) who acted as whom, and 3) messages/values they intended to propose. After oral presentation, each learner wrote a reflective writing discussing about: 1) what his/her individual responsibility and contribution in the video, 2) video production process, and 3) what they planned to improve in the future video project assignment. The video project took 6 weeks. Learners' data are mainly collected through observation and post-project survey. Learners' progress report and reflective writing assignment are also assessed as part of this study.

Discussion

Video Project Support to ESP Teaching

Video project is supportive for ESP learners because it provides extra features which can help improving learner's language comprehension. Previous studies documented by Shrosbree (2008:75-76) and Nikitina (2010:22-23) highlight the positive effects of video project in language teaching, including:

1. Video provides a chance for learners to look at the discourse context, speaker's body language, and other visual aids to comprehension (Shrosbree, 2008:75).
2. Video enhances learner autonomy and confidence (Charge & Giblin, 1988; Gardner, 1994). Video also reduced learners' anxiety especially when speaking in front of the audience (Brooke, 2003).
3. Video provides an alternative of more traditional study (Shrosbree, 2008:75). Video-making in the target language is an enjoyable and memorable activity that can be comfortably adopted in various language classes with learners at different levels of language proficiency (Nikitina, 2010:30).
4. Video provides negative models for students to analyze. Thus, video could improve their awareness of common pitfalls and errors when communicating in a L2.
5. Video enables students to observe their own current language oral proficiency (Shinohara, 1997) and to discover areas they need to improve (Shrosbree, 2008:76). Stempleski (1987) asserted that video helps learners' comprehension of target language.
6. Video provides an excellent foundation for communicative activities and help the learners to activate the language skills they had acquired during the language program (Pearson, 1990). Nikitina (2010) wrote that video project could re-activate learners' prior knowledge of the language and encourage them to employ the linguistic skills they had acquired.
7. Video encourages the use of "real-world" language in "real-life" situations (Secules, Herron, & Tomasello, 1992).

8. Video stimulates greater student participation in learning activities (Phillips, 1982; Yamak, 2008).
9. Video could document students' language production, both to enhance the validity and reliability of language assessment, and to provide motivating and rewarding tasks with a clear, meaningful purpose and a concrete finished product (Biegel, 1998). Video project thus can be used as a formative assessment of learner's proficiency.

Another researcher, Berk (2009:2), stated that video used in language teaching has 20 potential advantages. Thus it is likely to conclude that video project is supportive to language learning and teaching.

Video Project Effect on Learner's English Skills

Video project positive effect on ESP learners is supported by the findings on linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes of video project. Learners' feedback on linguistic benefits of video project was positive. According to the post-project survey, the majority of learners wrote that the video project helped them developing and practicing useful skills.

Most learners thought that video project improve all four language skills, especially speaking and listening. 41.94% learners agreed that video project help them improving their speaking skill, while 20.97% learners said it improved their listening skill. Reading and writing are less developed skills in this project. 14.52% learners stated that it improved their reading skill, while 8.06% agreed that video project improved their writing skill.

Post-project survey also revealed other linguistic skills which are also improved by the video project assignment, including vocabulary skill (8.06% learners), pronunciation (8.06%), and grammar (4.84%). Many learners also stated that video project improves not only one of their skill, but also other skills together (multiple linguistic skills), especially speaking-listening-reading skills.

Below are some of ESP Law learners' positive comments in their reflective writing:

1. *Because video project is very good for practice we for can English. In video project we can use all of your skill. Your skill will improve it flow. Automatic we speaking, reading, and listening too. It's so good.*
2. *For me, it's good to use video project in teaching English because it makes learning is more fun and not boring.*
3. *After I make and follow in my video project with my friends, I know more about English language.*
4. *....I think that the most improved is team work. Because in the everything project we must "bekerja sama" for the reach the goal....*

The linguistic aspects are the most important parts of this project. However, the teacher is also urged students to train their non-linguistic aspects.

