



LEARNER MOTIVATION IN ESL LEARNING STRATEGIES AND GENDER ROLE	1
<i>Satrio Sugeng Prihantoro, Rahma Widyana and Ezra Putranda Setiawan</i>	
SPEECH DISFLUENCY IN GROUPS' PRESENTATIONS OF ENGLISH EDUCATION MASTER'S PROGRAM STUDENTS	11
<i>Albertus Agung Sanjaya and Veronica Esti Nugrahani</i>	
HOSPITALITY ENGLISH FOR SPA THERAPISTS IN BANYAN TREE HOTELS AND RESORTS	27
<i>Ratnasari Nugraheni</i>	
DEVELOPING TASK-BASED LEARNING MODEL FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING MEDIA COURSE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM	36
<i>Patricia Angelina</i>	
MATERIALS AND (LANGUAGE) LEARNING ENVIRONMENT BASED ON MONTESSORI CONCEPTS ..	46
<i>Christina Kristiyani</i>	
BREAKING THE SILENCE: UTILIZING PECHA KUCHA TO PROMOTE STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILLS	55
<i>Aloisius Wisnu Mahendra</i>	
IMPLEMENTING CONCEPT MAPPING TECHNIQUE TO IMPROVE STUDENTS' DESCRIPTIVE WRITING ABILITY	65
<i>Rubiyah, Maria Teodora Ping, and Syamdianita</i>	
LISTENING CLASS AND MORAL EDUCATION	75
<i>Stella Prancisca and M. Ainur Rizqi</i>	
TRILINGUAL TEXTUALIZATION TO DELIVER INDONESIAN LOCAL CULTURES TO HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS	82
<i>E. Sunarto, F. X. Mukarto, J. Bismoko, & Novita Dewi</i>	
LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNER	94
<i>Melvina Amir</i>	
COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH SPEAKING ACTIVITIES DESIGNED IN A TEXTBOOK	104
<i>Maryska Firiady</i>	
LANGUAGE ATTITUDES OF INDONESIANS AS EFL LEARNERS, GENDER, AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS	114
<i>Dirtya Sunyi Paradewari and Concilianus Laos Mbato</i>	

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Abstract

Language learning strategy is one of the main factors that help determine how well our students learn a second or foreign language (Oxford, 2003). Research has shown that more effective language learners use more and better learning strategies than poorer language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). This research investigates the difference in ESL learning strategies used by students with different levels of ESL learner motivation and how gender plays a role in both. Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1990) and English Language Learner Motivation Scale (ELLMS; Ardasheva, Tong and Tretter, 2012) were used and adopted to measure English language learning strategies and English language learner motivation, by employing 65 male students and 75 female students from Budi Utama Junior High School as participants. The data analyzed showed that there was significant difference in ESL learning strategies used by the students with different levels of ESL learner motivation but there is no significant role of gender in ESL learner motivation and ESL learning strategies.

Keywords: ESL, gender, learner motivation, learning strategy

Introduction

According to the survey of EF English Proficiency Index (2016) in English Language ability, Indonesia is ranked 32 out of 72 countries. This survey also shows that there is a positive correlation between the level of English ability and the level of economic income, quality of life, business environment dynamics, connectivity and innovation.

Research related to English as a Second Language (ESL) is a field that will continue to be studied because of the importance of English in the aspects of global life. Many studies have shown that successful language learners use more learning strategies than those who are unsuccessful (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). The language learning strategy is one of the main factors determining the success of language learning and plays an important role in the learning process (Oxford, 2003). Learning strategy is a way of regulating cognitive ability to obtain good grades or academic achievement (Salovaara, 2005). In conclusion we can state that learning strategies are needed in the learning process, not least in the ESL learning process, known as the language learning strategy.

Griffiths and Carrol (2003) point out that early in its development, research on language learning strategy aimed to identify or classify the types of language

learning strategies or focused on the relationship between their use and achievement in or mastery (level) of English (Green & Oxford, 1995). Subsequent studies have concentrated on factors influencing the use of language learning strategies, such as motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic (Chang, 2005), (Khazaie., Z. M & Mesbah. Z, 2014), language learning targets, career orientation, age, gender and anxiety (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990), (Randic & Bobanovic, 2006).

An important factor that is highlighted in the use of learning strategies is the motivation of learners. Oxford (2003) suggests that according to some studies, the use of learning strategies is significantly linked to motivation. According to Chang (2005), motivation is one of the factors that has a relationship with the use of language learning strategies. Motivation is a force that can encourage someone to do something, it can come from outside or from within the individual.

This study will explore the strategies and motivation of the learners, specifically ESL Learning Strategies and ESL Learner Motivation. Based on previous studies, the researchers hypothesized that there is a significant difference in the use of ESL learning strategies at a low, medium and high ESL motivation level.

Besides ESL Learner Motivation, another factor to be studied in this research is gender. The term gender is distinguished from sex. Sex refers to the biological dimensions of a man and woman, whereas gender refers to a sociocultural dimension of a man and woman (Santrock, 2002). Numerous studies have looked into gender as a factor affecting language learning strategies in different cultural backgrounds. Some have found that learning strategies are used more frequently by women than men (Oxford, 2003; Zeynali, 2012). However, there are also studies that show the opposite, such as Zamri's study (as cited in Zeynali, 2012), which shows that men are more likely to use learning strategies than women, or even the results of Chang and Chou's study (as cited in Zeynali, 2012), which shows no significant difference in the use of language learning strategies based on gender. The hypothesis in this study and the inconsistency of previous research results relating to gender roles in the use of ESL learning strategies raises the question: does gender have a significant role in ESL learning strategies and ESL learner motivation? If ESL learner motivation has an influence on the use of ESL learning strategies and gender has no strong significant role in ESL learning strategies, it can be assumed logically that gender also has no significant role in ESL learner motivation. Similarly, if ESL learner motivation has an influence on the use of ESL learning strategies and gender has a significant role in ESL learning strategies; it can be assumed logically that gender has a significant role in ESL learner motivation.

ESL Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) defines a language learning strategy as an action performed by the learner to assist in the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information; the act is specific and aims to make the process of learning languages easier, more effective, fun and self-directed. More specifically, Oxford (1990) classifies language learning strategies into two types, namely direct strategies and indirect strategies. Oxford explains that the direct strategy involves the use of languages studied directly to facilitate the learning process. Direct strategies consist of

memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies consist of metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. Indirect strategies provide indirect support in language learning in many ways: focusing attention, planning, evaluating, controlling anxiety, seeking opportunities, enhancing cooperation and empathy. Although the classification of Oxford language learning strategies seems to be divided into two types, direct and indirect, both types - along with the six categories of learning strategies - are interrelated and supportive of one another.

Oxford (1990) likened the direct and indirect linkage of strategies to an actor performing onstage with a backstage director. Both are mutually cooperative and inseparable. It is this connection that explains why previous theories have confirmed that successful language learners use more and varied strategies than unsuccessful language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). An explanation of the relevance of the six learning strategies can be seen in figure 1.

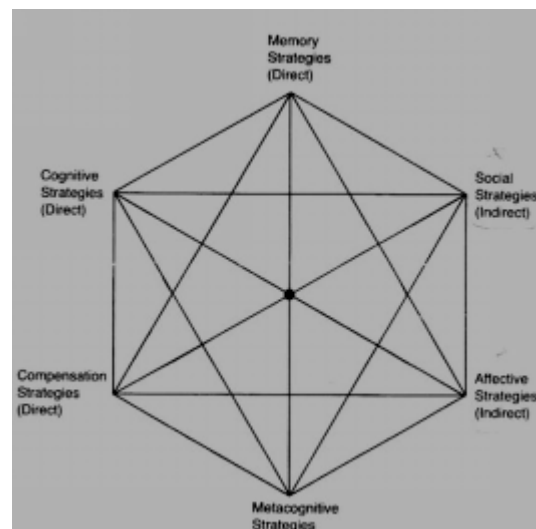


Figure 1. Interrelationships between Direct and Indirect Strategies among Six Strategies Group

Source: Oxford, 1990, p. 15

Language learners can combine all of these strategies, so the process of learning the language becomes easy, enjoyable and varied. Language Learning Strategies used will have an affect on the learning outcomes of related languages (Chamot, 2004). The more language learning strategies chosen and flexibly used contextually by language learners, the more it will assist in the success of language acquisition (Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 2004).

ESL Learner Motivation

In a general sense, ESL learner motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized,

operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Still according to Dörnyei and Ushida (2011), language learner motivation represents a unique situation even in motivational psychology; language has a very unique role both personally and socially. Language, as an integral part of one's existence, covers almost all mental activity. Language is the most important element in our communication system and is also a tool of social organization. In the context of a foreign language as well as a second language, language has an additional function: it allows entry into the social, cultural and material arrangements of the native speakers of that language.

An important factor in the use of learning strategies is the motivation of learners. Oxford (2003) quotes from several studies show that the use of learning strategies is significantly linked to motivation. Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K (1998) have convincingly shown that motivation in the ESL context is a powerful variable. Chang (2005) explains that motivational variables have a great influence on the use of language learning strategies. Highly motivated learners use more learning strategies than lower motivated learners. The existence of motivation in a student will allow the student to overcome all obstacles encountered in the learning process; the primary way to do this is to use learning strategies.

Research on the motivation of language learners is still based on the grand theory of motivation, namely self-determination theory (SDT) from Deci and Ryan (1985). The development of self-determination theory in learning, especially second language acquisition (SLA), was advanced by Noel (as cited in Ardasheva, 2012). Noel divides SDT into seven aspects: 'amotivation,' three types of intrinsic motivation, and three types of extrinsic motivation. The three types of intrinsic motivation are: a) intrinsic motivation arising from stimulation, for example when a person wants to learn a language because of its aesthetic beauty when he/she hears it; b) intrinsic motivation arising from attainment, i.e. a person experiences positive feelings when he/she succeeds in understanding something difficult in the context of the new language; and c) intrinsic motivation arising from a desire to acquire new knowledge. For extrinsic motivation, Noel's three types are: a) extrinsic motivation because of values, such as a personal goal to become fluent in more than one language; b) Extrinsic motivation arising from internalized internal pressure ('introjection setting'), such as the feeling of wanting to avoid guilt or the desire to impress others; and c) 'external settings' or behaviors driven by external factors, such as punishment, reward or praise. The last aspect of SDT is 'amotivation,' which is the opposite of intrinsic and extrinsic factors in motivational orientation. Amotivation refers to situations where one sees no relationship between his/her actions and their consequences. Consequence is seen as something beyond one's control, so that there is no motivation to continue with an activity like learning a foreign language (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

This study specifically uses English learner motivation variables, based on seven aspects of Noel, but summarized and simplified by Ardasheva, Tong and Tretter (2012) into three factors, namely: external regulation, introjected regulation and intrinsic motivation.

Gender

The term gender is distinguished from sex, in which sex refers to the biological dimensions of a man and woman, whereas gender refers to the sociocultural dimensions of a man and woman (Santrock, 2002). In many studies related to language learning strategies by learners from different cultural backgrounds, it was found that learning strategies were used more frequently by women than men (Oxford, 2003; Zeynali, 2012).

From the description of language learning strategy variables and language learner motivation, gender becomes one of the variables attached to the profile of a language learner. Thus, although many previous studies have examined the variables of language learning strategies and the motivation of language learners in terms of their gender, the fact remains that there are differences in the results of existing research regarding its relevance. Some have found differences in the use of ESL learning strategies and motivation of ESL learners (Oxford, 2003; Zeynali, 2012), but others have not (Zamri, 2004; Chang, 1990; Chou, 2002 as cited in Zeynali, 2012).

From theories and results in previous studies regarding the use of ESL learning strategies and ESL learner motivation, this research constructs the hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the use of ESL learning strategies at low, medium and high ESL learner motivation levels. As for the inconsistency of gender roles with ESL learning strategies from previous studies, this study will answer the question: does gender have a significant role in ESL learning strategies and ESL learner motivation?

Method

The population in this research consists of students at SMP Budi Utama during the 2016/2017 academic year. Budi Utama School is a member of the association of tri-lingual schools in Indonesia (PERSTIBI), in which English is used as a secondary means of instructional and communicative language. PERSTIBI schools also utilize native English speakers as members of the faculty and the learners are encouraged to use English both inside and outside of the classroom environment. Due to these factors, the subjects, consisting of 65 male and 75 female learners are adequately classed as ESL as opposed to EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners.

Before performing validity and reliability tests on the measuring instrument used, the researchers conducted back-translation on all measuring tools both for English learning strategy and learner motivation. Back-translation is a method of adapting and verifying a measuring instrument by first translating it into a second language and then back into its original language. After the translation was matched and its consistency confirmed, the researchers conducted validity and reliability tests on the measurement method.

The inventory tool of the language learning strategies used in this study refers to the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL version 7.0 for ESL/EFL learners; Oxford, 1990). "The SILL is a standardized measure with versions for students of a variety of languages. It has also been used in studies that correlate strategy use with variables such as learning styles, gender, proficiency

level, and culture” (Chamot, 2004, p. 16). Nevertheless, the researchers tested the validity and reliability of the SILL again. After omitting 9 items from the original 50, we obtained the value of item validity coefficient range from 0.212 - 0.716. From the Alpha Cronbach reliability test, the scale of language learning strategy has a reliability coefficient value of 0.981. The data collected with SILL shows both the level of use of the ESL learning strategy on the overall total of six learning strategies as well as the use of ESL learning strategies in each of its strategies. Level of use of ESL learning strategy is divided into 3 levels; high (score range: 3.5-5.0), medium (score range: 2.5-3.4), and low (score range: 1.0-2.4).

The scale used to measure the motivation of learners in this study is the adaptation of English Language Learner Motivation Scale (ELLMS) owned by Ardasheva, Tong & Tretter, (2012) which is an adaptation and simplification of the Language Learning Orientations Scale-Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA) developed by Noels, KA, Pelletier, LG, Clément, R., & Vallerand, RJ. ELLMS is used to measure ESL learner motivation at an elementary and junior high school level. ELLMS includes a series of SDTs, such as; intrinsic motivation (6 points of statement), Introjection regulation (2 points of statement) and extrinsic regulation (4 points of statement). Due to the fact there are only two questions dedicated to determining introjection, the compilers of ELLMS recommended (via correspondence) that the researchers add two additional items to the introjection regulation section using the questions in LLOS-IEA.. This scale is chosen because ELLMS is designed for elementary and junior high school students. After the validity test, ESL learner Motivation Scale has a value of item validity coefficient range of 0.299 - 0.585. Due to all 14 items being stated as valid the researchers chose to include all items. From the reliability test conducted, Language learner Motivation Scale has a reliability coefficient of 0.832 (reliable). Categorization of the ESL motivation learner levels was based on mean and standard deviation. Categorization of scores was ordered into three levels: low ($X < 32.7$), medium ($32.7 \leq 51.3$) and high ($51.3 \leq X$).

The data for the hypothesis that there is a difference in the use of ESL learning strategies in terms of ESL learner motivation was analyzed using Anova for normal distributed learning strategies, and Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests for non-normal distributed ESL learning strategies. Then the question of whether gender has a significant role in ESL learning strategies and ESL learner motivation was answered by analyzing the data using chi-square and t-test.

Findings and Discussion

Differences in the use of ESL learning strategies in terms of ESL learner motivation

The result of data analysis shows that there are different uses of ESL learning strategy employed by ESL learners with low, medium and high motivation level. The results of calculating the uses of ESL learning strategies employed by students with low, medium and high motivation levels can be seen in table 1 below.

Table 1. ESL Learning Strategies Based on Their ESL Learner Motivation

ESL Learning strategies *	ESL Learner motivation						Statistic Test
	Low		Medium		High		
	Score	Level	Score	Level	Score	Level	
Total	92,2 ± 27,1 ^a	-	108,4 ± 20,6 ^a	-	135,3 ± 19,7 ^b	-	34,509
Aspect (standardized score)							
Memory ¹⁾	1,82 ± 0,67 ^a	low	2,39 ± 0,56 ^b	low	2,97 ± 0,62 ^c	medium	21,101
Cognitive ¹⁾	2,06 ± 0,86 ^a	low	2,74 ± 0,57 ^b	medium	3,38 ± 0,69 ^c	medium	22,367
Compensation ²⁾	3,13 ± 1,17 ^{ac}	medium	3,13 ± 0,91 ^a	medium	3,77 ± 0,84 ^c	high	15,113
Metacognitive ¹⁾	2,62 ± 1,23 ^a	medium	2,94 ± 0,74 ^a	medium	3,78 ± 0,61 ^c	high	26,719
Affective ²⁾	1,72 ± 0,90 ^a	low	2,16 ± 0,67 ^a	low	2,61 ± 0,73 ^c	medium	14,810
Social ¹⁾	2,57 ± 0,89 ^a	medium	2,52 ± 0,68 ^a	medium	3,23 ± 0,71 ^c	medium	17,079

Note: the numbers in the table are the mean ± standard deviation (std deviation)

Table 1 shows that memory, cognitive, metacognitive and social data are normally distributed. The test statistic shows the F value for the analysis of variance; when $F > 3.06$ then H_0 is rejected at $\alpha = 5\%$. Average comparisons were made with the least significant different method at $\alpha = 5\%$. Whereas in the compensation and affective strategy the data is not normally distributed, the test statistic shows the value of χ^2 for Kruskal Wallis non-parametric test; when $\chi^2 > 3.84$ then H_0 is rejected at $\alpha = 5\%$. Average comparisons were made by the Mann-Whitney non-parametric test at $\alpha = 5\%$.

The results show that there are indeed differences in the uses of ESL learning strategies employed by students with low, medium and high ESL learner motivation. Furthermore, significant differences were found only in the low and medium vs. high groups, there was no significant difference in the ESL strategies between low and medium ESL learner motivation groups.

This result confirms theories from previous studies that there are indeed significant differences in the use of learning strategies at low, medium and high ESL learner motivation levels (Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K, 1998; Chang, 2005; Oxford, 2003).

Gender roles on the use of ESL learning strategies and ESL learner motivation

Data was tested using chi-square to see the difference in frequency of the usage of ESL learning strategies in men and women. The results indicate that the difference in the use of ESL learning strategies only appears in the use of memory strategies, whereas in the 5 other learning strategies there is no significant difference. The results of the analysis can be seen in table 2 below.

Table 2. Gender Differences in ESL Learning Strategies

Learning strategies	Gender		Total	Sig. Chi-Square test
	Male	Female		
Memory	Low	23	56	.032
	Medium	41	63	
	High	11	21	
Cognitive	Low	10	26	.189
	Medium	40	73	
	High	25	41	
Compensation	Low	8	22	.208
	Medium	30	52	
	High	37	66	
Metacognitive	Low	11	20	.771
	Medium	29	58	
	High	35	62	
Affective	Low	43	86	.333
	Medium	27	43	
	High	5	11	
Social	Low	24	43	.922
	Medium	32	60	
	High	19	37	

Table 2 shows that in both men and women, there is no significant difference in the use of cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. This is shown by the absence of significant interaction ($p > .05$) in these five ESL learning strategies. The only difference exists in the memory strategy where the significant value of chi-square test strategy memory was ($0.32 < .05$).

This research shows that there is no difference in the usage of ESL learning strategy between men and women. Additionally, the difference in motivation level of ESL learners in men and women was tested using an independent t-test. The difference in ESL learner motivation rates in men and women can be seen in table 3.

Table 3. ESL Learner Motivation based on Their Gender

Gender	N	Score of Motivation		Level of motivation		
		Average	SD	Low	Medium	High
Male	65	48.98	9.49	4 (6.2%)	31 (47.7%)	30 (46.2%)
Female	75	50.72	8.05	1 (1.3%)	37 (49.3%)	37 (49.3%)
Total	140			5 (3.6%)	68 (48.6%)	67 (47.9%)

The motivation of ESL learners in men and women was compared using the t-test under the assumption of normal distribution. Assumption checks were performed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. It obtained a Sig. Value of 0.094 and 0.200, which is greater than the 5% significance level, and indicates that the data represents a normal distribution, so that requirements are sufficiently met for a t-test to be performed.

The independent t-test obtained Sig value. of $0.244 > 5\%$, therefore it can be concluded that there is no difference in the average ESL learner motivation of male and female students.

From the results of this study it can be seen that gender does not play any significant role in the use of ESL learning strategy and motivation level of ESL

learners. In other words, gender has no influence on the use of ESL learning strategy and ESL learning motivation level. This result confirms the results of previous research; however, the chi-square analysis performed in the research also indicates that women tend to use more ESL memory learning strategies than men. Additionally, although there is generally no significant difference, it is true that more women use ESL learning strategies than men (a disparity of 1.8% according to the total scores).

Conclusion

Results of this study confirm the previous studies which state that there are significant differences in the use of ESL learning strategies in ESL learners with low, medium and high motivation levels. Thus, the researchers suggest that ESL educational institutions and learners explore more instruments that can be used to improve ESL learner motivation, so that learners can optimally use ESL learning strategies.

The results of this study also found that gender does not play a role or influence ESL learning strategies and ESL learner motivation, so it is better for educators to avoid the stigma or prejudice that men tend to lack in motivation and use fewer learning strategies. In addition, ESL learning settings should also focus more on creating environments that motivate students because this research indicates that only in a group of high ESL learner motivation can we significantly see the difference in the use of ESL learning strategies.

The researchers also recommend that research should be conducted on subjects from more diverse ethnic and geographic backgrounds and with wider age ranges to determine whether the results will remain consistent. In Indonesia, there are a number of schools that use English as a second language as opposed to treating it as a foreign language. Therefore, in regards to ESL, it is both possible and practical to expand this study. However, the researchers suggest that study on language strategy variables in the context of EFL – as opposed to ESL – is similarly needed within Indonesia in its efforts to increase its ranking on the EF English Proficiency Index (2016), which is currently a dismal 32 out of 72 countries.

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SPEECH DISFLUENCY IN GROUPS' PRESENTATIONS OF ENGLISH EDUCATION MASTER'S PROGRAM STUDENTS

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Abstract

English Education Master's Program (EEMP) students are required to master listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Regarding the speaking skill, they must have fluency and clarity in speaking English since they should be good models for their students. However, the minimal use of English in their oral communication during the courses leads to the speech disfluency. They are aware of their disfluency but they do not understand the specific aspects of it. Thus, this study aimed to discuss the speech disfluency produced by the master students in oral communication. There was one formulated research question: "What are the speech disfluencies which commonly occur in groups' presentations among EEMP students?" To examine the speech disfluencies, the researchers employed document analysis as the method of the study. The transcription of their groups' presentations were analyzed based on the types of disfluency (Shriberg, 1994; Bailoor, John, & Laxman, 2015). The findings showed that there were five disfluency types found in this study namely unfilled pause, filled pause, repetition, substitution, and deletion.

Keywords: disfluency, disfluency types, English Education Master's Program (EEMP) students, groups' presentations

Introduction

The English Education Master's Program (EEMP) is one of post graduates programs in Sanata Dharma University which prepare the students to be a professional English teacher or lecturer. As the future English teachers or lecturers, they are required to be able to master all four skills in English including listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Council of Ministers of Education Canada, 2013). Focusing on speaking, they have to be able to speak English fluently because they have to be good models for their students in teaching English. It corresponds to what is written by CMEC (2013) in the book of *Speaking for Excellence* that teachers have roles in the classroom consisting instructor, evaluator, manager, communicator, and model of academic language and culture. In order to be a good communicator, the teachers must have fluency and clarity in speaking English to their students.

However, the use of English is still limited. In fact, during the courses, the students of master program more often use their first language which is Indonesian than English. Thus, the minimal use of English in their oral

communication leads to the speech disfluency (Bailoor, John, & Laxman, 2015). They actually realize that they are still experiencing disfluency in speaking English. However, they judge themselves not fluent in speaking English without understanding the specific aspects of their speech disfluency. Thus, this study aims to discuss the speech disfluency produced by the master students in oral communication. Specifically, the oral communication is represented in the groups' presentations of Educational Psychology class. This groups' presentations aim to facilitate students to be accustomed to speak English.

In this part, the researchers provides the literature about speech disfluency in spoken English, previous studies on speech disfluency, and factors influencing speech disfluency. In the first literature, the researchers give the definition of speech disfluency and elaboration of disfluency types. In the second literature, the researchers explore the previous study which investigated speech disfluency and provide the elaboration of factors influencing speech disfluency.

Speech Disfluency in Spoken English

Speech disfluency often occurs in spontaneous conversations among people (Shriberg, 2001). However, this study investigates speech disfluency occurred in the groups' presentations. In the groups' presentations, participants might have preparations before the performance, such as mastering the materials, making points on what they are going to say, and some things alike. However, during the presentation, the participants were still found making speech disfluencies. It might be the influence of English as the foreign language which is rarely used by the participants in daily communication.

According to Fox Tree (1995) speech disfluency refers to a linguistic term which has a definition of the occurrence of interruptions or momentary disruptions during the flow of speech but does not contribute any semantic or propositional content to the speech. Disfluency is also characterized by some disruption in easily moving to, and away from sounds, syllables, and words" (Zebrowski & Kelly, 2002). There are several types of disfluency based on the research done by Postma, Kolk, and Povel (1990), such as repetitions, prolongations of sounds, blocking on sounds, and interjections of meaningless sounds. Repetitions include repeating syllables, words, and phrases. Shriberg (1994) and Bailoor, John, & Laxman (2015) also mentioned other disfluency types consisting of unfilled pause, filled pause, repetition, substitution, deletion, insertion, and articulation errors. The example of each disfluency types are shown in the table 1.

Table 1. Disfluency Types

Disfluency Types	Examples
Unfilled pause	<i>silent</i> – I prefer (<i>silent</i>) to
Filled pause	uh – we live in Dallas
Repetition	all the – the tools
Deletion	it's – I could get it where I work
Substitution	any health cover – any health insurance
Insertion	and I felt – I also felt
Articulation error	and [pin] – pistachio nuts

Previous Studies and Influencing Factors of Speech Disfluency

There are several studies which investigated speech disfluency. Oviatt (1995) investigated disfluencies in six types of task-oriented conversations. He found that long utterances had higher disfluency rates than short ones. The same finding also found by Shriberg (1996) in her study of disfluencies in three different task-oriented conversational corpora. Enxhi, Tan, and Yong (2012) and Bailoor and Jomie (2015) investigate speech disfluency among Malaysian undergraduates and Indian young adults. They explored disfluency types which occurred in the conversations. Looking at the year of the studies, it seems that the issues on speech disfluency are still relevant up to now. The previous studies gave the awareness on disfluency types which people might produce and the factors influencing speech disfluency (Bortfeld, Leon, Bloom, Schober, & Brennan, 2001).

Bortfeld, et al (2001) mention several factors influencing speech disfluency. The first factor is processing load in which the normal speakers produced speech disfluencies due to a cognitive process of speech planning (Bock, 1986; Bock & Levelt, 1994; Dell, 1986; Fromkin, 1971, 1973, 1980; Garrett, 1975; Goldman-Eisler, 1958; Levelt, 1989; MacKay, 1970, 1972, 1973; Maclay & Osgood, 1959; Nooteboom, 1969; Shattuck-Hufnagel, 1979, 1982; Shattuck-Hufnagel & Klatt, 1979). The topics being discussed in the conversations also influence the load process. One study found that social science lectures contained more disfluencies of one sort — fillers — than hard science lectures, and humanities lectures contained the most of all (Schachter, Christenfeld, Ravina, & Bilous, 1991). Humanities lectures can be English education which corresponds to the lectures studied by the participants.

The second factor is coordination function. This factor assumes that disfluencies may provide information that enables two people in conversation to better coordinate interaction, manage turn-taking, or align their mental states (Brennan & Schober, 2001; Brennan & Williams, 1995; Clark, 1994; Clark & Wasow, 1996; Fox Tree, 1995; Fox Tree & Clark, 1997; Levelt, 1989; Shriberg, 1996; Smith & Clark, 1993; cf. Aryani, 2016). The other factors such as partners (Schober & Carstensen, 2001), age (Burke, MacKay, Worthley, & Wade, 1991; Rastle & Burke, 1996), and gender (Shriberg, 1996) might be able to influence disfluencies. However, this study will discuss the factors influencing speech disfluencies only as the interpretation on the reasons why the participants produced disfluencies.

Method

This study is a qualitative research. In order to analyze the disfluency produced by EEMP students, the researchers employed document analysis as the method of the research. As Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, and Sorensen (2010) argue that document analysis refers to a method of research utilized to written or visual materials in a purpose of identifying specified characteristics of the material or a project that focuses on analyzing and interpreting recorded materials within its own context. Ary, et al. (2010) also state that the data of document analysis can be from public records, textbooks, films, diaries, reports, or other documents. In this

study, the documents analyzed were from the recorded videos of two groups' presentations.

There were two videos from two groups of EEMP students. One group consisted of five members and the other was five members. The presentation was one of Educational Psychology class activities. In each week, there was one group having responsibility to discuss a certain topic in this class. The researchers used the video recordings of group 2 and group 3 presentations to be analyzed. These groups were chosen since the members of the groups had different experience in using their English spoken language.

In gathering the data, the researchers employed some steps. First, the researchers recorded the groups' presentations. Second, the researchers watched the video recording few times and transcribed the videos. Third, the researchers analyzed and collected the disfluency produced by the students. Fourth, the researchers made tables (as shown in Table 2.) which consisted of the speech disfluency types, such as filled pause, repetition, deletion, substitution, insertion, and articulation error. Fifth, the researchers counted the occurrence of each type of disfluency.

Table 2. The Occurrence of Speech Disfluency

Disfluency Types	Frequency
Unfilled pause	88
Filled pause	145
Repetition	66
Deletion	8
Substitution	34

To analyze the data, the researchers did some steps. The first step was organizing and preparing the data. The data were speech disfluency types produced by the participants. The source data were videos of the groups' presentations in Educational Psychology class. Second, the researchers coded all of the data. The researchers put the disfluencies produced by the participants into several categories (Creswell, 2014) based on speech disfluencies types mentioned by Shriberg (1994). Third, the researchers provided the table (as shown in Table 3.) which included the disfluency types and the evidences got from the videos transcription. Finally, the researchers provided the discussion by giving the interpretation of the disfluencies produced by the participants.

Table 3. The Examples of Speech Disfluency

Speech Disfluency Type	Examples
Filled pause / repetition / substitution	

Findings and Discussion

After analyzing the transcriptions from two videos of students' group presentations, the researchers found several types of disfluency which occurred in the presentation. The disfluency types are unfilled pause, filled pause, repetition, substitution, and deletion. From the first video recording which has 56 minutes and 32 seconds in duration, the researchers found 41 occurrences of unfilled pause, 186 occurrences of filled pause, 66 occurrences of repetition, 8 occurrences of deletion, and 34 occurrences of substitution. These findings are presented in the Table 4 below.

Table 4. The occurrence of Speech Disfluency in Video 1

Disfluency Types	Frequency
Unfilled pause	41
Filled pause	186
Repetition	66
Deletion	8
Substitution	34

From the second video recording which has 55 minutes and 36 seconds in duration, the researchers found 138 occurrences of unfilled pause, 189 occurrences of filled pause, 52 occurrences of repetition, 11 occurrences of deletion, and 17 occurrences of substitution. Table 4 below presents the amounts of speech disfluency occurrences.

Table 5. The occurrence of Speech Disfluency in Video 2

Disfluency Types	Frequency
Unfilled pause	138
Filled pause	189
Repetition	52
Deletion	11
Substitution	17

Based on the table, it could be seen that disfluency type of filled pause has the largest amounts of occurrences when the participants were delivering the presentations. The total occurrence of this type of disfluency is 375 times. The second largest amounts of occurrences is unfilled pause with the total 179 occurrences. From two videos, it could be seen that the participants might have several reasons why they were doing both disfluency types, such as: thinking the words they wanted to utter, waiting for the next slide, and arranging the laptop. Repetition becomes the third largest amounts of speech disfluency occurrence which has the total of 118 times. The last two speech disfluencies which occur in the presentation are substitution with 51 occurrences in total followed by deletion with 19 occurrences in total.

Having discussed the total occurrence of speech disfluency in the groups' presentations, the study provides more specific explanation on each disfluency types which will be discussed in the next section. There are five categories representing speech disfluency done by the participants. The study provides the

evidences of speech disfluency done by the participants by presenting the tables which contain the examples collected from two video transcriptions. In addition, the study explores and explains the probable reasons when they were delivering the presentations.

Unfilled Pause

Speech disfluency can also be detected when the participants were silent and did not say anything for a while in their speaking. This phenomenon has been accepted as unfilled pauses. The following table presented the examples of participants' unfilled pauses.

Table 6. The Examples of Unfilled Pause

Disfluency Type	Examples
Unfilled Pause	<p><i>So that ee we...manage our feelings...manage our feelings to ee conscious thinking.</i></p> <p><i>So, first of all ee give applause for Paul, ee because...he is the most...right.</i></p> <p><i>Concept, concept...tualization of integrative...motivation.</i></p> <p><i>So...from those...three...last three...and that is shape our motivation that is what Gardner's.</i></p> <p><i>Em commitment control strategies means em perhaps...it...it...it...it can...the strategies involve helping to perceive...per...preserve of increase the learners' original goal commitment.</i></p> <p><i>Ya, so it is like...yes, it is the kind of self...self...efficacy.</i></p> <p><i>We should em we are...we have different goals, fears and we should achieve our goals and dreams.</i></p> <p><i>Okay, so...ee...I am going to explain little bit about motivation group dynamic.</i></p> <p><i>So...by teaching...actually by becoming a teacher we can feel what Pak Kus has felt.</i></p> <p><i>After all the um strategies the first one the second one happens and you can create in the classroom you have to maintain it and protect it protect it protect the motivation to keep the...em...how to do it?</i></p>

Example 1:

So, first of all ee give applause for Paul, ee because...he is the most...right.

Example 2:

Em commitment control strategies means em perhaps...it...it...it...it can...the strategies involve helping to perceive...per...preserve of increase the learners' original goal commitment.

Example 3:

Okay, so...ee...I am going to explain little bit about motivation group dynamic.

Example 4:

After all the um strategies the first one the second one happens and you can create in the classroom you have to maintain it and protect it protect it protect the motivation to keep the...em...how to do it?

The examples proved that the participants did unfilled pauses during their speech. These unfilled pauses affected the smooth flow of participants' speech. Most of the unfilled pauses occurred because the participants were not sure what they were going to say next. On the example 1, 2, 3, and 4 the participants seemed confused about what they wanted to say (Bock, 1986).

On the example 1, the participant paused his speech because he did not know what to say to express his thought. At the end, he did not finish his sentence. Meanwhile, on the example 2, the participant paused his speech many times and repeated the same word "it" while he was pausing his speech.

Example 5:

So that ee we...manage our feelings...manage our feelings to ee conscious thinking.

Example 6:

So...from those...three...last three...and that is shape our motivation that is what Gardner's.

Example 7:

We should em we are...we have different goals, fears and we should achieve our goals and dreams.

Example 8:

So...by teaching...actually by becoming a teacher we can feel what Pak Kus has felt.

On the other hand, the example 5, 6, 7, and 8 the participants did the unfilled pauses to emphasize their sentence. On the example 5, there was unfilled pause between the sentence "manage our feelings." It seemed that the participant wanted to emphasize her sentence by repeating the sentence. On the example 6, the participant paused his speech for a while "So...from those...three...last three..." to emphasize which one he meant.

Example 9:

Concept, concept...tualization of integrative...motivation.

Example 10:

Ya, so it is like...yes, it is the kind of self...self...efficacy.

The example 9 and 10 had similarity in relation to the unfilled pause. The participants paused their speech in pronouncing a word. As can be seen from example 9, the participant did unfilled pause in the word "concept...tualization."

It can also be seen from example 10 in which the participant pronounced “*self...self...efficacy.*”

Filled Pause

Besides unfilled pause, the participants also did filled pause when they delivered their speech during the presentation. The researcher have identified the filled pauses occurred in their speech, and the examples were presented as follow.

Table 7. The Examples of Filled Pause

Disfluency Type	Examples
Filled Pause	<p><i>Okay, so, in this presentation, we will have five sessions.</i></p> <p><i>So that is Agung’s reaction to this event, to this ee what is that, to this event.</i></p> <p><i>If we are happy about something, about for example, ee our learning then ee then we usually can relate, ee for I mean is that oh this learning is fun, I get bla bla bla bla.</i></p> <p><i>Okay. All right. Em, how to regulate your emotions?</i></p> <p><i>So, it’s like you know can you imagine that?</i></p> <p><i>So, the...what is it...back in nineteen...eighties, ee the SLA...the SLA experts, my mistake, the, the SLA experts, em...conclude this...diagram three schematic.</i></p> <p><i>This one is ee is needed for the teacher to know because ee we can ee influence someone’s emotion.</i></p> <p><i>There is your involvement in aa ee learning society in a language learning society.</i></p> <p><i>Right, so we have experienced so many emotions and feeling in our classes, right?</i></p> <p><i>So if someone is emotional, then talking to her is useless because she or he cannot handle his feeling or her feeling and so, it’s better for us to let him or her calm himself or herself.</i></p>

Example 11:

Okay, so, in this presentation, we will have five sessions.

Example 12:

*So that is Agung’s reaction to this event, to this **ee what is that**, to this event.*

Example 13:

*Okay. All right. **Em**, how to regulate your emotions?*

Example 14:

*So, the...**what is it**...back in nineteen...eighties, **ee** the SLA...the SLA experts, my mistake, the, the SLA experts, **em**...conclude this...diagram three schematic.*

Example 15:

***Right, so** we have experienced so many emotions and feeling in our classes, right?*

Based on the researchers' identification, filled pause was the most disfluency type occurred. All participants did filled pause during the presentation. There were some forms of filled pauses used by the participants. The most frequently occurred were "ee em aa," and almost all of the examples provided had these forms of filled pauses. "Ee em aa," were known as fillers because these were meaningless and not important.

Furthermore, the participants also did filled pause in front of their sentence, or before they said the main sentence. This form of filled pause occurred on the example 11, 13, and 15. On the example 11, the participant said "okay so"; on the example 13 it was said "okay alright"; and on the example 15 the participant said "right so." It seemed that the participants who said these words still thought about what they would say. They wanted to still engage the audience in the presentations. Therefore, they said these words rather than did not say anything at all (Clark & Brennan, 1991).

Other examples which were example 12 and 14 had the same form of filled pause. The filled pause was the participants questioned themselves. They said "what is it" and "what is that", and it showed that the participants tried to recall some information they were going to explain.

Repetition

From all the occurrences of repetition, this study provides some evidences which are presented in the table 8. The repetitions occur when the participants say a word or a phrase.

Table 8. The Examples of Repetition

Disfluency Type	Examples
Repetition	<p><i>The first one is what is emotion? So, I would.. I will ee.. I will discuss about in.. in general what emotion is.</i></p> <p><i>So that is Agung reaction to this event, to this ee..what is that, to this event.</i></p> <p><i>You can take a deep breath and also and also count one to ten, and then exhale.</i></p> <p><i>For example, If I feeling sad, then then I will not do, for example, the worksheet.</i></p> <p><i>When we are happy, we will learn we will learn effectively.</i></p> <p><i>How did you handle yourself after you broke up? That's why that's why it's a little bit heart-wrenching.</i></p> <p><i>In this case, based on ____ have have divided into two... two cases.</i></p> <p><i>And I was I was sad I was sad, I was devastated I was I couldn't I couldn't cry but but thank God.</i></p> <p><i>So, the...what is it...back in nineteen...eighties, ee the SLA...the SLA experts, my mistake, the, the SLA experts, em...conclude this...diagram three schematic.</i></p> <p><i>Em how how we how we make this kind of ee first step happens in your class.</i></p>

The table shows that repetitions which occurred in some participants' utterances are different. Some participants did repetitions containing filled pause or substitution.

Example 16:

*The first one is what is emotion? So, **I would.. I will ee.. I will** discuss about **in.. in** general what emotion is.*

Example 17:

*So that is Agung reaction **to this event, to this ee..what is that, to this event.***

Example 18:

***And I was I was sad I was sad, I was devastated I was I couldn't I couldn't cry but but** thank God.*

On the example 16, the participant repeated the phrase *I will* with the filler *ee..* Then on the example 17, she also did the same thing when she said *to this* followed by the filler *ee.. what is that* then finally said a phrase *to this event*. On the example 18 the other participant did many repetitions. He said *I was* followed by the substitution *I was sad* and he repeated it then followed by the substitution *I was devastated*. He said *I was* again followed by the substitution *I couldn't* and he repeated it.

From those evidences, the researchers assumes that there might be a reason why the participants did the repetitions. The participants might be thinking of what words they were going to say, while they were repeating the words or phrases in their utterances (Bock & Levelt, 1994). Meanwhile, in the example 19 the participant purposely did the repetition because she wanted to emphasize on what she was going to say.

Example 19:

***According to Gross 2014, according to Gross 2014, emotion refers to an as.. astonishing** array of responses.*

Substitution

The participants of the study also did the substitutions when they were delivering the presentations. The researchers have identified the utterances of the participants which indicated to the substitutions. The examples of substitution occurrences are presented in the Table 6 below.

Table 9. The Examples of Substitution

Disfluency Type	Examples
Substitution	<i>And today, I would like you to express yourself, okay, so, when I say, when I raise your hand like this, so please, the higher I raise my hand, please shout as loud as you can, okay?</i> <i>Alright, how do you feel? How did you feel? What do you feel? What did you feel about it?</i> <i>like Mbak Dian has mention before ee.., about why is what is</i>

emotion.

If we are If we don't feel happy about something,

So that's how we use positive ee.. we use emotions in a positive way.

Therefore ehm.. therefore regulating emotions, emotion regulation, is very important.

Okay. Emm.. I will to... I'm going to ask a question, maybe a little bit heart-wrenching.

So the teacher choose to teach emm.. students from primary grade, from primary school.

the way is you make ee you have to build appropriate teachers have appropriate teachers behavior.

Just the same when your task is failed you have the consequence...consequention of that your...your...what did...what you do...what you did.

Example 20:

And today, I would like you to express yourself, okay, so, when I say, when I raise your hand like this, so please, the higher I raise my hand, please shout as loud as you can, okay?

Example 21:

Alright, how do you feel? How did you feel? What do you feel? What did you feel about it?

Example 22:

Okay. Emm.. I will to... I'm going to ask a question, maybe a little bit heart-wrenching.

From the examples, it can be seen that there are some kinds of substitutions. On the example 20 the participant substituted the verb of a phrase. She changed *say* into *raise*. On the example 21, the participant changed the tenses of the sentences she uttered. She changed simple present tense into simple past tense. On the example 22, the participant tried to change the modals *will* into *am going to*.

The researchers believe that the participants had the awareness on grammatical mistakes they did while they were speaking (Fromkin, 1971, 1973, 1980). Therefore, the participants eventually changed the tenses of the sentences into the correct one and changed *will to* into *am going to*. It is because he knew that *will* cannot be followed by *to*.