Video Project to Engage Learners in Collaborative Work

In addition to linguistic skills, the current study showed that learners' non-linguistic skills are also improved through video project, especially learner's skill to collaborate with other learners (44.4% learner). This result is in line with Shrosbree (2008:75) and Berk (2009:2) who stated video project could serve as a vehicle for collaboration and group discussion tasks. In addition, the researcher also found that confidence (22.2%), acting (22.2%), and video editing (11.1%) are increased.

In their comments, learners emphasized that video project assignment helps them improving many linguistic and non-linguistic skills. In particular, learners praised collaborative work skill (44.4%) developed through video project. Below are some comments written in learners' reflective writing:

1. *It is good, because video project makes us know character our friends, know how to*

good cooperation, we can more close with our friend. Understand to another friend, and we can learn together how to good English speaking and expression.

2. *My improved skill is shared our ideas, learned time to meeting and local video. I will fix the shortage which is exist in this project like the different ideas between our members about script.*
3. *My skill is improved can working together because I am can't choose a friends. All friends is same....*

The researcher's observation showed that learners tend pay more attention to the improvement of linguistic aspects rather than non-linguistic aspects. However, learners admitted that video project helped them to build their cooperative learning in classroom and engage them in a meaningful interaction.

Conclusion

This study and other studies in general showed that video project benefits learners' foreign language learning. In the future, instructors should seek strategies to incorporate video project in their teaching due to its ability to facilitate the teaching of integrated skill of language. Involving ESP learners in the video production should be seen as a chance to create a dynamic teaching. More research on the effectiveness of the video project in foreign language teaching should be conducted to explore problems and chance in using video project in language teaching.

References

Berk, R.A. (2009). "Multimedia teaching with video clips: TV, movies, YouTube, and mtvU in the college classroom". *International Journal of Technology in Teaching and Learning,* 5(1), 1–21.

Gremler, C. (2010). *Video Production in Language Learning: Enhancing The Student Experience Through Engaging and Creative Tasks.* Research report. Aston University.

Nikitina, L. (2010). "Video-Making in the Foreign Language Classroom: Applying Principles of Constructivist Pedagogy". *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching* 2010, Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 21–31. Centre for Language Studies National University of Singapore.

Shrosbree, M. (2008). "Digital video in the language classroom". *The JALT CALL Journal,* 2008, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 75-84 (ISSN 1832-4215).

Biegel, K. (1998). "It's show time: Video production in the EFL classroom". *The Language Teacher Online*, 22(8). Retrieved from http://www.jalt-publications.org/tlt/files/98/aug/biegel.html.

Brooke, S. (2003). "Video production in the foreign language classroom: Some practical ideas". *The Internet TESL Journal*, 9(10). Retrieved from http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Brooke-Video.html.

Charge, N.J., & Giblin, K. (1988). "Learning English in a video studio". *English Language Teaching Journal*, 42(4), 282–287.

Gardner, D. (1994). "Student-produced video documentary: Hong Kong as a self-access resource". *Hong Kong Papers in linguistic and Language Teaching*, 17, 45–53.

Phillips, E. (1982). "Student video production". In M. Geddes & G. Sturtridge (Eds.), *Video in the language classroom* (pp. 86–100). London: Heinemann Education.

Pearson, J. (1990). "Putting pupils in the picture". *Language Learning Journal*, 2, 71–72.

Secules, T., Herron, C., & Tomasello, M. (1992). "The effect of video context on foreign language learning". *The Modern Language Journal*, 76, 480–490.

Shinohara, Y. (1997). The group video presentation project. The Language Teacher, 21(7), 39-40.

Stempleski, S. (1987). *Short takes: Using authentic video in the English class.* Paper presented at the 21st Annual Meeting of the International Association of instructors of English as a Foreign Language. Westende, Belgium: IATEFL.

Yamak, L.A. (2008). "Student documentaries: a language learning tool". *English teaching Forum*, 46(2), 20–27. Retrieved from http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/docs/08-46-2-c.pdf

TABLE OF CONTENTS