However, the substitutions done by the participants do not entirely correct the mistakes they had made. On the example 20, the participant wanted to ask the audience to shout as loud as they can when she raised her hands. However, she changed a phrase *when I say* into *when I raise your hand* consequently the audience seemed to be confused a bit and they understood after the participant said a clear instruction and showed the example in the end.

Example 23:

So that's how we use positive ee.. we use emotions in a positive way.

A filled pause also appeared when the participant changed a phrase she uttered. On the example 23 the participant changed a phrase *we use positive* into *we use emotion in a positive way*. However, she did a filled pause *ee..* before finally she could change the phrase. In this case, the participant knew that she made a mistake and she were thinking for a second to get it correct.

Deletion

The researchers found that deletion has the smallest numbers of occurrences. However, this study still provides the explanation on how and why can these occur in participants' utterances. The evidences of deletion occurrences are presented in table 10.

Table 10. The Examples of Deletion

Disfluency Type	Examples
Deletion	<p><i>Selecting situation is situation when... emm.. So, emm.. to... emm.. In high school, mostly</i></p> <p><i>So ee.. In February of 2014, I... my relationship didn't work out.</i></p> <p><i>When..When teacher comes to class he, ee.. that teacher ee.. really prepare himself or herself that later in the class.</i></p> <p><i>That's good. So, I have ... So, this is inspired by the study of self-awareness because emotion, self-regulation, and self-awareness, and meta cognition are somehow related....</i></p> <p><i>We go yeah.. It's like you pour our emotions or the feelings.</i></p> <p><i>So, by this...at the...so it is like the pre-actional stage, we plan what we what we are going to do.</i></p> <p><i>Next please, yeah that is um the ee (moving) okay that is um the ee Dornyei and auto process model discovering that...</i></p>

Example 24:

*So ee.. In February of 2014, **I... my relationship** didn't work out.*

Example 25:

***We go yeah.. It's like you pour** our emotions or the feelings.*

Example 26:

*So, **by this...at the...so** it is like the pre-actional stage, we plan what we what we are going to do.*

From the examples, it can be seen that deletions done by the participants occurred by deleting an entire word or phrase and replacing it with a totally different phrase or sentence. Example 24 showed how the participant replaced the word *I* with *my relationship didn't work out*. The same case occurred on the example 25 in which the participant delete a phrase *we go yeah..* and replace it with *it's like you pour...* The example 26 shows that the participant did the

deletions for two times. He replaced a phrase *by this* with *at the* and eventually replaced it *with so it is like...*

Besides, some participants also did the deletions with a filled pause. While the participants were thinking of replacing the previous words with the phrases they implied to say, they made some filled pauses as shown at example 27 and 28.

Example 27:

Selecting situation is situation when... emm.. So, emm.. to... emm.. In high school, mostly.

Example 28:

*Next please, yeah that is **um the ee** (moving) **okay that is um the ee** Dornyei and auto process model discovering that...*

From the examples, the researchers found the same reason why the participants did the deletion. They might have been aware of their mistakes while they were uttering a word or phrase (Dell, 1986). Eventually, they replace the entire word or phrase with a totally different phrase or sentence.

Conclusion

From the investigation, the researchers found that the participants still produced speech disfluency while they were delivering the presentations. There were five disfluency types found in this study consisting of unfilled pause, filled pause, repetition, substitution, and deletion. Filled pause had the largest numbers of occurrence with the total 375 times. The second largest is unfilled pause with 179 occurrences. The third largest is repetition with 118 occurrences in total. The last two are substitution and deletion with the total 51 and 19 occurrences.

In producing unfilled pause and filled pause, the participants seemed to think of the words they were going to say. They made filled pause, such as *ee..*, *emm...*, *okay..*, *so..*, because they wanted to sustain the attention of the audience in the presentations. Therefore, they said these words rather than did not say anything at all (Clark & Brennan, 1991). The participants were also aware of their mistakes when they said the words or phrases. They changed or replaced them with the correct one (Fromkin, 1971, 1973, 1980; Dell, 1986). Therefore, they made substitutions and deletions.

The findings of the study provides an understanding of the disfluencies that are occurring so that EEMP students can be more aware of those disfluencies. Thus, they can correct it or at least begin by decreasing the frequency of those disfluencies. It has been found that EEMP students still have quite frequent disfluencies during their speech. By considering this, EEMP can provide some other programs or activities that are intended to develop students' speaking so that they are able to speak fluently. Besides, the researchers also recommend future researchers to explore more about disfluency in order to enrich the knowledge about it.

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HOSPITALITY ENGLISH FOR SPA THERAPISTS IN BANYAN TREE HOTELS AND RESORTS

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Abstract

This study is a preliminary study of research and design for hospitality English for SPA therapist in Banyan Tree Hotels and Resorts at Bintan Island. The purpose of this study is to help the English teacher to provide a successful English training since a good English proficiency used in the hospitality industry is obliged, especially for an international-five-star-hotel-brand. The nature of the study is qualitative using R&D approach. Since this is only a preliminary study, need analysis becomes the primary focus. The data were collected through interview and observation. The participants were people who are working in SPA department in Banyan Tree Bintan, such as SPA trainer, SPA therapist, and SPA manager.

Keywords: hospitality English, spa therapist, R&D, need analysis, English for specific purpose

Introduction

The use of English in hospitality industry is vital, most notably for an international-five-star-hotel-brand. In this case, English becomes a lingua franca between the hotel and its guests. The host of the hotel ought to know the guest's needs and thus the host is able to provide appropriate and excellent services for the guest. The idea to provide an excellent service to the guest becomes the main goal for a five-star international hotel chain since the reputation of the brand lies on it. However, the attempt to provide this kind of service may face some challenges. When the host does not have a good English proficiency, it may lead to unsatisfied service since communication between the interlocutors is hindered. The issue initiates researcher to conduct a need analysis study upon English training in an international hotel chain, Banyan Tree Bintan. It is in line with the researcher's occupation as an English Teacher in the hotel.

This current study specifically raises an issue upon English training program for spa therapist. According to Sinhaneti and Apichatrosjanakul (2012), spa is one of the integration of health and hospitality industry and its popularity is getting higher. This notion shows that spa industry is a promising business which can give a good profit. Smith Travel Research (Gibson, 2008, in Bodeker and Cohen, 2008) conducted a survey in US that spa in the luxury hotel contributed huge amount of revenue for the hotel. It means that spa as one of the facilities provided in the hotel is essential for a five-star-hotel-brand since it gives much money for

the hotel. Moreover, the spa industry in Asia has rapidly growth since the mid-1990s (Loh, 2008, in Bodeker & Cohen, 2008).

However, a successful spa business can be profitable for the hotel when it offers a good service beyond the treatments (Gibson, 2008, in Bodeker & Cohen, 2008). A good service can only be provided when the therapists understand what the guest's needs and want. This can only be achieved if there is a good communication between the therapist and the guest. In this case, the therapist's English proficiency becomes something that is essential for communication.

The problematic case above encourages the researcher to specify the study more on spa. Moreover, English training material for spa therapists are quite rare to find. Mostly, it is overlapping with English material for hotelier. Although it is under the umbrella field of hospitality industry, the function and use are different. Based on the literature observation, the source of English for spa therapist is limited. Therefore, the researcher conducts a need analysis study for spa therapist to identify and collect the information to prepare appropriate English training program for spa therapist in Banyan Tree Bintan.

English for Specific Purpose, English for Occupational Purposes and Hospitality English

According to Marra (2013), ESP (English for Specific Purposes) becomes a key concern to comprehend the role and practice of English in the workplace. It means that ESP exists to cover the needs of English related to job so that learners could directly practice and use the language which is in line with their jobs and needs. Hutchinson and Walter (1991) emphasize that "the foundation of all ESP is the simple question: Why does this learner need to learn a foreign language?" (p.19). The notion shows that the goal of ESP is to meet the learner's demand upon language to help them to do their work properly. Therefore, learner could work well.

In addition, Stevens (1988, in Kim, 2008) states the four absolute characteristics of ESP. "ESP consists of English language teaching which is (a) designed to meet specified needs of the learner, (b) related in content (in its theme and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities, (c) centred on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and analysis of the discourse, and (d) in contrast with 'general English' (as cited in Dudley-Evans & St John, 1999, p.3)" (Kim, 2008). Based on those two notions (from Hutchinson and Walter, and Stevens), ESP has its own goal which is based on the learner's needs. All materials, contents, and language use emerge from the learner, what learner wants and needs to support them while working. Moreover, all those things should describe the real situation in learner's workplace.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1999, in Kim, 2008) classifies ESP into first, EAP (English for Academic Purposes), which covers EST (English for Science and Technology), EMP (English for Medical Purposes), and ELP (English for Legal Purposes), and then the second one, EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), which covers EPP (English for Professional Purposes) and EVP (English for Vocational Purposes. Meanwhile, David Craver (1983, in Negrea, 2010) categorizes ESP into three, namely, English as a restricted language, English for Academic and Occupational Purposes, and English with specific

topics. On the other hand, Basturkmen (2010) shows the areas of ESP teaching in the Table 1.

Table 1. Areas of ESP Teaching

Branch	Sub Branches	Example
English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP)	English for academic writing
	English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)	English for law studies
English for Professional Purposes (EPP)	English for General Professional Purposes (EGPP)	English for health care sector
	English for Specific Professional Purposes (ESPP)	English for nursing
English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)	English for General Occupational Purposes (EGOP)	English for hospitality industry
	English for Specific Occupational Purposes (ESOP)	English for Hotel receptionists

Meanwhile, Hutchinson and Walters (1991) mention that there is no clear distinction between EAP and EOP (see also Negrea, 2010). However, both strands have the same goals at the end, which is to achieve particular purpose. Thus, both strands are under the umbrella approach of ESP (see Hutchinson and Walters, 1991; David Carter, 1983, in Negrea 2010; Ardeo, 2012; Kucherenko, 2013).

Since the main focus of this study is related to English training for spa therapists, the researcher identifies that ESP approach employed in this current study is under the branch of EOP. According to Basturkmen (2010), it is specifically under the sub branch of ESOP. Kucherenko (2013) defines “EOP is the language in a broad variety of work-related settings” (p.4). In line with Kucherenko’s definition, Khan et al. (2011) clearly state that “learners learn English according to their professional needs which are sometimes before starting their profession as a pre-experience or mid their work as simultaneous or after starting their work as a post-experience” (p.633). Both notions depict that EOP better provides and helps learner to conduct the work well.

Negrea (2010) reaches a conclusion that the successful communication in a professional target setting includes three skills. First, worker has an ability to use certain characteristic in occupational context. Second, the skill used is more generalized set of academic skill. The third, worker is able to use the daily language of informal talk to communicate effectively regardless of occupational context.

Specifically, the current study classifies the EOP which is related to hospitality for spa therapist. According to Blue and Harun (2003), hospitality language encompasses for stages, namely arrival, familiarization, engagement and departure. They also clearly state that the language involves “host and guests as both speakers and hearers” (p.77). In hospitality language, the skills include the way or process to address a person, solicit and give necessary information, respond to questions/requests, use prompts, use gesture, deal with difficult customers, and to appease complaints.

ADDIE Model in Instructional Design and Need Analysis

Hutchinson and Walter (1991) defining course design is a process of interpreting the raw data to produce series of teaching and learning experiences. In ESP, designing a course is important since the nature of ESP itself is for providing a course that is in line and appropriate for particular students. Hutchinson and Walter (1991) even state that designing a course is “a matter of asking question in order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent process of syllabus design, materials writing, classroom teaching and evaluation” (p.21).

The most prominent systematic approach in the course design is called Instructional Design (ID). It is first introduced by Barson (1967, in Dousay and Logan, 2009) and defined as “a process that can help improve the design and development of courses and course content.” (Northern Illinois University, n.d.). The most popular ID model used by a lot of language designers are ADDIE model (see Aldoobie, 2015 & Danks, 2011). ADDIE stands for Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation upon learning materials and activities. According to Mc.Griff (2000), analysis refers to the step on defining what is to be learner. Design comes to a process to determine how it is to be learner. Development is where the materials are produced. Implementation is a process of installing the project in the real situation. Then, Evaluation is a process to decide the effectiveness of the instruction.

As explained previously, the current paper is only a preliminary research therefore the main step which is mostly discussed is the analysis phase. This phase is the basis for the other phases and conducted before the course begins. The goal of analysis phase is to investigate the main reason of performance gap (Branch, 2009). McGriff (2000) the technique employed within this phase is specific such as need analysis, job analysis and task analysis. In the ESP, the most prominent one is need analysis.

Need Analysis (NA) is the process of identifying of language and skills used to determine and refine the content for the ESP course (Basturkmen, 2010). Khan et al. (2011) add that NA collects necessary information for the course. Flowerdew (2013) establishes that NA covers the “what” and “how” is going to conduct. Hutchinson and Walter (1991) entail the Kipling’s ‘honest serving man’ to formulate basic questions to start design a course by asking things to learn from student’s and designer’s aspects, people involving in the course, the place to conduct a course, time setting of the course and the process of learning itself. Hutchinson and Walter (1991) advise that the nature of particular target and learning situation is conducted through NA using some question words, namely who, why, where, and when.

Method

To investigate the main problem facing by the spa therapists in Banyan Tree Hotels and Resorts (BTHR) in Bintan while they are learning English, the researcher employed R&D (Research and Development) approach. R&D is “a process used to develop and validate educational products” (Borg & Gall, 1983:772). However, the researcher only limited it to the preliminary study of the R&D. It is because R&D is a huge study having a lot of details to seek, explain,

and support. That is why a single article is not enough to cover all the details. In addition, the researcher wanted to find out the real problem before designing a course and its product so that the researcher could provide an appropriate English training for the participants.

To collect the data, the researcher interviewed three subjects. To select the subjects and obtain meaningful data, purposive sampling was chosen. According to Gray et al. (2007), purposive sampling is “the researcher purposely selects certain groups or individuals for their relevance to the issue being studied” (p. 105). The first subject was spa manager of BTHR in Bintan, hereafter called as Subject 1. The second subject was spa trainer of BTHR in Bintan, hereafter called as Subject 2. The third subject was one of the spa therapists in BTHR in Bintan.

The interview itself was conducted on 8 September 2017. Before conducting an interview, the researcher also conducted observation starting from April to August, a period when the researcher also had an English training program for associates from various departments in BTHR in Bintan. In that training, there were some therapists as participants. Thus, the researcher could observe them while teaching. Moreover, the researcher also had ever become a trial or model guest on 11 July 2017. As a trial guest, the researcher was considered as the trial guest and served as a guest from the beginning until the end of the treatment entitled “Javanese Massage”. The setting of both interview and observation was at Banyan Tree Hotels and Resorts in Bintan. The instrument employed during the interview was interview checklist. Meanwhile, the observation employed observation checklist.

Findings and Discussion

According to all experts of ESP (Hutchinson & Walter, 1991; Stervens, 1988, in Kim, 2008; Mara, 2013), the foundation of conducting ESP comprehends the participants’ needs to provide a good English training. Therefore, the participants could use the English language appropriately and straight to the target of their work. Based on the notion, the researcher attempted to understand what the spa therapist’s responsibilities are.

According to the interview with the Subject 1 in BTHR, the researcher found out that a spa therapist has a responsibility to handle the spa treatment. Moreover, they have to make sure that all the equipment and room setup meet the standard of BTHR. In addition, the researcher also obtained the detail information from Subject 2 that spa therapist has to introduce herself, explain the product used in the treatment, mention the sequence of treatment, check the guest’s medical condition, and then check the guest’s satisfaction during the treatment as well. It shows that spa therapist will have much time to have direct contact with the guest. It should be noted as well that all guests coming to spa in BTHR are 99% foreigners, which is 1,000 guests per month. Therefore, English becomes a must for all spa therapists.

However, the researcher found out that the English proficiency of the new spa therapists need to be improved. Based on the observation, the spa therapist could speak English however it was only for procedural. It seems like memorization. Moreover, the pronunciation also becomes the big issue. The

results of the observation are also in line with the results of the interview. Subject 2 disclosed that the average TOEIC score for the new hire was still quite low, still below 250.

When the spa therapists could not communicate well in English, the hotel doesn't not only receive complain but it would be dangerous also for the guest. Spa therapist has a duty to analyse the skin type and to do the right treatment. When there is a gap or language barrier between the therapist and the guest, it may lead to the malpractice of the treatment. In this case, the goal cannot be achieved. This is in line with Blue and Harun (2003) that hospitality language should engage both speaker and hearer and gap should be minimalized.

After knowing the situation from both observation and interview, the researcher attempted to go deeper to discern the needs of spa therapist upon English. In this case, the researcher would like to answer the 'what' and 'how' in ESP (Flowerdew, 2013), and also 'who', 'why', 'where', and 'when' (Hutchinson & Walter, 1991).

In the current research, the 'who' was the spa therapist working in BTHR in Bintan. The spa therapists itself were categorized into some levels. Based on the interview conducted with the Subject 1 and Subject 2, there would be spa therapists who were still new hire. It means that they were still in the probation period, having a training for 4 months before BTHR hired them as permanent associates. Next, spa therapists who were considered junior, the junior spa therapists were those who had already become a permanent associate but working there not quite long. The senior spa therapist was "those who just come back from overseas because of the experience, they are considered as senior." (Atin, personal communication, 2017).

Next, the 'why' in this current study is addressed to the importance of learning English for the spa therapist. First, as explained several times in the previous section, 99% of the guests were foreigners. Second, it is to increase the revenue by doing up selling. Third, all materials used in the spa academy (where therapists having training for doing treatment) were English, as stated in the following statement.

"They need it because they will do the Training in English. They should [sic] because every material would be in English. Our materials are from Phuket. Of course, they send it to us in English. When the trainers teach them, they have to speak in English to ensure that the therapists also understand. I mean they know the treatment also in English." (Subject 1)

"They still need the English training for the senior one. They have to [sic] up selling their products. If the therapists can up sell the treatments to our guest, it will increase our revenue then. Normally, Angsana spa has a lot of outlets overseas, they also need to improve their English because after one or two years, they have to [sic] deploy to another outlets. They will meet a lot of people from other range of English." (Subject 2)

For the 'where' and 'when', the researcher wrapped it out under the field 'setting'. The English training for spa therapist should be conducted both in the

class and outlet. Both Subject 2 and Subject 3 preferred to have it in both. Their consideration was for the sake of variety activities. Subject 2 thought that learning English class in the outlet all the times would make them bored. Subject 2 thought that working in the outlet and then learning in the outlet would make them feel bored since they had to work and learn in the same place.

“I think mix is better because if you do all training in the outlet is getting bored. Work there, learn there. I think we need more variety.” (Subject 2)

This is in line with what the Subject 3 that having a class both in the outlet and classroom would increase their focuses since they would avoid boredom. Then, regarding the time setting, both Subject 1 and Subject 2 would agree to have English training in the morning. The Subject 1 even stated clearly as in the following.

“It’s better to have regular time. So, I can inform to the both outlet to release this staff. I think it’s better also for them to know their schedule when they can join the training. If it’s one hour, I can say, we can start on 12 O’clock and they can finish by 1. So, they have enough time to change and have their meals and to start their work at 2 O’clock. Maybe, 11.30 to 12.30 is also better. So that, you can take a break.” (Subject 1)

“Better to have an English class on weekday. Monday to Thursday. Friday to Sunday is already weekend.” (Subject 3)

In addition, the class itself should be conducted during the weekdays. Spa therapists couldn’t be busy in weekdays. Therefore, they could be more focus and frequently attended the class.

Next, the ‘what’ articulated by the researcher was topic discussed in the English training for spa therapist. The topics should be related to spa, such as medical health or condition, parts of the body, how to do up selling, and etc. However, the topic couldn’t be limited only for spa. It should also entail the daily communication or even small talk.

“I think it’s good if the topics are varied. When they handle the guest in outlet, sometimes, we will face with the talkative guest. If we only concern on spa, they will be blank because the only things that they know are only procedural things or spa. More variety is good but it should be related to spa also.” (Subject 2)

“Sometimes, I have some difficulties to handle the guest while they are speaking English. It happens when they don’t ask about the spa. I have some difficulties when I do understand it, I can’t speak. I am still confused to answer when they don’t ask about spa.” (Subject 3)

This thing is in line with the theory arises by Negrea, 2010 that worker is able to use the daily language of informal talk to communicate effectively regardless of occupational context. The objective is to make them more natural in speaking and help the spa therapist to cope with the spontaneous condition.

The last part, the 'how' in this study was related to the how the English training was conducted. Since English training was a part of the training program of BTHR, the hotel standard should also entail. In this case, the class could only be conducted when there are 5 active participants at least.

Conclusion

Based on the need analysis, the researcher found that having an English training for spa therapist in BTHR in Bintan was crucial. It could significantly add the language and communicative skill of the spa therapist. Moreover, it could increase more revenue and profit to the hotel since it would increase the service of the operational associates.

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DEVELOPING TASK-BASED LEARNING MODEL FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING MEDIA COURSE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM

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Abstract

Language Teaching Media is one of the obligatory courses for the fifth semester students in the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University. It provides the students with theories on language teaching media and opportunities to create innovative teaching media. This study aims to develop a learning model for Language Teaching Media course. Therefore, this study uses Research and Development method proposed by Borg & Gall's. There are ten steps in the Research and Development method, namely: (1) Research and Information Collecting, (2) Planning, (3) Developing Preliminary Form of Product, (4) Preliminary Field Testing, (5) Main Product Revision, (6) Main Field Testing, (7) Operational Product Revision, (8) Operational Field Testing, (9) Final Product Revision and (10) Dissemination and Implementation. Since the aim of this study is to develop the learning model for Language Teaching Media Course, only three out of ten steps of the R&D model were employed, namely: Research and Information Collecting, Planning, and Developing Preliminary Form of Product. The developed learning model would be useful to enable the students to develop and utilize media to facilitate language teaching using their creativity and innovation.

Keywords: design, learning model, language teaching media

Introduction

The students who are trained to become future teachers need to know the theories of language teaching media. Most importantly, they should possess the skill and ability to create language teaching media which are effective and engaging for their future students. Therefore, Language Teaching Media course plays an important role in preparing the students to become innovative and creative teachers. Materials taught in the Language Teaching Media course varied from time to time. Lecturers have the right to modify the materials they teach to the students regardless of what had been stated on the syllabus given at the beginning of the course. As a result, students from some classes might receive different range of materials from other classes taught by different lecturers. This study is important because it aims to develop a task-based learning model which is particularly designed for the Language Teaching Media students of English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University. This study

attempts to answer the following question: How is the task-based learning model for Language Teaching Media Course in English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University developed?

Task-Based Learning

Task based learning is an approach which uses tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching (Richard and Rodgers, 2001). Nunan (1989) defines tasks as activities which can stand alone as fundamental units and which require comprehending, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language, while the attention is principally paid to meanings rather than to forms. Tasks provide the necessary exposure and also opportunities of language use needed for acquiring the target language because the tasks are normally done in pairs or in groups. Exposure happens when they listen to the teacher's instruction, to their friends' speaking, and also when they have to read handouts to complete the tasks. Learners will acquire the language faster and more efficiently when they have to communicate (Willis, 1996). The framework of Task-Based Learning consists of three phases: pre-task, task cycle and language focus. Pre-task phase introduces the class to the learning topic. The point of this phase is to boost students' confidence in handling the task, and give them something to fall back on. Task cycle phase is where the learners start working in small groups or in pairs to achieve the goals of the task. Teachers should encourage learners to work independently and to communicate on their own to achieve the set goals by keeping minimum interference on learners' work. Language focus phase allows a closer study of some of the specific features such as unfamiliar words, structures, or pronunciation that naturally occur in the task cycle. By this point, the learners will have already worked with the language and processed it for meaning, so they are ready to focus on the specific language forms that carry that meaning.

Language Teaching Media Course

Students in the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University are obliged to take Language Teaching Media course in their fifth semester. Language Teaching Media is designed to provide the students with theories on language teaching media and opportunity to create innovative teaching media. On completing the course, the students will be able to understand the concept, characteristics, and purposes of media for teaching, utilize conventional media for teaching, produce pictures to produce printed media, produce audio file to create media for teaching, utilize word processors software for teaching, utilize presentation software for teaching and utilize some internet facilities for teaching.

Learning Model

Prabandari, Aji, and Yulia (2016) states that "ESP is designed for specific needs of English learning" (p. 84). Winataputra in Sugiyanto (2008) defines learning model as a conceptual framework that contains steps that are arranged systematically in order to organize the classroom activities so that the learning objectives can be achieved. Learning model also functions as the guideline for the teaching and learning activities. Many experts have developed various types of learning model to make more effective learning. The first type of learning model is Contextual Learning Model in which teachers are encouraged to connect the materials that they teach with the real-life situation that the students encounter in

real lives. The second learning model type is Cooperative Learning Model. It encourages students to cooperate with each other in pairs or in small groups to achieve the learning objectives. The third type of learning model is Quantum Learning Model. It emerges as the model that combines different neurology and cognitive psychology views. The fourth learning model is the Integrated Learning Model that integrates several subjects in it. This learning model encourages the students to be active participants of learning by independently searching and finding the holistic principles by themselves either individually or in groups. The last type of learning model is Problem Based Learning Model which focuses more on the process. This learning model prioritizes what the students think while they are doing the activities instead of the final results of the work. The teachers' role as the facilitators to give more opportunities to the students to think and to learn how to solve the problems on their own.

Method

The method used was Educational Research and Development (R & D) method. There are ten major steps in the R & D cycle; they are Research and Information Collecting, Planning, Developing Preliminary Form of Product, Preliminary Field Testing, Main Product Revision, Main Field Testing, Operational Product Revision, Operational Field Testing, Final Product Revision and Dissemination and Implementation (Borg and Gall, 1983). Since the aim of this study is to develop the learning model for Language Teaching Media Course, this research only employed the former three cycles of R & D. To summarize all of the three steps of the R&D above, the chart of the R&D model cycle is presented in the following figure.

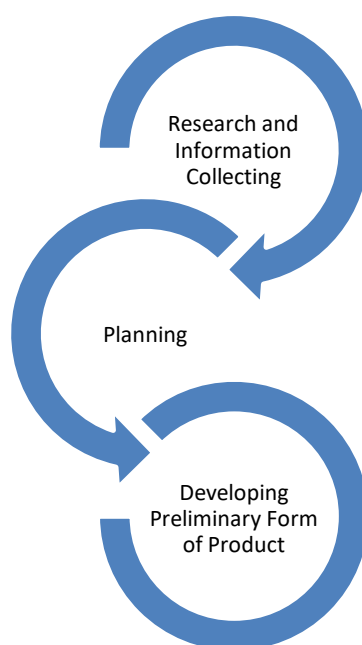


Figure 1. The Former Three Steps of R & D Cycle

The first step of R & D cycle is Research and Information Collecting. This step aims to collect findings and useful information for developing the task-based learning model. In this step, the underlying theories supporting the study were collected from the Internet, books and the former syllabus of the course. Some lecturers of Language Teaching Media course were also interviewed to obtain insight on the relevance of the topics that have been listed in the former syllabus. In addition, needs analysis questionnaires were also distributed to the fifth semester students taking Language Teaching Media course to gain opinion on possible new topics to be included in the developed task-based learning model.

The second step of R & D cycle is Planning. Planning included defining skills, stating objectives and determining the sequence of the task-based learning model. This step aims to construct the framework of the developed task-based learning model. In this step, the framework of the learning model was developed by developing the syllabus. Learning materials and activities were then selected based on their appropriateness with the goal of the course.

The third step of R & D cycle is Developing of Preliminary Form of Product. After the initial planning had been completed, the next step in the R & D cycle was to build a preliminary form of the educational product (Borg & Gall, 1983). The task-based learning model for Language Teaching Media course was developed here. Each of the organized subject contents was developed into learning materials.

The participants of this study are two lecturers of Language Teaching Media as well as sixty fifth semester students who are enrolled in Language Teaching Media course in English Language Education Study Program, Sanata Dharma University. The research instruments used in this study were a set of open-ended questions and needs analysis questionnaire. The set of open-ended questions was used to interview two lecturers of Language Teaching Media course. The interview aimed to obtain insights on the topics that should be presented in Language Teaching Media course from the lecturers who have been teaching the course for several years. The needs analysis questionnaire aimed to collect information on the learners' needs and interests, whose results would serve as the basis for developing the task-based learning model.

Findings and Discussion

Research and Information Collecting

The Research and Information Collecting was conducted in July 2017. Three activities were conducted in this cycle. The first activity was gathering necessary information on the nature of Language Teaching Media course as well as the principles of Task-Based Learning. According to Buku Panduan Akademik PBI USD, Language Teaching Media course aims at developing students' ability to creatively and innovatively develop and utilize varieties of media to facilitate language teaching. In the initial process of learning, students are to explore knowledge of the concepts, nature or characteristics, and purposes of media in general and media for language teaching. Having sufficient theoretical foundation, students are expected to creatively and innovatively develop media for language

teaching in the following categories: conventional media, word processor, digital audio production, digital video production, and some internet facilities for learning.

Nunan (2004) states that the main characteristic of Task-Based Learning lies in the experiential learning which becomes the central point of learning. In task based learning, tasks are central in immersing learners in a meaningful communication using the target language, which in consequence, promotes learning. Nunan (1989) defines tasks as activities which can stand alone as fundamental units and which require comprehending, manipulating, or interacting in authentic language, while the attention is principally paid to meanings rather than to forms. Tasks provide the necessary exposure and also opportunities of language use needed for acquiring the target language because the tasks are normally done in pairs or in groups.

The second activity was interviewing the lecturers who have been teaching the course for several years to obtain insight on the relevance of the topics, activities and materials with the current demand in teaching profession. The interviews were conducted in August 2017. The results of the interview show that the lecturers agreed that the aim of the course as well as the topics offered should be updated to meet the demand of teaching along with the increasing implementation of technology in the teaching and learning process. Some of the topics are better replaced with the new and trending topics that are more suitable with the current skills demand in language teaching. The lecturers also had the same opinion that the activities done in class should be more student-centered instead of teacher-centered. The students should be given more time to talk and explore the topics. In terms of materials, the lecturers agreed that the materials should be made more practical and not focusing merely on theories. The suggestions gathered were to change the aim and topics to be more updated, to alter the role of the lecturer into a facilitator and to give the students more chances to showcase their ability, and to renew the materials by updating the sources used.

The last activity was distributing needs analysis questionnaires to the fifth semester students taking Language Teaching Media course to figure out their needs, lacks and wants. The questionnaires were also useful in gaining opinion on possible new topics to be included in the developed task-based learning model of the Language Teaching Media course. The questionnaires were distributed in September 2017. There were three essay questions that require them to elaborate their answers. The first question was about the topics that the students believed should be included in the Language Teaching Media course syllabus. Some of their answers covered the topics that were already listed on the syllabus. Nevertheless, there were a lot of new topics proposed by the students, such as Prezi and Kahoot! The second question was about the difficulties that the students experienced in the class. Majority of the students stated that they had difficulties in applying the theories that they learned into practice. The third question was about the suggestions the students could propose to improve the teaching and learning process in Language Teaching Media course. Most of the students suggested that they should be given more time to explore and practice using the applications by themselves. Some of the students also mentioned to add tutorials

on each topic which would be conducted by a group of students. They also proposed to use an online platform from which they can access and download all necessary materials. The following table presents the summary of the results of the needs analysis questionnaire.

Table 1. The Results Summary of the Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Questions	Responses
Please mention the topics that you think are necessary to be learned in Language Teaching Media course.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Traditional media • Whiteboard use • Realia • Introduction to teaching practice • Canva • Corel Draw • Audacity • Prezi • Microsoft Publisher • Google Apps • Kahoot! • Blogs • Edmodo • Schoology • Quizlet
What are the difficulties that you encounter during your study in Language Teaching Media course?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Putting theories into practice • Too little time to practice • Too much theories • Time management • Too many individual assignments • Tired
Please give suggestions on what things need to be done to improve the teaching and learning process in Language Teaching Media course.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More time to explore the applications • More time to practice using the applications • Provide tutorials for every topic • Group tutorials • Group assignments • Group presentations • Use an online platform • Cloud storage as the source of all handouts

Planning

In this cycle, the goal, the course objectives, the learning topics and activities that suit the learners' needs and interests were determined. Some of them were taken from the syllabus which is provided by the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University, and some others were added into the developed learning model from the results of the interview as well as the needs analysis questionnaires in the first cycle of R & D.

The goal of the developed learning model would be to enable the students to develop and utilize media to facilitate language teaching using their creativity and innovation. After the goal of the developed learning model was set, the course objectives were developed. Statements of specific objectives are the most important aspect of planning a research-based educational product. The course objectives of the learning model are stated on Table 2.

Table 2. Course Objectives of the Learning Model

No.	Course Objectives
1.	Students understand the concept, characteristics, and purposes of media for teaching.
2.	Students are able to utilize conventional media for teaching.
3.	Students are able to produce pictures as printed media for teaching.
4.	Students are able to create audio files as audio media for teaching.
5.	Students are able to utilize Microsoft software for teaching.
6.	Students are able to utilize presentation software for teaching.
7.	Students are able to utilize online applications for teaching.

After the course objectives were determined, the next step was to develop the learning topics of the developed learning model. the learning topics were derived from the course objectives. The organization of the learning topics are presented on Table 3 below.

Table 3. Learning Topics of the Learning Model

No.	Learning Topics
1.	Concept, Characteristics, and Purposes of Media for Teaching
2.	Chalkboard Use in Classroom
3.	Introduction to Traditional Media in English Language Teaching
4.	Utilizing Traditional Media in Teaching Practice
5.	Visual Media in English Language Teaching: Canva
6.	Audio Media in English Language Teaching: Audacity
7.	Presentation Software in English Language Teaching: Prezi
8.	Microsoft Software for English Language Teaching: Publisher
9.	Google Apps for English Language Teaching: Google Form
10.	Evaluation Application in English Language Teaching: Kahoot!

Developing Preliminary Form of Product

In this cycle, the learning model was designed. The platform and the activities for each topic were selected according to their suitability with the attainment of the goal, course objectives and the learning topics as well as with the principles of Task-Based Learning.

The online platform chosen was the Course Management System (CMS) Moodle. There are two main reasons of choosing Moodle to be the online platform used for the developed learning model. The first reason was because Moodle has been provided by Sanata Dharma University as the online platform for all courses in Sanata Dharma University in the form of ExeLSa. The second reason was due to the five principles of Moodle that supported its implementation

as the platform for the developed learning model. Those five principles are interactivity, usability (flexibility), content appropriateness, effectiveness and performance (Hartoyo, 2008).

The activities for each topic are designed to limit the teacher talk so as to give the students more opportunities which they need to explore the topics and succeed in creating the teaching media by themselves. Both individual tasks and group tasks were designed to give the students much exposure and hands-on experience on the topics learned in Language Teaching Media course.

The first topic was Concept, Characteristics, and Purposes of Media for Teaching. The students were required to do a jigsaw activity. Students were divided into groups and required to read a specific chapter of a book on the topic which were different from another group. The group should then discuss and make sure that they possessed common understanding on that specific chapter. Afterward, the students should make a new group consisting of a member of different groups, then each of them should share their understanding on their assigned chapter to the member of the other groups. The session ended with a whole-class discussion facilitated by the lecturer.

The second topic was Chalkboard Use in Classroom. For this topic, the students were required to do an observation using a provided checklist on how a lecturer uses the whiteboard in his or her teaching. The students were then asked to share the results to their classmates in groups. They discussed about the good practices and what things they could learn as well as things they would like to improve in terms of using the whiteboard for their own teaching.

The third topic was Introduction to Traditional Media in English Language Teaching. In this topic, the students were divided into groups and then given random traditional media. In groups, they had to come up with some ideas on what topics they could teach using the provided traditional media and how to use them. Each group would then share their ideas to the class for obtaining useful feedback from their classmates as well as from the lecturer.

The fourth topic was Utilizing Traditional Media in Teaching Practice. This topic took several meetings to finish. The students were divided into groups and asked to prepare a 45-minute teaching simulation for different levels assigned to them using a lottery. Each of the group member should take turn to be the teacher and taught their classmates a specific topic of their own choice using only the traditional media. Each teaching simulation was ended by a feedback session from the whole class and lecturer.

The fifth topic was Visual Media in English Language Teaching using Canva in particular. This topic would start with a presentation on a selected journal article on the topic to expose the students to the use of Canva for teaching conducted by various researchers. After the presentation, there would be a short tutorial performed by the group on how to use Canva to produce printed media that can be used for teaching. The rest of the students were then given time to explore using Canva on their own and asked to create a Canva product by the end of the meeting.

The sixth topic was Audio Media in English Language Teaching. The selected software was Audacity. The group in charge of this topic would begin by

presenting the journal article on the use of Audacity for teaching, which was followed by a brief tutorial on the steps to create audio files using Audacity. The lecturer would then give a task to be accomplished as a group. The groups were required to submit their finished tasks by uploading them onto ExeLSa.

The seventh topic was Presentation Software in English Language Teaching. Prezi was chosen as the software to be studied in this topic due to its booming popularity. This meeting was also started by a presentation about a journal article on the use of Prezi in teaching. It was then continued by a tutorial on the steps to create a Prezi presentation lead by the group of students in charge for this topic. All of the students were required to make a Prezi presentation about themselves to be presented individually to the class.

The eighth topic was Microsoft Software for English Language Teaching. The Microsoft software that would be chosen in particular was Microsoft Publisher. The group in charge of this topic presented a journal article discussing the use of Microsoft Publisher for teaching. The group then conducted a tutorial session for the class on the use of Microsoft Publisher to design the layout of a module.

The ninth topic was Google Apps for English Language Teaching. Due to the limitation of time, the class would focus only on one of the Google Apps which is Google Form. Presentation on a journal article about Google Form was conducted and followed by a tutorial on creating a Google Form lead by the group of students in charge for this topic.

The tenth topic was Evaluation Application in English Language Teaching. Kahoot! was selected to be the highlight of this topic. The same as the previous topics, the group in charge started by giving a presentation on a journal article about the use of Kahoot! for teaching English. After that, they gave a tutorial to the rest of the class on the steps to use Kahoot!

Conclusion

This study aims to develop a Task-Based Learning model for Language Teaching Media course, one of the obligatory courses for the fifth semester students in the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University. Therefore, this study uses the first three cycles of Research and Development method proposed by Borg & Gall's. The three cycles are (1) Research and Information Collecting, (2) Planning, and (3) Developing Preliminary Form of Product.

In the Research and Information Collecting cycle, important documents were collected to establish a foundation on the nature of Language Teaching Media course as well as Task-Based Learning. The lecturers of Language Teaching Media course were interviewed and needs analysis questionnaires were distributed to the students who were enrolled in the course. In the Planning cycle, the goal of the course, the objectives of the course, as well as the learning topics of the course were formulated. In the Developing Preliminary Form of Product cycle, the activities that would be conducted in each learning topic of the course were designed.

The study only uses the former three steps of R & D. Future researchers are suggested to validate the developed learning model by implementing it in real classroom to measure its effectiveness and improve it by making necessary adjustments to help the students achieve the goal and objectives of the course more effectively.

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MATERIALS AND (LANGUAGE) LEARNING ENVIRONMENT BASED ON MONTESSORI CONCEPTS

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Abstract

Montessori Education is widely spread in almost all countries in the world. Even though this school is meant for all kinds of learners including “normal” learners, the Montessori education concepts used in Montessori schools will be very supportive education for children with special needs. Therefore, the schools which adopt Montessori education concepts can facilitate inclusion, especially with the concepts of ‘I can do it myself.’ Inclusive education needs to be carefully prepared and implemented by schools. The movement brings about some challenges for teachers. This paper explores the environment and materials based on Montessori education concepts. The environment and materials are suitable for all types of learners and thus can be an option to be implemented in the inclusive education setting. Teaching materials rooted in Montessori education concepts indeed cater all ages and embrace the needs of all students.

Keywords: inclusive education, environment, learning materials, Montessori education concept

Introduction

Dealing with the movement of inclusive education, today’s teachers have to meet the “diverse needs of all students” (Baker, 2005, p. 51) including those with special needs. And that is not easy. There are many aspects to think about to implement teaching in the inclusive education. Lapp, Flood, Fisher, Sax, and Pumpian (1996, p. 580) pointed out some questions, fears, and assumptions faced by the teachers; how to support students with all types of disabilities, whether they are qualified to address learnings, emotional, and physical challenges, whether they are cheating the students with disabilities, or cheating other students academically or socially (1996, p. 580). They further concluded that those teachers encounter personal dilemma; they embrace the philosophy but have difficulties with the implementation.

In fact, these kinds of fear of cheating the students with disabilities, or cheating other students academically or socially should not hinder the implementation of the inclusive education since there is a clear statement from UNESCO about the curriculum flexibility mentioning that “28. Curricula should be adapted to children’s needs, not vice-versa. Schools should therefore provide

curricular opportunities to suit children with different abilities and interests.” And “29. Children with special needs should receive additional instructional support in the context of regular curriculum not a different curriculum” (p. 22).

Lapp et al. (1996, p. 580) state that there were some labels of integration model of education, namely “full inclusion, inclusive education, heterogeneous schooling, or supported education.” However, in this paper, any of those labels are name inclusive education only.

Many studies have revealed different successful and fail stories related to inclusive education and still there have been pros and cons on this concept of education; among others are studies done by Roger, Soodak, and Norwich. Roger (2007, p. 55) mentions some parents’ negative feeling resulted from the expectation of mainstream education. Soodak (2003) and Norwich (2014) mention the benefits of inclusion related to teachers’ flexibility to identify classroom management policies and practices that promote diversity and community. Department for Education and Skills of the United Kingdom (2004) as mentioned by Hodgkinson (n.d., p. 253) underlined that the “major success criterion of inclusion policy was that learning environment should value and welcome all children.” One of the education concepts whose learning environment obviously welcome all children is Montessori Education concepts.

Theory

Gutek mentions that Montessori education is based on “the liberty of the pupils in their spontaneous manifestations” (2004, p.108). A Montessori education is an educational approach developed by Italian physician and educator Maria Montessori. The reason why students with special needs develop successfully when learning using Montessori concept is that the concepts developed by Dr. Maria Montessori are based on her “continuous observation of the movements and abilities of children with all manner of social, emotional, physical and cognitive disabilities” (Fidler, 2007, p. 36). She, therefore, designed specific “pieces of apparatus to stimulate sensory-motor activities through which children’s brains and muscles would work in integrated coordination, resulting in better self-regulation, social skills, confidence and independent thought and action” (Fidler, 2007, p. 36).

With her background in medical area, Maria Montessori “developed a deep interest in children with learning disabilities” (CasaVera Montessori School, 2007). Montessori believed in the value of manipulative materials and age-sensory stimulation in helping disabled students. She created a very different environment. “The new environment empowered her disabled students to take care of themselves and learn sufficient skills to pass a public examination for “normal” children” (CasaVera Montessori School, 2007). Therefore, children with special needs may benefit from Montessori educational philosophy and carefully structured Montessori environment.

Montessori philosophy covers many aspects. However, this paper is only going to describe materials and environment set in Montessori Education concept and explain why they are suitable for certain types of learning disabilities. In addition, the discussion is limited to materials rooted from the Montessori

education concepts for three types of disabilities namely hearing impairment, dyslexia, and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD).

Theory Application

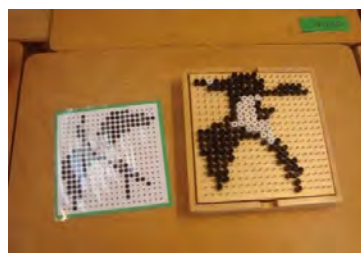
Education environment setting in Montessori education concept

Montessori believed that moving and learning were inseparable. Therefore, learners must involve their entire body and use all their senses in the process of learning. They need to be given opportunities in the learning process for looking, listening, smelling, touching, tasting, and moving her body (American Montessori Society, 2016). That is why the environment is also set to facilitate the belief.

The environment of Montessori education is commonly in the same design in any Montessori school. For specific additional environment setting related to each disability, if any, will be elaborated under each further section. Gutek (2004, pp. 108 -110) describes the general Montessori education environment setting as follows. There should be enough playground with a garden. There is open-air space to have direct communication with the schoolroom. The furniture of the classes is designed for certain purpose and is very easy for young learners to move. There should be tables for two children as well as for one child if they need to work alone. It is also facilitated with a washstand equipment, upper and lower shelves. The classes are provided with a series of long low cupboard for the reception of the didactic materials. And the rooms are equipped with attractive pictures. The classroom should present not only “social progress but also universal human progress and are closely related to the elevation of the idea of motherhood, to the progress of woman and to the protection of her offspring” (p. 110).



A



B



C



D

Figure 1. Some Environment Settings in Montessori Education (Private Collection)
A. Shelves to Store the Materials, B. Examples of Materials, C. Student's Story Time with Circle Seat Arrangement, D. Another Shelf to Store the Materials

Montessori Materials for Three Different Disability Types

This section explores Montessori materials for learners with hearing impairment, dyslexia, and Attention Deficit Hiperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Hearing impairment is a degree of deafness (Fidler, 2010, p. 42). Learners with this disability have problems with language and communication (Fidler, 2010). To help them in learning the language and to communicate, Montessori materials called Cued Speech can be beneficial. In many other educational concepts, lip-reading activities will be used. However, if the communication is learned through lip-reading activities, the learners will not learn as meaningful as through cued speech.

Fidler mentioned that “Lip-reading involves a lot of guess-work and is very tiring” (2010). Whereas, using cued speech, learners can comprehend “the whole of the spoken language” without guessing. So, how does the cued speech work? It clarifies the lip patterns of normal speech by using eight hand shapes and four positions together with the lip patterns of normal speech. It allows parents and teachers to use their own language in a visual form and in its entirety, thus giving hearing impaired children full to the language.



Figure 2. Teacher Cueing a Story (Fidler, 2010)

Brenner (2005, p. 39) explains that cued speech is the use of eight hand shapes in four positions in combination with the lip shapes of speech to make the phonemes of speech visible. This cued speech can be used with any language. Therefore, it is also good to teach reading. Brenner continues that since “Cued Speech has a phonetic base, it dovetails nicely with the phonetic approach used in the Montessori classroom, and has been proven to greatly increase the literacy of people who are deaf” (2005, p. 39). Figure 2 shows a teacher uses cued speech to help her narrate the story for the learner and Figure 3 is examples of cued speech.

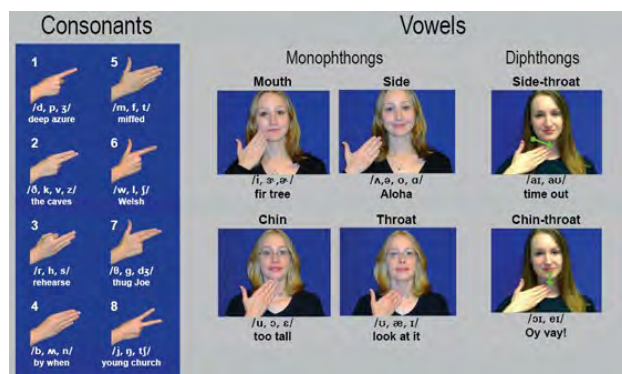


Figure 3. Examples of Cued Speech

Dyslexia is disability related to difficulty with words (Fidler, 2004, p. 32). It is a learning difficulty that hinders learning mainly affecting literacy skills (2008, p. 38). Fidler mentions that “dyslexic children can learn effectively but often need a different, multi-sensory teaching approach, ...” (2004, p. 32). The children might feel many difficulties, some of which are “poor speech development, hesitant reading, misreading, leading to poor comprehension, erratic spelling, sequential difficulties, e.g. setting dates or event in order, confusion between left and right, difficulty dressing, poor organization and/or time management, difficulty organizing thoughts clearly” (Fidler, 2004, p. 32).

The purpose of having classrooms with various kinds of equipment is to have balanced stimuli of senses for the learners. So by “touching the letters and looking at them at the same time, fixes the image more quickly though co-operation of the sense”. Then, the activities related to the use of eyes, namely seeing, looking, observing, become *reading* whereas the things related to hand activities are for *writing*. Dealing with dyslexic learners, materials should aim to train them to develop and coordinate their motoric skills (in this case hand) and their eyes. As a result, they will be ready to read with trained eyes and to write with a more trained hand.

Further, there are also materials rooted in Montessori education concepts which can support the learners’ speaking and writing development for learners with dyslexia. First, pincer, lifting and lowering movements using knob-bed and knob-less cylinders and jigsaws. Second, whole arm and hand bowing movements tracking left to right across the body mid-line with the long rods and number rods. Third, squeezing and directing the hand during scissor work. Fourth, matching, grading and sequencing; refining perception and classification skills using geometric or botany cards. Fifth, practical life involving spooning, pegging, twisting, turning and scribbling movements (Fidler, 2004, p.33).

The Montessori education concept also highlights the written and oral language development. The material used is the shape and sounds of lower case letters, as shown in Figure 4. After the dyslexic students develop their muscles for writing, students can learn the shape and the sound of lower case letters. Montessori materials use the color pink or red for consonants and blue for vowels

(Fidler, 2004, p.33). The learners can be asked to do the following activities, namely tracing and sounding out letter shapes on sandpaper letters; in rice, flour or jelly, with paint and in the air during dance; identifying the initial sounds of everyday objects; playing ‘eye spy’, using only a small tray of phonically correct objects to maintain control of error; identifying letters within the environment, for example on alphabet friezes, in books and on name labels (2004, p. 33).

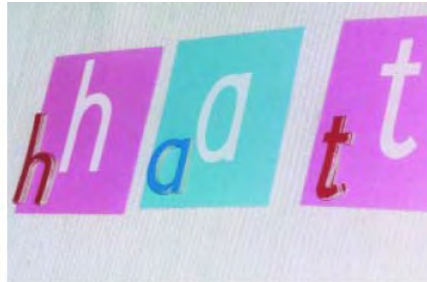


Figure 4. Learning the Lower Case (Source: Fidler, 2004, p. 34)

The next materials are the tracing apparatus known as the insets for design. The learners can be trained to avoid left and right confusion and develop the neurological pathways for reading and writing (p. 34).



Figure 5. The Insets for Design to Support Reading & Writing Development
(Fidler, 2004, p. 32)

Learners build on their understanding of initial sounds and early blends as they work through reading materials, which include a graded range of phonically correct words. As children match words with objects and pictures, identify similar sets of words and build on their early sound-blending skills, they: refine the association of visual and muscular-tactile sensations with the letter sound; recognize, compare and perceive the meaning of the string of letters which combine to form words; consolidate their learning through language: their spoken words, or reading, and their actions when successfully matching objects or pictures to written words, confirm their understanding of the meaning of words. In this way, Montessori children have ongoing opportunities to develop and refine their ability to use the words purposefully in meaningful activities, which

increasingly reflect their understanding (p. 35). In addition, Montessori botany materials, as shown in Figure 6, help children master perception and classification skills in addition to promoting language development (Fidler, 2004, p. 34).

As children progress through the foundation stage and into primary schooling, the range of Montessori language and grammar materials for construction and comparison of words, and for composition of sentences both orally and in writing, offers good, progressively structured support for learners with dyslexia (p. 35). Further, learners with dyslexic tendencies can also be helped by using sandpaper letters, large moveable alphabets to be models of literacy teaching, sequencing, rhyming activities, and memory games (2008, p. 38).

Another important aspect in supporting reading ability for learners with dyslexia is the choice of reading topic and contents. The topic should be of the learners' interests so that they will be encouraged to read. In addition, the contents of the reading are essential too. Complicated spellings and the appearance of idioms might not be a good choice for the learners with dyslexia. (p. 35)



Figure 6. Aids to Identify The Initial Sounds of Everyday Objects (Fidler, 2004, p. 34)

This type of disability is related to development issues. The learners with ADHD have problems in controlling their own actions and responses, problems in concentrating and disregarding distractions, problems in integrating sensory perception and problems in participating acceptably during social interactions (Fidler, 2003, p. 22). The Montessori education concept underlines the need to have correct environment for those learners because there is “no ‘cure-all’ for ADHD as each child has a unique set of responses to neuropsychological and environmental triggers” (2003, p. 22). Therefore, there is a need to have parental, school, and society supports for them. And in the school, Montessori proposed good concepts, among which are the following.

First, Montessori education set the environment for social training. It is better for ADHD learners not to be in the competition setting. So having mixed age group will give lack of competition environment as well as provide shared learning in school. This support successful contacts among peers and children will learn appropriate behavior and adaptive skills (Fidler, 2003, p. 22).

Second, concerning the behavior management, Montessori education highlights the concept of discipline through “a rule of life”. They are called a known routine. So the school must set up a good routine to follow but the routine

should extend out into society (Fidler, 2003, p. 22). For example, cleaning up spills, lead the children to respond a socially appropriate way.

Some Montessori materials related to motor skills development can also be used to help students develop their motor skills, focus their attention as well as develop a good self-esteem for themselves. The following materials and activities, using beads for training the fine motor skills as well as the learners' concentration. In addition, pencil work also trains hand and eye control for the learners as shown in Figure 7.

All Montessori materials are designed in multiple physical concepts and multisensory support, the weaker areas are compensated for (Fidler, 2008, p. 38). In addition, they can be done from the elementary to high school and can be used repeatedly. Elementary and high school materials build on the earlier Montessori materials foundation. Learners in higher grades move gracefully into abstract thinking, which transforms their learning. The Montessori materials support responsible interactive learning and discovery (American Montessori Society, 2016).

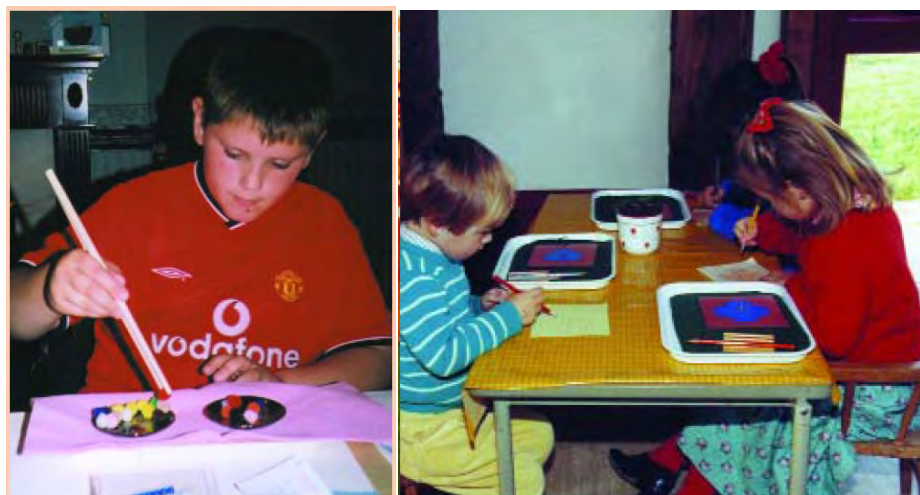


Figure 7. Left, Fine Motor Skills Development; Right, Hand & Eye Control with Pencil Work (Fidler, 2003)

Those materials discussed previously are available in Montessori classes and are used by all learners including learners with disabilities. Gutek (2004, p. 154) mentions that the same didactic materials used by disabled learners “makes education possible” and when it is used by other ‘normal’ learners, it “provokes auto-education.” In other words, the materials can be options for inclusive education.

Conclusion

The common setting for Montessori education concept is classrooms equipped with “a range of multi-sensory literacy aids through which children make audio, visual and motor observations.” Teaching materials rooted in Montessori education concepts indeed cater all ages and embrace the needs of all

students. The materials are designed as natural as possible that they may represent the use of our education to the real world context.

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BREAKING THE SILENCE: UTILIZING *PECHA KUCHA* TO PROMOTE STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILLS

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Abstract

This study aims to report the utility of *Pecha Kucha* in promoting students' speaking skills in the general English course. As English known as the international language for communication, Indonesians expect to master English in order to broaden their future career opportunities. Most of them seek for English courses providing various communicative activities with the hope that they can improve and sharpen their speaking skills. Although the course has been designed for communication purpose, some students still are not be able to express their ideas freely during the speaking activities. They may feel afraid of making grammatical errors resulting to their low speaking performance. To facilitate students' learning and encourage them to practice their speaking skills, *Pecha Kucha* has been utilized during the course. The study was conducted in the Language Institute of Sanata Dharma University in 2017. Recorded learning activities utilizing *Pecha Kucha* and field notes were collected through the classroom teaching-learning practices. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted to explore the findings and the analysis. The findings shows that the students actively engage with the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* by being able to explore their ideas and practice their speaking skills, and enjoy the learning process eventually.

Keywords: *Pecha Kucha*, speaking skills, general English course

Introduction

English, as the international language, has a significant influence worldwide. Its influence as a language for communication has spread in various fields such as in transportation, commerce, tourism, banking, technology, and diplomacy among non-native speakers recently (Brown, 2007). This situation triggers Indonesians to learn English in order to cope with the globalization. Since English is important for traveling, studying, banking, and even applying for jobs, the need of learning and mastering English for communicating internationally becomes an influential force for Indonesians nowadays. The people expect that learning English can help them to be able to communicate with others.

Regarding to the necessity of learning English, many Indonesians look for and take English courses to sharpen their English use, focusing on communication. All of them expect to be able to speak English after finishing the course. Freeman (2000) stated that knowledge got by the students from learning a

language through listening, reading, and writing is insufficient because the students have to be able to speak as the implementation of the knowledge. Freeman's (2000) statement supports Richards and Rodgers (1986) who perceive that language learning is learning to communicate to convey meaning. These two thoughts strengthen the belief of language and language learning and reflect what students need in learning the language.

Although the course has been designed for promoting students' communicative skills, learning problems may appear during the process. There is a tendency that the students will find difficulty to develop their speaking skills due to the anxiety of making grammatical errors. In fact, communication is more flexible in conveying meaning (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Moreover, Freeman (2000) agrees that activities designed using communicative approach put emphasis on students' speaking fluency over the accuracy. The aim is to create language use often through students' trial and error (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Freeman, 2000). Thus, because of the flexibility of language learned for communication, students are expected to be able to convey what they actually want to say.

Considering students' learning problem, instructors have essential roles to help students enhancing their learning. The Instructors help the students in any way that motivates them to work with the language (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). Any media which helps the students is accepted, varying according to their age, interest, etc. (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Therefore, facilitating students' learning is the responsibility for the instructors to make meaningful learning that is possible to overcome students' difficulty and correspond to students' needs.

In this paper, *Pecha Kucha* is introduced as one of the learning media used to promote students' speaking skills. Through the utilization of *Pecha Kucha*, students are more independent to express their ideas, while the instructors play as facilitators of students' learning (Freeman, 2000). Thus, this study aims to explore how the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* promotes students' speaking skills in the general English course aimed for communicative purposes.

Speaking Skills

Language is now generally seen as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning (Nunan, 1989; Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 & cf Sari, 2017). It is a way for ideas expressions as well as for knowing others' ideas. For many students, the ability to produce speeches is important in the language use. When students speak, they use speech to express meaning to the others (Spratt, 2005). Freeman (2000) states that knowledge obtained from learning a language through listening, reading, and writing is insufficient because students have to be able to speak as the implementation of the knowledge. Therefore, unlike the other skills, speaking always happens in a real situation around the students where the person that the students are talking to is waiting for them to speak right then in the actual communication (Bygate, 2001).

In the speaking practice, fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal, while accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Freeman, 2000). Making grammatical errors during speaking practices is considered acceptable, since language is created by students often

through trial and error (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). Regarding to students' errors, instructors help students in any way that motivates them to work with the language. Providing students with assistance may result to their better performance since the instructor is able to know what students' difficulty is and how to overcome them. In this study, the researcher acknowledged that the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* would focus on promoting students speaking skills in term of fluency and content development, leading to meaning production. Acceptable language was also essentially considered since negotiation of meaning might occur during speaking practices (Freeman, 2000).

Pecha Kucha

The name of *Pecha Kucha* is taken from the Japanese words, meaning 'chit chat'. It was first introduced by two Japanese architects in 2003, in the form presentation. The presentation is designed in a simple format where images are displayed within time constraints. The images advance automatically and the speakers will talk along to the images.

Pecha Kucha requires the use of less word and more images which are relevant to the topic (Zharkynbekova et al., 2017). Liker (2004) supports that visual approach is more efficient since an image is worth a thousand words. Moreover, the integration of technology in *Pecha Kucha* has changed the nature of instruction and learning. Technology promotes socially active language in multiple authentic contexts due to its accessibility, flexibility, connectivity speed and independence of methodological approach (Gonzalez, 2009). It inspires students' positive thinking and communicative skills in social practice to enhance their communication capacity as well (Shyamlee & Phil, 2012). Instructors are exploring *Pecha Kucha*, as digital learning media, to make learning more effective and engage students actively. In this study, *Pecha Kucha* is proposed to assist students and to promote their speaking skills. The researcher focused on how students' develop their speaking fluency and content without being anxious to make grammatical errors.

Method

The study was conducted in Language Institute of Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, within the Center of English for International Communication (CEIC). The course focuses on English learning for international communication. The course levels are designed by referring to Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). In addition, the study involved two participants representing two different levels. The participants were invited by the researcher and given inform consents. The participants' name were pseudonym. Furthermore, it should be noted that the researcher was the participants' course instructor. Having multiple relationship with the participants allowed the researcher to explore participants' point of view and experiences towards a certain situation (Kenyon, 2017).

Interview is well recognized as a method to gain subjective opinions, beliefs, and feelings towards a certain issue or topic that individuals experience (Ary et al., 2010; Atkinson, 2001). In this study, the researcher used semi-structured interview. This type of interview permits a greater flexibility and

responsiveness to expose issues for the participants (Ary et al., 2010). The interview took about 40 minutes for each participant and it was aimed to obtain information about participants' perception after the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* as one of the learning media. In order to gain rich answers from the participants, the interviews were conducted using participants' second language, which is Indonesian. Therefore, all the interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. In addition, the researcher also recorded the learning activities utilizing *Pecha Kucha* and took some notes focusing on students' engagement to the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* and their speaking performance.

The data obtained through interviews were analyzed by using data analysis technique in qualitative approach (Straus & Corbin, 1998). This was because the data gathered were in form of written texts, which were interview transcripts and notes. In qualitative research, data analysis means "a systematic process in searching and arranging the data to come up with findings" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 147). "It involves working with the data, organizing them, breaking them into manageable units, coding them, synthesizing them, and searching for patterns" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 147). In this study, the researcher coded the result of the interviews and the notes taken during the classroom practices. "Coding is a process of marking a segment of data (usually text data) with descriptive words, or category names" (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 534). Moreover, the researcher generated two categories to make the analysis easier by sorting the collected data so that the material bearing on a given topic can be physically separated from other data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The categories were '*my mind is free*' and '*act it out.*' The researcher explored each categories on the findings.

Findings and Discussion

The finding consisted of a short description of the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* in the classroom and the participants' stories about their' needs of taking the English course, their' problems in learning English, and how the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* could help them to promote their speaking skills. The stories were described in two categories, namely '*my mind is free*' and '*act it out.*'

During the general English course, the researcher as well as the instructor often used *Pecha Kucha* in some levels to facilitate students to learn a certain topic. For instance, the topics were describing people, places, feeling, or things, telling interests, stating opinion, agreeing or disagreeing, and even presenting a certain issue. The instructor often designed *Pecha Kucha* in PowerPoint or video format. The design could be 20X60, meaning that there were 20 images and each image would be displayed in 60 seconds. The students would talk about what was being displayed on the screen in 60 seconds. However, the instructor often modified *Pecha Kucha* to be more communicative learning media. In this way, the instructor would assign the students to work in pairs to practice using *Pecha Kucha*. While one student talked about a certain image, the other would listen and ask some questions or give comments to his/her partner so that they would have time for chit-chat by responding to the questions or opinions. Of course, the instructor took control of *Pecha Kucha* to give pause to the displayed image and

let the students have chit-chat. The class would be lively because the students enjoyed the learning process.

Toni shared his learning experiences when he joined the English course. He came with a goal in his mind and expectations towards the course. He expected:

“I hope I can learn and improve my English so that I can speak as fluent as a Hollywood actor in a movie. Like peaking in Indonesian, my parents want me to be able to speak English as if I speak in Bahasa in a daily conversation.”

Toni’s goal and expectations reflected his need of learning English. For him, speaking was the primary skills that he needed to master. As he was an economics department student, Toni believed that being able to speak English would be the power to support his career in the future. To respond to this notion, he told:

“I have a plan to work in a big company or institution whether it is a governmental institution or an international company. To achieve that, I must be able to master several languages and the most influential language for international communication is English.”

Regarding to his need of learning English, Toni found that the English course had provided various communicative activities focusing on the practice of speaking skills. He agreed that the best way to learn a language was learning how to use it in a context (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983). This belief affected his engagement towards speaking activities implemented by the instructor. He described:

“I like speaking group activities or language games during the course. They are interactive activities to exercise my speaking skills. We can engage and enjoy the learning process if we can use the language directly through such activities in the classroom.”

Although the course and the activities had been designed to promote students’ speaking skills, however, in some cases there was still difficulty experienced by the students during their learning, Toni emphasized that the major difficulty he faced was being afraid of making grammatical errors while speaking. In the interview, Toni shared:

“I think that grammar sometimes makes me crazy. Usually when I speak with people who have better English than me, they correct my sentence structures while I speak to them and make errors. It seems that the communication is not flexible because there is such a wall limit my mind to think what I want to say.”

Toni’s problem appeared to be a common problem faced by Indonesians when learning English. This situation encouraged the instructor to help the students to overcome their problem as well as to promote their speaking skills. Then, assisting students with learning media could be helpful for their practice (Smaldino, Lowther, & Russell, 2008). During his learning in the course, Toni

found *Pecha Kucha* as one of the learning media prepared by the instructor to exercise his speaking skills. Towards the use of leaning media, including *Pecha Kucha*, Toni explained:

“There are some media used by the instructor to assist the learning process such as videos, images, songs, and even the printed media like cards and board games. They are unique and represent their own usefulness depending on how the instructors can use the media effectively ... So far, I am excited to a media called *Pecha Kucha*. There are some pictures displayed on the screen and I must speak about the pictures in a limited time.”

Toni told that *Pecha Kucha* was a simple media to design. However, beyond its simplicity, he believed that *Pecha Kucha* had a power to promote his speaking skills. He could explore his ideas about what he knew and what he had experienced to demonstrate the images since one images might represent a hundred or even a thousand words to tell (Liker, 2004). Moreover, the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* affected Toni’s speaking performance in the classroom. He felt free to construct his ideas and speak along the images since the language and the meaning he conveyed was acceptable. Toni found his speaking skills were accommodated and he could minimize his speaking difficulty through the utilization of *Pecha Kucha*.

“My major problem in speaking is being afraid of making grammatical errors. When I speak normally, sometimes I think whether my grammar has been correct or not. This makes me uncomfortable and unfree to speak. However, ... when I used *Pecha Kucha*, I feel that I am free to express my ideas without being afraid to make errors. When the instructor display the image, I need a few seconds to see it. Then, the only thing I need to do is speaking and speaking because I only have one minute to talk.”

Toni’s engagement with *Pecha Kucha* illustrated the flow of his ideas to give meaning to the images displayed. The choice of the images that was relevant to the topic of the lesson strengthened the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* as the learning media promoting students’ speaking skills. Furthermore, Toni shared his positive feeling towards the modification of *Pecha Kucha* into a more communicative media for learning. During the interview, he demonstrated:

“When I speak about the image in one minute, my friend will listen to me and he is allowed to ask questions related to what I have told to him. I do the same thing when my friend has the chance to speak. This is fun since we can practice our listening and speaking skills as well.”

Overall, Toni’s experience reflected his engagement with the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* in classroom learning practices. Utilizing *Pecha Kucha* for learning media gave spaces for Toni to master English in accordance to his goal in joining the course. As Toni had strong belief about what language was and how to learn it, he prioritized his learning on speaking practices. This was in line with the activities designed by the course which emphasized on the students’ speaking

skills. Although Toni had experienced a speaking anxiety due to making grammatical errors, *Pecha Kucha* was able to facilitate his performance. Toni found his mind is free to explore his ideas as well as to improve his speaking skills.

Dina was a Physics Education student. She joined the English course to improve her speaking skills in order to prepare for English proficiency test held by the university. The test required non-English department students to be able to communicate in English. Fortunately, Dina could pass the test. This situation triggered Dina to explore herself more in her future career. As she oriented herself as a teacher in the future, she shared:

“Seeing the phenomenon that English is also important for classroom instruction, I believe that learning English will support my career as a teacher in the future. Since the demands of ASEAN Economic Community also require people to have good skills, being able to speak English, as the international language, makes me feel more confident to compete with others.”

Regarding to her goal, Dina found that the English course and its learning activities were useful for promoting her speaking skills. She focused on self-confidence improvement while undergoing speaking activities. This was because she found a problem on how to deal with nervousness when she spoke using English. Once, she stated that her nervousness came due to the anxiety of making errors, specifically in using correct structures.

“My major problem in learning English is maintaining self-confident while speaking. During my internship, sometimes my friends interrupt me while I am speaking and give correction to what I say. I think that is good for my improvement; however, their interruption often makes me nervous and feel doubtful to continue my talk since I have lost my words. This makes me uncomfortable and I prefer to be silent then.”

Like Toni, Dina shared the same difficulty during speaking practices, affecting to her confidence. However, Dina demonstrated positive feeling towards the way she learned English in the course. She was interested in the instructors’ teaching methods and the media used in the classroom. As she wanted to become a teacher, she learned English by engaging herself with classroom activities to experience the use of a certain method and media implemented by the instructors and building her self-confidence to speak in English as well.

Once Dina talked about the learning media, she mentioned about *Pecha Kucha*. She told that she had practiced using this media for several times during the course. During the interview, Dina shared more about her positive perception towards *Pecha Kucha*. She believed:

“*Pecha Kucha* is a good media to assist my speaking performance. This provides me the opportunity to speak throughout the moving images for several seconds. I do not even think what the best structures used to talk along the images are. For me, the content that I can deliver to is more essential.”

As Dina practiced her speaking skills through *Pecha Kucha*, she reflected her performance. In the interview, she told that she could minimize her problem in speaking, which was being not confident due to the anxiety of making errors. This was because she had broadened her point of view about learning English in which negotiation of meaning existed (Freeman, 2000).

“Sometimes I feel pessimistic and nervous when I speak with somebody who has good English. However, I can minimize those feelings when my instructor utilize *Pecha Kucha* and I get the turn to speak. Although it is not easy to construct ideas and deliver them in a limited time, I feel more confident because I do not afraid of making mistakes. I can confirm whether my friend understands my talk, and I will try repeat in another way that is easier to understand.”

Furthermore, Dina expressed her opinion about the speaking practice and her plan after she experienced using *Pecha Kucha*. She tried to focus on the content delivery and fluency over the accuracy while speaking. Developing those two aspects of speaking might result to her self-confidence during her speaking practice. In this way, she shared:

“I think *Pecha Kucha* can facilitate my need of speaking. In my opinion, speaking is not only deal with fluency, but does the content of speaking also. In this way, I emphasize on the content delivery. Since *Pecha Kucha* requires me to speak only for several seconds, I should make my speaking content concise. This is essential for me as internship teacher in delivering learning materials. Maybe I will use *Pecha Kucha* also in the classroom to present a certain physics topic.”

Dina’s experience demonstrated the utility of *Pecha Kucha* in promoting her speaking skills. Once she shared about her problem in learning English, Dina found that *Pecha Kucha* could minimize her anxiety of making grammatical errors and perform well in the speaking activity. She had her confidence to explore herself by conveying her ideas towards the images. Moreover, Dina found that the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* would be useful to be implemented when she explained a certain topic to her students in the school. She would be able to create concise presentation and act confidently to explain the materials using *Pecha Kucha*.

Conclusion

Utilizing *Pecha Kucha* as a learning media gives some benefits towards students’ speaking performance. The two participants involved in this study shared their experiences in learning English through the utilization of *Pecha Kucha*. Toni revealed that *Pecha Kucha* helped him to explore his ideas freely and overcome his anxiety of making grammatical errors. This impacts on Toni’s speaking content development in which the focus is on conveying meaningful sentences within the time constrains. On the other hand, Dina shared that she felt more confident when she practiced her speaking skills through *Pecha Kucha*. The utilization of *Pecha Kucha* in the learning activity reduces her nervousness due to

the possibilities of making errors, especially in term of grammar. Dina's self-confidence gives positive influence to her performance as she is be able to say what she intends to say. Moreover, the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* can meet Toni's and Dina's expectation of learning English during the course. As they need to improve their speaking skills, they engage with the learning process and practice their English through *Pecha Kucha*.

In addition, this study gives a framework for future researchers to conduct further investigations towards the utilization of *Pecha Kucha* in more formal occasions of speaking activities such as presentation, short talk, and public speaking. The future researchers are possible to explore students' autonomy learning since the students design their own *Pecha Kucha* presentation format and they are the speakers of their talk.

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IMPLEMENTING CONCEPT MAPPING TECHNIQUE TO IMPROVE STUDENTS' DESCRIPTIVE WRITING ABILITY

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Abstract

This Classroom Action Research aimed at investigating the implementation of Concept Mapping Technique to improve students' descriptive writing ability. The research was conducted in two cycles at SMP Negeri 21 Samarinda, with 37 seventh grade students participating. In this research, there was one teacher-researcher who implemented the technique and there were two collaborators who did the observation. The data were collected both quantitatively and qualitatively by using writing assessment, interview guide, observation sheets and field notes. The findings showed that: 1) there was an improvement in the students' descriptive writing average scores at the end of the second research cycle; 2) the implementation of the concept mapping technique was done properly by the teacher-researcher; 3) the concept mapping technique delivered through collaborative working improved the participation of the students in the teaching and learning process. Since all the criteria of success in this research were fulfilled by the end of the second cycle, it could be concluded that this classroom action research was successfully implemented and the technique proposed could very well improve the skills being targeted.

Keywords: concept mapping technique, descriptive essay, writing ability

Introduction

Writing has been regarded as a difficult skill to teach and learn both for the teachers and students in the EFL context. It is so because writing entangles several components such as mechanics, content, organization, language use, and grammar which have to be considered. As Bryne (1993) in Razmjoo (2012, p. 19) argued, writing is the most complex language skill which requires the students to have appropriate cognitive strategies, verbal information, appropriate motivation, knowledge of writing conventions, and knowledge of how to put into practice.

When talking about the process of teaching-learning writing to EFL students, EFL teachers, particularly in the Indonesian EFL context, indeed face a number of problems in the writing class. Some teachers' anecdotal experiences reported that when they asked their students to write, the ideas were less and the structure was not clear. Moreover, not all the students seemed to enjoy the writing class because they were not familiar to writing due to the less writing activity in

the English class, less motivation, or it was simply not their hobby. In a preliminary study done by Rubiyah (2014), her Junior High School students were observed to face some difficulties even in writing a simple composition, particularly in generating their ideas and developing those ideas in a logical order. Thus they felt unmotivated to learn more. This phenomenon called for a suitable technique in teaching writing. One of the techniques which might be an appropriate solution would be the 'Concept Mapping Technique (CMT)'. Therefore, in this current study, under the framework of Classroom Action Research, CMT would be implemented and its relative potential for helping students generate ideas and develop them into a composition would be further investigated.

The Theory of Concept Maps

A concept map is a way of representing relationships between ideas, images, or words in the same way that a sentence diagram represents the grammar of a sentence, a road map represents the locations of highways and towns, and a circuit diagram represents the workings of an electrical appliance. In a concept map, each word or phrase connects to another, and links back to the original idea, word, or phrase. Concept maps are a way to develop logical thinking and study skills by revealing connections and helping students see how individual ideas form a larger whole.

Furthermore, concept maps are graphical tools for organizing and representing knowledge. According to Novak and Canas (2006), there are some characteristics of concept maps: (1) they include concepts, usually enclosed in circles or boxes of some type, and relationships between concepts indicated by a connecting line linking two concepts, (2) words on the line, referred to as linking words or linking phrases, specify the relationship between the two concepts, (3) the concepts are represented in a hierarchical fashion with the most inclusive, most general concepts at the top of the map and the more specific, less general concepts arranged hierarchically below, (4) having a focus question to construct concept maps, (5) providing the context to understand some situation or event through the organization of knowledge in the form of concept map, (6) the inclusion of cross-links. These are relationships or links between concepts in different segments or domains of the concept map. Cross-links help us see how a concept in one domain of knowledge represented on the map is related to a concept in another domain shown on the map.

Furthermore, Novak and Canas (2006) add three important features of concept maps namely: (1) the hierarchical structure that is represented in a good map; (2) the ability to search for and characterize new cross-links, and (3) adding the specific examples of events or objects that help to clarify the meaning of a given concept. Normally these are not included in ovals or boxes, since they are specific events or objects and do not represent concepts (see figure 1).

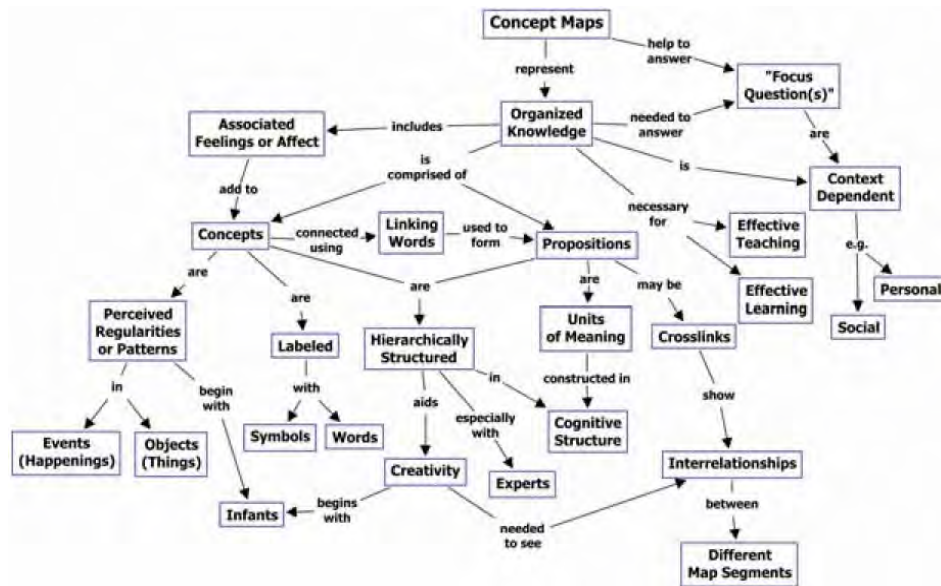


Figure 1. The Structure of A Concept Map (adopted from Novak and Canas 2006:02)

Novak and Canas (2006) define *concept* as *a perceived regularity in events or objects, or records of events or objects, designated by a label*. The label for most concepts is a word, although sometimes symbols such as + or % are used, and sometimes more than one word is used. Meanwhile, *propositions* are *statements about some object or event in the universe, either naturally occurring or constructed*. Propositions contain two or more concepts connected using linking words or phrases to form a meaningful statement. Sometimes these are called semantic units, or units of meaning.

In addition, according to Martin (2006), a concept map is a top-down diagram showing the relationships between concepts, including cross connections among concepts, and their manifestations whereas White (2011) states that a concept map presents the relationships among a set of connected concepts and ideas. It is a tangible way to display how mind "sees" a particular topic. By constructing a concept map, one reflects on what one knows and does not know. In a Concept Map, the concepts, usually represented by single words enclosed in a rectangle (box), are connected to other concept boxes by arrows. A word or brief phrase, written by the arrow, defines the relationship between the connected concepts. Major concept boxes will have lines to and from several other concept boxes generating a network.

There are four major categories of concept maps as distinguished by their different format for representing information. These categories are spider concept map, hierarchy concept map, flowchart concept map, and system concept map. In this study, the researchers would focus on hierarchy map which would be appropriate with the students' writing difficulty in expressing and generating ideas coherently.

Concept Mapping Technique

According to Brown (1994, p. 51), a technique is any of wide variety of exercises, articles or devices used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives. While, Freeman (2011: xi) argues that technique is the behavioral manifestation of the principles. Therefore, concept mapping can be considered as one of the techniques in teaching writing because it is a teacher's specific action carried out in the classroom to achieve the purpose expected. This is supported by Wycoff (1991) who argues that concept mapping, also known as semantic mapping, clustering, or webbing, has gradually been developed as one of the effective techniques in generating ideas for writing. In addition, Avery, Baker and Gross (1997) states that concept mapping is a graphic representation or picture of one's thoughts, ideas, and attitudes towards a key concept. A concept map presents the relationships among a set of connected concepts and ideas.

Miller (2008) proposes seven steps of implementing concept mapping technique in writing, as follows:

Step 1: Deciding the general topic which is printed in the centre of a piece of paper with a circle or square drawn around it.

Step 2: Considering ideas related to the general topic (a process called "brainstorming") and writing them on a separate piece of paper.

Step 3: Selecting the words and phrases that fit in best with the general topic and support the main ideas.

Step 4: Writing these words or phrases on around the circle or square that contains the topic, circling them or drawing a square around them then connecting them to the main topic with a line.

Step 5: Repeating the process of brainstorming and branching for each of the circled subtopics until there are enough ideas and information to write about.

Step 6: Using the concept map to organize writing. Ideas which are closely connected on the concept map should be closely connected in the writing as well.

Step 7: Referring to the concept map often while writing, as it is a visual representation of the points and how they are connected.

In line with the above mentioned steps, Fahim and Rahimi (2011, p. 2) mention the following important aspects that should be considered to construct a concept map:

1. The first stage of concept map construction is specifying the main idea of the concept map together with the words indicating the concepts which should be incorporated in the concept map
2. The types of relationships between and among concepts should be specified.
3. The concepts should be arranged from the most general to the most specific.
4. The concepts which are horizontally related will be connected. The same will be done for the concepts which are hierarchically related.
5. Some connective words will be utilized to clarify the relationships.

Method

The design of this study was collaborative classroom action research (CAR), which emphasized on the cycle of meeting as teaching learning process in the

classroom. The specific objective of this research was to improve the students' ability of writing descriptive composition through concept mapping technique (CMT). This research was conducted at SMP Negeri 21 Samarinda and involved three teachers, one as the teacher- researcher and two as the collaborators. The subjects of the study were 37 seventh grader students who were previously observed to have difficulties in writing, especially in developing their ideas.

The main writing activities in the research procedures could be elaborated as follows:

Table 1. Writing Activity Procedures

Stage	Focus	Teacher's Activities	Students' Activities
Pre-writing Activities	<i>Activating the students' prior knowledge and introducing the technique.</i>	1. <i>Explaining to the students about descriptive writing briefly and showing an example of composition about "a person/place/thing".</i>	<i>Paying attention to teacher's explanation.</i>
		2. <i>Introducing concept mapping technique (CMT) to the students.</i>	<i>Paying attention to the technique introduced.</i>
		3. <i>Asking the students to learn the sample descriptive text based on a concept mapping draft.</i>	<i>Learning and analyzing an example of composition based on a concept mapping draft.</i>
		4. <i>Dividing the students into some groups consisting of four or five.</i>	<i>Forming their groups.</i>
		5. <i>Asking the students to discuss and decide for an interesting topic appropriate with the theme of "describing people/place/thing".</i>	<i>Discussing and deciding a topic.</i>
		6. <i>Asking the students to make a list of concepts and ideas related to the topic.</i>	<i>Making a list of the concepts and ideas.</i>
		7. <i>Asking the students to generate the concepts and ideas into a concept mapping in hierarchy form.</i>	<i>Generating the concepts and ideas into a concept mapping.</i>
		8. <i>Asking the students to connect the concepts and ideas between one to another by using linking lines or</i>	<i>Connecting the concepts and ideas that put in the boxes by using linking arrows.</i>

Whilst-Writing Activities	<i>Implementing the concept mapping Technique to Improve the students' Writing Ability.</i>		<i>arrows and giving label on them.</i>	
		9.	<i>Asking the students to write a descriptive composition on the basis of concept mapping made. Each students write two or more sentences in a group.</i>	<i>Writing a descriptive composition on the basis of concept mapping made.</i>
		10.	<i>Asking the students to construct the sentences into a simple descriptive composition.</i>	<i>Constructing the sentences made into a simple descriptive composition.</i>
		11.	<i>Encouraging the students to help each other, monitor, and provide assistance if necessary.</i>	<i>Helping each other in writing and constructing a descriptive composition.</i>
		12.	<i>Give feedback in terms of format, mechanic, content, organization, and grammar.</i>	<i>Asking for feedback.</i>
		13.	<i>Asking the students to revise their writing based on the feedback given by a teacher.</i>	<i>Revising their writing result based on the feedback given by the teacher.</i>
Post-writing Activities	<i>Measuring the students' Descriptive Writing Ability</i>	14.	<i>Asking the students to make correction or editing.</i>	<i>Making correction or editing.</i>
		15.	<i>Suggesting the students to rewrite their composition.</i>	<i>Rewriting their composition neatly and legibly.</i>
		16.	<i>Asking the students to submit their descriptive composition.</i>	<i>Submitting their descriptive composition.</i>

There were three particular criteria of success to be achieved in this research. The first criterion was related to the quality of implementation of concept mapping technique which would be measured through the observation of the teacher- researcher's performance done by collaborators and an interview done with selected students. This criterion of success would be deemed achieved if the teacher was rated as having a good performance all throughout the cycle and the students showed positive attitude towards the teaching learning process. The second criterion was related to the improvement in students' descriptive writing scores, which would be measured by using the school's 'Minimum Criteria of

Learning Outcome (*KKBM*), which was 75. It means that if there were more than 75 % of the students got 75, the action research conducted would be considered as successful. The last criterion was related to the students' participation, which would be measured through observation checklist and field notes. If 85% of the students were observed to be actively participating during the teaching and learning activities using concept mapping, the research could be considered as successful.

Moreover, the instruments used in this research were observation checklist (including the teacher's performance checklist and the students' participation checklist), interview guide, field note, and writing prompt sheet as well as writing assessment rubric. Before the CAR was conducted, a preliminary test was carried out. The results of the preliminary test indicated that the students had difficulties to produce descriptive composition particularly the second paragraph in the body where they should describe persons, places and things clearly. Also, the five aspects of writing were not mastered by the students. The average score of preliminary test was only 65.22, which put them into the low category.

Findings and Discussion

After the Concept Mapping Technique was implemented, the students' descriptive writing scores gradually improved. In each meeting in the two research cycles, the teacher-researcher always monitored the students' progress and weaknesses by providing feedback related to how to generate concepts and ideas first, how to put them in a concept map from the specific to general ones, as well as how to link between one idea to another using verbs or conjunction. In the writing stage, the teacher-researcher guided the students to develop their ideas based on the concept map they had constructed. The teacher- researcher also provided themes that were close to the students' environment. It was one of the researcher' strategies to facilitate the students to describe something clearly and also to encourage the students' motivation in learning writing. Furthermore, the researcher also guided the students to describe something using vivid words using to be, has/have, and noun phrases in sentences and to divide the composition into two parts; *identification and description(s)*.

In the first action stage, although the students still had some mistakes in writing including format, organization and grammar-sentence structure, they seemed to understand how to generate their concepts and ideas in a concept map during their pre-writing stage.

Moreover, the results of writing assessment at cycle 1 revealed that the students' mean score had an increase of 7.35 points or 11.27%. It improved from 65.22 in preliminary assessment to 72.57 at the end of cycle 1. This result was moderate, but unfortunately the criteria of success had not been achieved yet. There were only seventeen students who gained the score 75 and above whereas the other twenty students failed. Thus, the researchers and collaborators then decided to provide more practices to write English at school and continued to the next action research cycle.

In the second cycle action stage, the students had already mastered the basic of pre-writing stage through Concept Mapping Technique well. However, some

students still had difficulties in using appropriate linking words and they sometimes forgot to develop their concept map or to put one or more ideas in their writing. Here, the teacher-researcher helped remind the students to develop the ideas for their composition from the concept map they had already made. It was done so that their writing had a good organization and their intention was clear in order to be understood by the readers. In addition, the students could distinguish generic structures in descriptive writing but some of them could not put it in a good format yet. For instance, there was no title, no new line of each paragraph, and no margins on both sides. In fact, format was also important for the readers to attract their attention on people, places and objects being described. Fortunately, for the mechanics aspect almost all students utilized them well. Moreover, the content of writing was good enough. The students seemed to try hard to describe topics in details.

Eventually, by the end of the second cycle, the average score of the students reached above the criteria of 75; i.e. 80.27. There were 30 students (81.08%) who were successful to achieve the Minimum Criteria of Learning Outcome above 75. The following graph illustrates the improvement of the students' average scores on descriptive writing from preliminary study, cycle 1 to cycle 2.

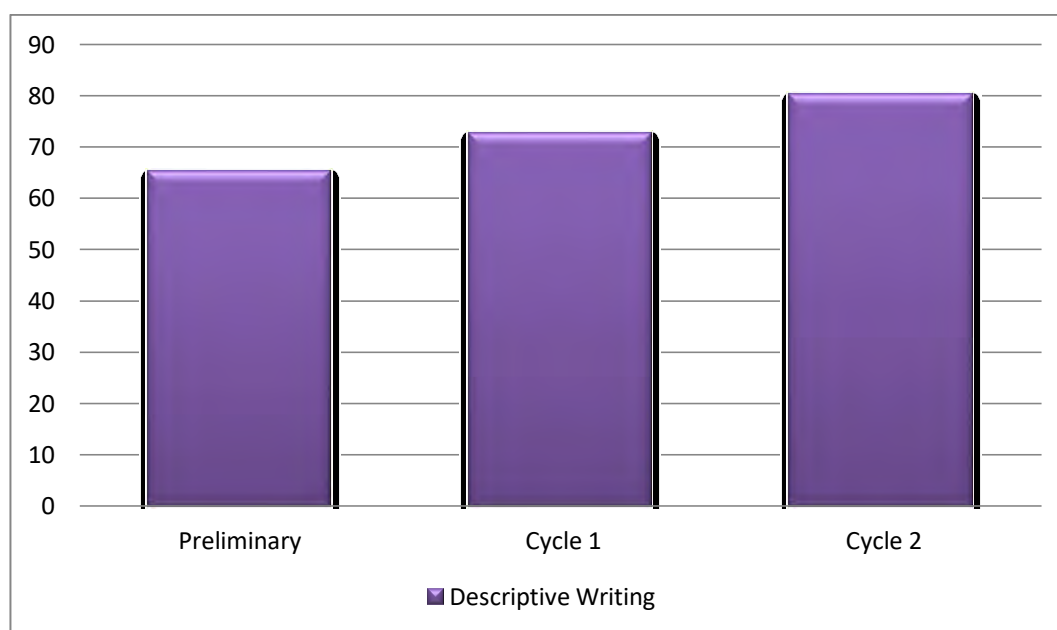


Figure 2. The Students' Descriptive Writing Average Scores

The findings of this study showed that the implementation of Concept Mapping Technique by the teacher- researcher could improve the students' writing ability in writing descriptive composition. The teaching aspects in each meeting of the two research cycles had been done well and as planned by the teacher-researcher.

The teacher firstly presented the materials about descriptive composition and Concept Mapping Technique in each meeting. It was conducted so the students had enough understanding of the writing aspects. The teacher's

performance in teaching learning activity was always evaluated by the collaborators. The teacher accepted the suggestions given and upgraded her performance in the next meeting. Some of the suggestions included the language of instructions in writing prompt and learning collaboratively. After getting the feedback, the teacher used simpler and clearer instructions as well as asked the students to participate actively in discussion, respect each other and do their task with a high sense of responsibility.

From the observations recording the students' behaviors during the study, it was revealed that the students were motivated to follow the lessons. It was supported by the interview results conducted with nine students selected from different ability levels. The students admitted they enjoyed the lessons using Concept Mapping technique and they preferred to work their task collaboratively.

Furthermore, they could share, help and discuss each other in generating ideas and develop them in descriptive composition using Concept Mapping Technique. Constructing concept mapping by incorporating to some extent cooperative learning activity could build interaction among the students, increase their participation in the teaching- learning process and encourage their motivation to learn writing better.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of this research, it could be concluded that the students' writing ability particularly in writing descriptive composition improved after the implementation of Concept Mapping Technique. This particular technique can be potential when implemented well to solve the students' main problem in generating concepts and ideas to write a composition as well as increase their participation in the class. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers try to make the best use of this technique to assist their students to write compositions, not only in descriptive genre but also in other text genres.

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LISTENING CLASS AND MORAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

Since some students including in my class become more self-oriented and less aware on group, there is a need to integrate online teaching material which contains moral values in society into English language course. We believe that English language teaching, in some extents, could facilitate this necessity. A good choice of material, for example, is not only beneficial to promote students' language skill, but also could inspire students to become a better individual. This paper aims to propose online teaching materials as alternative for teaching moral education. To limit its scope, the material is used only for teaching listening in the EFL classroom. The benefit is two folds. First, it is expected to directly improve students' listening skill. Second, the material could be used indirectly to implant moral values to the students where the emphasis could be placed on the Indonesian values of group and society. The paper concludes by echoing a call for further research specialised in a classroom action research.

Keywords: moral values, listening comprehension

Introduction

A growing body of report reveals that students today experience a certain degree of moral degradation, in particular having received negative effects of globalization. In Indonesia, it is quite common to find several students involved in some aggressive behaviors such as student brawls, drug abuse, and cyberbullying. In my classes, indeed, such cases are not found this far. Yet, we observe that some students seem to have less respect to peers and teachers, become less responsible on their assignments, more selfish, and less collaborative. One of the example, some students tend to work alone even when they have been put in a group. Some others, in addition, seem reluctant to work with other students that they are not very close with. They will only work with their cliques and are seemingly not happy if the teacher finds a new group for them.

Since Indonesia is well-known by its unique moral values and diverse social cultures, it is important to re-emphasize moral education into school subjects, including in English language. This sort of subject is expected to nurture students to become better not only as an individual but also a member of society. The education, thus, should concern with something which promotes Indonesian values for example about respect, honesty, helping each other, groups and society. Sari (2013) even reminds us that today's debate is no longer about the importance of teaching moral values but directed on how to integrate it into classroom

teaching. We believe that English language, in some extents, can bridge this necessity by providing appropriate materials to encourage students' moral, social and cultural awareness while at the same time increasing their English language skill.

The present paper aims to propose online teaching materials as alternative for teaching moral education. To limit its scope, the material is used only for teaching listening in the EFL classroom. The benefit of this online materials is two folds. First, it is expected to directly improve students' listening skill. Second, in the indirect fashion, the material could be used to implant moral and cultural values to the students where the emphasis could be placed on the Indonesian values of group and society.

We shall begin this paper by defining what moral education really means. After that, we highlight several characteristics of language learners in Indonesia and briefly discuss how these characteristics influence us in choosing materials in the classroom. As the focus of this paper is online material, we also present multiple benefits that it offers for our EFL class. Since we use www.englishspotlight.com as our online teaching material, we therefore justify our reasons for choosing the website and how it can fit to Indonesian learners, especially learners in this context. Following this, we discuss ways to integrate moral values into EFL teaching through online teaching material. Although there has been ample research reporting the use of online material for EFL class, little information can be found regarding its use on moral education. We, then, elaborate how this material can be beneficial not only for students' language skill but also for their morality. Finally, we conclude the paper by summarizing the key points and offering recommendation for researchers in the future.

Theory

Understanding Moral Education

Moral education is frequently used to define school activities which encourage students to play their roles properly both as individual and as a community member (Mergler and Spooner-Lane, 2012). Researchers (e.g. Mergle & Spooner-Lane, 2012; Saidek, Islami, and Abdoludin, 2016) point out that the term has been used interchangeably, ranging from values education, character education, personal education, civic education, and religious education. Apart from their differences, they all have something in common in which they guide individuals to distinguish 'good and bad' in generally accepted values of a society. For the sake of consistency, this research uses moral education throughout the paper to avoid ambiguity among the readers.

While researchers still have various names for moral education, they seem to somewhat agree when referring to what can be classified as good moral/character. Lickona (1991, cited in Akin et al., 1995) mentions that good moral means when someone knows the good, desires the good, and does the good. Akin et al (1995) add by introducing six pillars of characters, i.e. trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, justice and fairness, caring, and citizenship. If they could be translated in details, they would involve honesty, not cheating, responsibility,

unselfishness, community service, etc. Similarly, Indonesian government acknowledges these values in the form of Pancasila.

In 2010, the Minister of National Education called for the need of embedding moral education in school (so-called character education). The hope of Indonesian students to grow and live with the spirit of Pancasila and Religious values became the basis triggering the emergence of this plan. Pancasila, as the national ideology, should be put forward covering the values of Goddess, humanity, unity, citizenship, and social justice as the basis. The ultimate goal is to create people who are not only intellectually strong, but also strong in character and morality.

The characteristics of English Language Learners in Indonesia

Despite triggered by multiple factors, we believe that students' characteristics play a part in determining the success of English language teaching. According to Marcellino (2008) Indonesian students are often described passive, silent, and obedient. Adi (2011) also puts that Indonesian students are not brave enough to interrupt their teachers as they are expected to answer positively and be obedient to what the teachers are saying. In addition, students today are contaminated by the negative effect of technology. The use of online chatting and social media, for example, decreases the amount of time they spent to chat with 'real' peers. Everyone seems busy with their gadgets. They look enjoy playing games or their gadget rather than talking to teachers or classmates. Gradually, this phenomenon can be negative for the students' moral growth since it may lead them to become more selfish and less caring about their surroundings.

In our personal beliefs, students should be encouraged to interact and use the language that they learn. It can be achieved by creating a communicative-based classroom activity in which it could stimulate the students to use the language in a real practice. Teachers can apply cooperative and/or collaborative learning approach encouraging the students to work together to solve problems. However, if the students are passive or only talking in their cliques, it is difficult for the teachers to gain maximum benefits of such activities. Therefore, there is a need to apply strategies or material which can stimulate students to work together in the classroom.

Online Materials in Listening Comprehension

Of many attempts to make ELT classroom alive, the selection of teaching materials can be taken into consideration. In listening class, Cahyono and Widiati (2009) believe that a good listening material is a key factor to determine the success of listening instructions. However, they continue that the source of material for students is limited. Therefore, we propose the use of www.spotlightenglish.com as an alternative material in teaching listening comprehension. It constitutes a free-access website which provides students with a wide range of topics such as science, education, culture, religion, and so forth. The audio file could be downloaded or listened directly from the website. One of the popular features of the website is 'listen & read', a 15-minute audio which is delivered to imitate radio broadcasters' style.

Using www.spotlightenglish.com can be beneficial in several ways. First of all, the recording is brought in a natural way (radio-like). Furthermore, it is

supplemented with a musical background allowing its listeners to feel relax and calm during the listening session. Undeniably, listening can be quite stressful for some students, especially if they fail to recognize certain words which prevent them from understanding the content. Researchers (Elkhafaifi 2005; Bekleyen 2009) assert that students who suffer general language anxiety are potentially to experience a certain degree of anxiety in listening. They agree that this two type of anxieties correlate negatively with the students' achievement. Therefore, the presence of a relaxing music in the listening is expected to lower their nervousness, making them to feel more comfortable in the classroom. Ultimately, it is hoped to increase focus of the students so they can optimize the benefits, for example in form of a better comprehension or higher test results.

Second, the speed of the material is rather slow. Although Hayati (2010) claims that a natural speed delivery would be slightly better to improve listening comprehension, earlier studies (e.g. Blau 1990; Nation & Newton 2009) suggest that low speed delivery can be more helpful for students at the basic level English proficiency. Considering the status of English as a foreign language in Indonesia, the use of low speed audio might help students understand the message better. The slower recording could assist the learners to take time in processing input messages in the brain. Moreover, the audio is accompanied by a script. Thus, students can listen carefully how broadcasters deliver particular words as they are reading the script. They can compare their own pronunciation and check whether they have used a correct pronunciation or not. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the decision to pick slow recording should carefully consider the level of the students. If the students in the class are in advance levels, there is no slowing needed.

The next benefit that teachers may gain from using the website is regarding its accessibility where the content is free of cost. Everyone can listen to the audio directly from the website or download it to be listened at home without paying any dollars. Students can access the website at any time and listen to the audio file to train their listening skill. As the result, teachers not only can use it in the classroom but also can have students to work collaboratively at home without the presence of the teacher. The students may be assigned a collaborative project from which they can use the language. On top of that, this free access allow students to be more independent leading them to become autonomous language learners.

Finally, materials in the website contain positive social values which are good for students' moral development. As mentioned earlier, the website has various topics in which a teacher can easily download for classroom materials. In this research, materials related to culture, religion, society seem to be more appropriate considering our main purpose for moral development. Students can be selected interesting materials where they can consciously or unconsciously learn from it. The rest of this paper will focus on this issue, particularly practical examples to use this website.

Theory Application

In this section, we are going to discuss step-by-step how an online material can be used to promote both students' listening proficiency and moral values. We

offer practical classroom activities as well as reasons underlying the activities. To start with, teachers can select moral-related materials. Akin et al. (1995) recommend that teachers could provide students materials which provoke their sense of community service. After that, teachers can stand up in front of the classroom and invite students to mention what they know about the topic before listening (brainstorming activities). Unlike intermediate/advance learners who can translate word by word from what they hear, beginner learners greatly rely on their prior knowledge (schemata) to help them guess the content (Nation and Newton 2009). Hence, students could be asked to explore as many as possible words or phrases to get them familiar with topic. Teachers can draw a main circle with the topic placed within the circle. Then the teachers draw other smaller circles containing related vocabularies or words mentioned by the students.

The next step is activities that students do whilst listening. As they are listening to the audio, they can be provided with a listening's script so they can read how exactly a word is pronounced. This is helpful because it gives the students enough time to process the language word-by-word in the brain. It allows them to discover the meaning of the words and identify its linguistic aspects, such as grammar. Nation and Newton (2009) correctly claim that if students want to be successful in listening, they must pay more attention on the linguistic aspects rather than solely on their schemata. In addition, by providing the script, it is hoped that the students can follow the plot of the listening and grasp its general moral values better.

Having given a chance to listen, students are requested to do some comprehension tests. The students can be handed out with various types of activities. In our context, we frequently employ oral close test, filling in the gaps, and other questions requiring short answers from the students. Another type question which requires longer and debatable answers can be also implemented by requesting students to have a discussion with their peers. Harmer (1998) highlights that this sort of question is just as crucial as other short answer questions. The possible reason is because it demands the students to infer what they hear. It enables us to verify that the students' understanding is not at a superficial level.

It has been mentioned at the beginning that the purpose of this research is to enhance students' moral development through education. In addition to moral-related materials, generating discussion activities at the end of listening can properly support this goal. It is in this session where students can learn some examples of good moral values. Before the discussion begins, teachers can remind the students to behave well and introduce the values of respect, honesty, responsibility, group, and society. Most importantly, teachers can demonstrate these values, for example by modelling useful phrases to interrupt other discussion members. The discussion also reflects a pretty good example of working collaboratively. In the group, the students can exchange ideas. They not only interpret certain moral values from their own perspective but also can hear other students' voices.

In order to effectively embed moral values in this activity, teachers should be able to play their roles. Experts (Akin et al 1995; Mergler and Spooner-lane

2012) underline that the best way to teach moral education, one of them, is through modelling. Mergler and Spooner-lane (2012, p. 72) argues that “the behaviors a teacher models to students in the classroom send powerful messages about what is and is not acceptable ways of behaving. During the discussion, teachers can show the element of respect by listening enthusiastically to their students. Teachers can also endorse the use of cooperative learning to promote the elements of caring on group and society, for example by encouraging the students to help each other.

Finally, when the discussion has ended, teachers may have the students conduct an extra project. This is in line with Akin et al’s (1995) suggestion, where students should be encouraged with extracurricular, projects, or community services. They may observe their social environment to see a link between what they learn from the discussion and the practice. In this final activity, teachers can insert other elements of good characters mentioned previously. The teachers, for instance, can have students apply the principles of honesty in their work. They should give honest data and avoid negative data manipulation. Further, the students should uphold the element of responsibility. Each students must be responsible with their individual and group task. In a group, they should also ensure that they can accomplish the project/observation on time.

Conclusion

Living in the mid of globalization era means that students can easily access either positive or negative information from their gadget. To protect students from its negative effect, teachers play a vital role to help them develop their good characters at school. The aim is to create individuals who not only shines in their academic achievement, but also have good manners in society. The use of appropriate materials is considered important in this paper. We propose an online material which offers multiple benefits both for students and teachers. Not only expose students with reasonable speed, such a listening also contains some moral values which can be transferred as the result of the listening. Most importantly, the teachers can embed and emphasis moral education following the listening, i.e. during discussion section. However, the paper is still limited in a number of ways. One of the example, it does not present data which stems from an empirical perspective. All judgment and claim made in this paper are still based on a theoretical basis. Therefore, there is a need to conduct further research which, for instance, empirically examines the effectiveness of www.spotlightenglish.com to develop both listening proficiency and morality. Secondly, the research could be also directed to assess students’ thought during the learning activities, especially concerning with the explicit ways of teaching moral education. We recommend further research to focus on classroom action research since it is capable of checking students’ progress on certain classroom activities while at the same time its qualitative data can be used to investigate students’ perspectives about the integration of moral education during listening activities.

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TRILINGUAL TEXTUALIZATION TO DELIVER INDONESIAN LOCAL CULTURES TO HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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Abstract

This article addresses issues surrounding translation of local texts from regional languages and cultures throughout the Indonesian archipelago into Indonesian and English. The textualization of the local culture to be documented includes: (1) folklore, (2) life-cycle rituals, (3) socio-religious rituals, (4) traditional medicine and other local wisdom, and (5) local culinary. It will discuss the formulation of the basic philosophy, themes, and values in the local texts to translate as well as principles of translation to apply. The study shows that textualization of the local texts helps support the politics of the national language, namely the use of Indonesian as the national language, the preservation of local languages as the fundamental support of the national culture, and the exposure of various local wisdoms to the global community. The availability of trilingual cultural texts will likely contribute to the promotion of human dignity.

Keywords: local texts, translation, trilingual

Introduction

Indonesia is a *Rumah Bahasa* or the home of language and culture for hundreds of languages with diverse cultures. Embedded in the local languages and cultures are countless local wisdoms. As the times progress, hundreds of languages with their local cultures will be threatened with extinction if there is no effort, in various ways, to care for and preserve them. The translation of local texts, with their local content and wisdom, from local to Indonesian and English languages, contributes to the improvement of the quality of life, efficiency, and elevation of human dignity (Bismoko, 2015). Whether in the past, present, and future, translation encompasses a very potential study area for civilization and the glorification of human dignity, or, to borrow the term coined by the Indonesian Jesuit and founder of Sanata Dharma University Driyarkara, “hominization and humanization” (Sastrapratedja, 2006, p. 3).

This article is part of a larger, ongoing research in translating local texts into the national (Indonesian) and international (English) languages conducted at Sanata Dharma University (henceforth USD), Yogyakarta. It is assumed that each member of the academic community should at least be fluent in English and Indonesian or other languages. In addition, some are communicating with the local language because USD educates students from almost all provinces in

Indonesia. This means that members of the academic community in USD have great potential to translate texts from English to Indonesian, and even into many local languages and vice-versa. Therefore, translation becomes a productive tool for improving communication efficiency. This is the reason why it is necessary to model the translation of local texts and their wisdom into national and international languages, since the cultivation, growth and preservation of local languages and cultures including their noble values are contained in local texts.

Besides, the internalization of local wisdom found in local languages and cultures proves significant for the nation's future generations so as to have a strong foundation in shaping local identity, identity, resilience and pride in a global or international context. Local languages and cultures with all their wisdom should then be introduced widely not only at the national but also international level. In turn, the localization of local cultures and languages gives the Indonesian nation the ability to appreciate and witness its own local wisdom thus enhancing national and global mobility with direct and indirect impacts for, to mention but one, improving the regional tourism industry.

Furthermore, in order to preserve local languages and cultures and their wisdom to make them more widely known, it is necessary not only to provide up-to-date, localized translation, but also a lasting and continuous one. In addition to the provision of prototypes of local trilingual textbooks for extensive reading materials for high school students in Indonesia and abroad, the sustainability of these languages and cultural conservation efforts requires a program that ensures the sustainability of the production or publication of these trilingual local textbooks.

It should be added that the novelty of research in translating local texts into Indonesian and English is inseparable from the development of information and communication technology. The translation of local texts means utilizing ICT, such as Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) software and translation memory (i.e., by uploading words or groups of words so that translations in three languages are instantly available and recognizable worldwide). It is clear here that maintaining, preserving and developing local texts for local, national, and international interests through translation programs needs to be carried out in a sustainable manner by maximizing sophisticated technology.

Theory

In the last decade, some ecolinguistic experts like Fill and Mühlhäusler (2004), Steffensen and Fill (2014), Nash and Mühlhäusler (2014) have tried to convince that languages will become extinct over time if not treated like the way people has (mis)treated environment. Nash and Mühlhäusler (2014), for example, show that the Pitkern-Norf'k language in Norfolk Island is increasingly eroded because a number of lexical and grammatical aspects are highly dependent on the conditions of the rapidly changing (degenerative) natural environment. The understanding of the place (the ecological aspect) is closely intertwined with its verbalization. According to the two researchers, if the conditions of place or ecology change, automatically the discussion thereof may also change, or even extinct.

This present study is in line with the claims made by Nash and Mühlhäusler but adapted for the Indonesian context given the far more diverse and sometimes drastic changes in the environment, culture and society in Indonesia. The predictions of Steffensen and Fill (2014) and Nash and Mühlhäusler (2014) necessarily serve as a warning for all languages in countries that have hundreds of local languages. For Indonesia, this is an urgent issue because the 646 indigenous languages in Indonesia, verified as of October 2016 by the Ministry of Education (See Kompas, 7 August 2017), and their local wisdom will gradually become extinct if not duly preserved. The implication is a huge loss because the wealth of humanitarian values of Indonesia will simply disappear, unless some rescue action is done, among others through textualization and translation of local cultures.

Therefore, there are at least 3 (three) strategic reasons why the textualization of local cultural texts is done in three languages. The first is local content. Indonesia is very rich and unique; and the uniqueness of each regional culture needs to be introduced as widely as possible through translation. The textualization and translation of the local cultures is supported by creative writing frame involving three languages, namely local, national, and international languages. As such, it will also contribute to the efforts in preserving language and culture that align with the strategic issues institutionalized by the university, i.e. integration of the nation, social harmony, language, literature and culture.

The second is target language. Trilingual texts contribute to the politics of the national language, especially regarding the use of *Bahasa Indonesia* as the national language, and the preservation of local languages as the support of national culture. Translation allows local wisdom to be increasingly recognized locally, nationally and internationally. Thus, these trilingual texts will also contribute to the promotion of human dignity and prestige which is in line with the institutional vision and mission.

Lastly, sustainability is the third rationale. This textualization produces 5 (five) prototypes of texts with local contents: (1) folklore (myth, legend, folktales), (2) life-cycle rituals (birth, marriage, death, and other rites of passages), (3) socio-religious rituals (e.g. Grebeg, Nyale, & Tabot), (4) traditional medicine and other local wisdom, and (5) local culinary. This prototype is indispensable as a basis for translating local contents more and more widely which will be presented using creative writing models.

To ensure its continuity, the task of translating local texts and the wisdom thereof in all corners of the archipelago needs to collaborate with various parties such as speakers of local languages, local government, and potential users of translation products. English Language Studies in Indonesia should call for and play an active role in promoting human dignity by, among others, preserving local language and culture for local, national and international interests. The study or research in English using a classicist way which disregards the values of humanity is but a setback and a big loss to the nation (Bismoko, 2009, p. 8). The target of this trilingual textualization of local cultures is therefore high school students. The strategic reason is that they are the next generation who must develop, preserve and will in turn pass the language and culture of the nation to the next generation.

Philosophical Foundation and Method of Translation

In producing trilingual texts of local culture, this study uses as its philosophical foundation that of Ricouer (2004), i.e. translation is an act of intercultural communication aimed at the target language users. The philosophy of functional-communicative translation is necessary to make the translation paradigm from Indonesian to English and vice-versa (Dangin et al., 2016). On the basis of this functional-communicative dimension, good translation is an acceptable translation (cf. Prabandari, 2012). The study of criteria and analysis of translation acceptability has grown rapidly since Catford offered linguistic translation analysis in 1965. The essence of translation is the equivalent representation of the source language to the target language, in terms of stylistics, references, and linguistic features. Its acceptability needs to be complemented with standard instruments such as the model made by, for instance, NAATI (National Accreditation Authority of Translators and Interpreters) to assess the quality of translation, which includes the stylistic, referential, and linguistic components for translation products to be qualified and acceptable (Tanuwijaya et al., 2016).

In addition to content analysis and the type of text from the grammatical and lexical structural aspects above, the analysis of culturally distinctive terms and mechanical matters in the source language and its target language requires an adequate theoretical foundation. Translation theories that continue to grow since the 1990s are “foreignization” and “domestication”. The first is the technique of preserving the peculiarities or distinctiveness of the original cultures (e.g. persons’ names, homegrown cuisine, historical figures, street names or local institutions), while domestication is a free translation style to minimize the strangeness of foreign texts within target language. In *Translation Invisibility* (1995) Venuti calls it “sending readers abroad” vis-à-vis “bringing authors home”. Literal word-for-word translation does not usually apply to such local texts as proverbs for which reason knowledge about the culture of the source and target languages is indispensable in order to achieve idiomatic translation (Dewi, 2018, p. 240). The translation of academic texts from Indonesian to English, according to Apriyanti et al. (2016), uses a lot of foreignization or assimilation techniques, whereas literary texts such as poetry typically use a number of distinguishing markers such as capitalization or italics. The translation of local cultural texts here employs this dynamics of foreignization-domestication strategy.

In addition to the basic philosophy of translation, the practice of translating local culture texts attempted in this study also makes use of various free and paid electronic translator machines/software with its advantages and disadvantages. Paid software such as, for example, Wordfast, according to Apriliana et al. (2016) has a comparative advantage because of the Translation Memory facility that allows faster and more efficient translation. Similarly, the paid translation engine SDL Trados 2014 and Across (free) are proved effective. Both devices are equipped with the Translation Memory and Alignment Tool features to ensure accurate and effective translation of Indonesian texts into English, (Kurniawati et al., 2016).

Note must be taken here that verbal communication is the essence of language studies. Most verbal communication is done between people from the same language background. In today's globalized world, progressively more people from different nationalities have to communicate. In most countries, including Asian countries such as Indonesia, the language used is English as a lingua franca (Yano, 2001), or better known as "World English" (Graddol, 2006). It is thus clear the importance of translation to improve communication.

The findings of Foley and Deocampo (2016) also have relevance to the study of translation, especially on linguistic hybridity. Their research on blog users in Singapore and the Philippines shows that local languages are sometimes tucked into English usage as lingua franca. Responding to the question of linguistic hybridity, the translation of local texts in the three languages employed in this study, however, take a different strategy. Since the resulting translation products are formal or official texts, namely the extensive reading books for the enrichment of high school students, the widely used translation strategies are domestication-foreignization (Hatim, 2001; Bassnett, 2002 and relevant studies mentioned above). This strategy prioritizes the communicative function of language as its foundation.

Theory Application

Firstly, the five local cultures selected as prototypes to appear in trilingual (Indonesian, regional and English) texts are (1) folklore, (2) life-cycle rituals, (3) socio-religious rituals, (4) traditional Indonesian medicine and (5) local culinary. Given that pedagogical values are ingrained in the local wisdom that should be introduced nationally to learners as early as possible, it is determined in advance the various cultures derived from 5 (five) different regions in Indonesia as samples to represent Indonesian local cultures. The selection of local settings is done on the basis of expediency with no personal/ideological interests involved. Hopefully, further projects can cover all local cultures throughout Indonesia. As it is, for this initial undertaking, trilingual textualization of local cultures is prepared as follows: (1) folklore "Legend of Sikidang Crater" from Dieng Plateau, Central Java, (2) Minangkabau marriage ritual "Babako", (3) socio-religious ritual "Grebeg Mulud" in Yogyakarta, (4) traditional medicine "Pendamban" from Banjar, South Kalimantan, and (5) local culinary "Ronde" from Peranakan Chinese-Indonesian culture. The followings are details of each prototype, its socio-historical background, significance and technique/strategy in translating the prototype.

Folklore

That folklore is a good learning material has been proven by a number of studies available in the field (e.g. Pennebaker, 2000; Erkaya, 2005; Worth, 2008), although none specifically mention its relation to the translation of folk tales in three languages to be introduced to the whole world. Manifold (2013), for example, uses fascinating imaginary stories to prove their educative values in his art class. The scarcity of trilingual translation of traditional stories presented via creative writing makes this study important and contributes to the study of folklore.

The translated folklores may include myths, legends, and folktales that live throughout Indonesia such as “Legend of Sikidang Crater”. The word “legend” comes from the Latin word meaning “something to read”. It is an account about the actions of a person agreed upon in the past by the story-tellers and listeners (Dewi, 2016, p. 18). Because it is considered real, legend is usually associated with a particular place or site and the heroic action of the main character. Sikidang Crater where this legend is originated, for example, is located in Dieng Plateau, Banjarnegara District, Central Java, precisely in the Garung District. The remaining volcanic crater is unique because it is always boiling and occasionally sprinkles of hot water jumps from the crater like a deer (kidang in Javanese), hence the name. Visited till now by domestic and foreign tourists alike, Sikidang Crater also bears the extraordinary love story between Shinta Dewi and Kidang Garungan. According to the local legend, Princess Shinta Dewi, received the proposal of the rich Prince Kidang Garungan without meeting him before. What a surprise it was when the princess found out that her future husband had a face like that of a deer. To cancel the marriage, Shinta Dewi requested that the prince make a well within 24 hours. With his supernatural power, Prince Kidang Garungan dug the hard soil rapidly to form a big dig and the well was almost ready. Meanwhile, the gradually more desperate princess ordered her servants to close the dig with soil burying the prince inside the well. Being deceived, Garungan shouted angrily as he mustered all his energy to burst the well. Before dying, the prince made a curse that all the descendants of Shinta Dewi be born with jumbled messy hair.

To translate this folktale, the first of the three translation categories (interpreting, scientific/ technical, commercial/business translation) by Samuelsson-Brown (2010) is applied. Some of the criteria to meet include: a sense of language, cultural knowledge about the subject of translation, an understanding of a similar work and creative writing skills. The translation of literary works puts more importance on the meaning, therefore the translator must be adept when moving from one creative style to another. Thus, “Legend of Sikidang Crater” is textualized to emphasize the promotional value of the site, i.e. the crater, the haircut ritual and Garung’ s potential for vacation industry, instead of the sinister side of the princess’ story.

Life-cycle

Life rituals that fall into this local culture category include birth, marriage, death and other human life rituals. The different ethnic groups in Indonesia produce diversity of customs, philosophies and beliefs behind every ritual of life passed by members of their respective member of each group. Any local culture is full of moral values that deserve to be narrated and preserved from time to time.

Educators, policymakers and parents can use the narrative of the very rich rituals of life in Indonesia to introduce local culture as well as character education. To compare, Yim et al. (2009) studied 392 children aged four to five from 29 kindergarten schools and 57 early pre-school teachers in Hong Kong to test their views on Confucian values represented in traditional stories from four Chinese festivals. Confucian values are centered on five virtues: Ren (virtue), Yi (truth), Li (courtesy), Xiao (pious), and Zhi (wisdom), while the four selected Chinese festivals are: (1) Lunar New Year , (2) Dragon Boat festival, (3) Chung Yeung

festival, and (4) Mid-Autumn festival. The results show that Ren (virtue) and Yi (truth) are the most popular values to response, while the value of Li (courtesy) tends to be the most unpopular category. It is surprising that the young generation in Hong Kong sampled in the research pay little attention to courtesy. It can be concluded here that the educational aspects, character formation, and moral values contained in local culture need to be constantly socialized. Local culture is not supposed to be static, but dynamic to implant and care for according to the needs and contexts of the time.

One example of ritual life in Indonesia that is rich in meaning is marriage. Although all marriage ceremonies share common values, the marriage ceremony of West Sumatra "*Babako*", for example, can be used as an example of a prototype in this category. Marriage in Minangkabau tradition is organized by the mother, while the father's relatives are responsible for the "*Babako*" ceremony. The ceremony to release the "child of pusako" or the daughter to be married is carried out by the father and his family. The bride-to-be is picked up, given advice and guidance about family life, then delivered at home the next day. The delivery also comes with properties for party such as wedding dress, jewelry, raw materials, groceries and many more. In addition to the value of education (courtesy, respect for parents and relatives), *Babako* is also a proof of solidarity and cooperation between families. The message is that wedding ceremony should not become a heavy financial burden for both sides.

The translation required here is a light translation, suited to the sense of taste and aptitude of the targeted readers, in this case, high school students. Samuelsson-Brown (2010) suggests "simplified English" skill, that is the application of simplified English for certain types of texts. The terms in the local languages are translated according to appropriate principles, including foreignization-domestication (Venuti, 1995).

Socio-religious Ritual

Recent inter-religious conflicts, widespread misunderstanding (chiefly via social media) and extremism in Indonesia have injured Article 29 of the 1945 Constitution on religious freedom which is the fruit of a prudent agreement of the Founding Fathers of the NKRI or the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia. In order for religion not to be used as an issue easily igniting sectarianism, inter-religious dialogue is needed so that religious followers can respect each other's differences and diversity. Cultivation of mutual respect, good understanding and good practice of religious life, which is harmonious and peaceful, can sometimes be seen from the implementation of socio-religious rituals in Indonesia.

The celebration of "*Grebeg Mulud*" in Yogyakarta, for example, can be used as one sample of this socio-religious ritual prototype. Originally intended as an event that was held by the King of Jogja to distribute alms to the people, Grebeg is a form of religiosity of the society since ancient Javanese times in giving thanks to the Creator. Since Islam entered Java, Grebeg has been celebrated on every major Muslim day such as Shawwal, Eid al-Adha and Prophet's Mawlid. In this event, a mountain of crops and various snacks market with the pray and blessings from the religious leader (ulama) is paraded for grabs (Javanese: *digrebeg*) by

crowds of people regardless of their religions/beliefs. This ritual can be a social driving force for harmony in order to improve social cohesion.

The translation of local cultural texts that fall into this category of socio-religious ritual, like the previous category, requires text analysis in advance to determine the type of text. The equivalent concept of Reiss postulated in 1976 which is a refinement of Buhler's theory of three types of text in translation (informative, expressive, operative) is useful in translating texts such as "*Grebeg Mulud*". In addition to the correspondence of each type of text with its linguistic function, Reiss adds the language dimension according to the existing communicative situation. Cultural narratives are usually not merely pure information but evoke certain behavioral responses or appellative functions to persuade the readers (the recipients of the translation) to take a certain stance. The translation of socio-religious ritual texts is not only meant to indicate data accuracy, but it is also intended to increase knowledge while helping readers to appreciate diversity.

Traditional Medicine

When talking about local wisdom as an educational focal point, Tilaar (2015) mentions traditional medicine as one top local culture. Medicinal plants thrive in Indonesia and are beneficial to nourish health. Medicinal plants and cosmetics have been used naturally by the ancestors since the time of yore, but this potential has not been managed optimally. The success story of the benefits of herbal medicine in three languages helps straighten the view that traditional medicine is associated with mystical and irrational powers.

Local wisdom in the form of traditional medicine "*Penamban*" from Banjar, South Kalimantan is chosen here as a sample for the local wisdom of this largest island in Indonesia which is widely known throughout the world. Thus far, most people have known herbal medicine as a traditional natural medicine from Indonesia, especially Java. The collection or harvesting of the plants are not that much different from ordinary herbs, but the names of the plant species, processing methods, and other relevant information about the history and practice of herbal treatment are not always the same from one region to another. The plant sap called "*tlutuh*" by people in Central Java, for example, is known as "*dhadhak*" in East Java.

The translation of this type of popular scientific texts requires a different strategy than the previous texts. The principle of informative text translation and the equivalent theory is applied here. The use of footnotes, glossaries, and scientific names (Latin) is also used to translate foreign terms.

Local Culinary

Maintenance of local culture is incomplete if it does not include food and its significance for continuing education in the global era. The values of local culture will be easily eroded by global capitalism, whereas culture, according to Amartya Sen (in Tilaar, 2014: 17), is the bond of national unity. It is no exaggeration that local culinary plays a role in the nation's efforts to care for its culture. Teak (2014) discusses "*tumpeng*" or cone-shaped rice as one of the local culinary that is full of Javanese cultural values, while Susilawati et al. (2016) uses Cirebon cuisine as a means of learning science. From the aspect of sustainability

development, the importance of local culinary is conducted by Entas et al. (2017) to show the model of culinary tourism industry in Metro, Lampung. Textualization of local culinary in three languages supports Indonesia's educational efforts that should be known by the global community as well.

One of the culinary items selected to be featured as a local culture is "*Ronde*". This hot sweet ginger-scented drink with balls of marbles made from glutinous flour is only found in Indonesia. According to Bromokusumo (2013), *Ronde* is a cross cultural culinary of China and Indonesia which takes its name from Dutch "*rond*" which means round. In its' country of origin, *Ronde* is served with meat broth when the whole family gathers to celebrate the last day of the entire series of days celebrated according to the Chinese Lunar calendar (December 22 on the international calendar). The basic ingredients of *Ronde* are glutinous flour and sticky water that has its philosophical meaning of gluing family and kinship relationships.

The translation of local culinary texts would be more interesting if presented in the type of text that belongs to Reiss' fourth type, the audiomedial text. This text combines visual images, images, music, and so on with all three types of text along with their respective linguistic dimensions. Aspects of hybridity, integration, assimilation and cultural tolerance that can be read behind this local culinary history for example, can be shown through interactive and multidimensional translation. This is where the understanding and creative writing skills are required, in addition to the mastery of the two languages, general knowledge and intercultural understanding, as well as ICT application.

Suffice it to say for now that the discussion of local culture in the five categories above becomes the basis for producing trilingual texts of local cultures with creative writing as a frame. This creative writing model is chosen because the texts are designed as an enrichment reading materials for learning language and culture in high school level. The strengthening of local culture by maintaining its sustainability will affect the growth of regional languages. In the context of Indonesia, in addition to being a local cultural language, regional languages are the language of familiarity and pride of regions whose usage is a complement, not a competitor, against the national language (Sastrapratedja, 2013, p. 12). The availability of local cultural textualization in local languages, national languages, and international languages is an advantage for the Indonesian nation to establish a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and multilingual national identity as part of the world's citizens. Humans in the view of current language philosophy, continued Sastrapratedja, not only do people form a language but people are formed by language. Thus, the strengthening of local culture and regional languages support the national language policy in building national character and global citizenship.

Conclusion

This paper has shown the urgency of Indonesia, with hundreds of languages and cultures, to care for its wealth through trilingual translation of local cultural texts. Local languages and cultures contain local wisdom that will eventually be threatened with extinction if not well maintained and preserved. The treasures of Indonesian human values will be lost if not guarded. The effort to translate local

cultural texts is believed to help develop and preserve the various languages and cultures of the nation along with its noble values so that it can be more widely known both in national and international scopes.

Because English plays an important role for the nation's civilization from time to time, translation studies are conducted for the development of institutional potential of Sanata Dharma University through its flagship programs, English Language Studies, to further enhance the contribution of this institution to the community. As a part of a larger, ongoing research on the translation of local cultural texts from regional languages throughout the archipelago into Indonesian and English, this paper deals only with the formulation of basic philosophy, themes, and values in local cultural texts to be translated which include : (1) legend of Central Java (2) marriage rituals in West Sumatra, (3) socio-religious rituals in Yogyakarta, (4) traditional treatments from Borneo, and (5) local Peranakan culinary. The five local cultural prototypes discussed serve as a means of education materials as well as accounts of collective life for members of the community that must always be cherished and nurtured. Each prototype becomes a model for the development of subsequent local cultural trilingual texts until the entire wealth of the archipelago is well documented.

This article has also shown that the translations of each prototype follow the principles in translation such as acceptability, a functional-communicative interpretation and a number of strategies such as text analysis, equivalence, literary and non-literary, etc. The selection of appropriate theory and/or translation principles is necessary to enable the results of the translation products help convey the worth and cultural values of the nation that still need to be continually explored, studied and socialized to reach a wide audience.

Finally, the documentation of local cultural texts is expected to support the politics of the national language, namely the use of Indonesian language as the national unifying language, the preservation of local languages as the support of national culture, and the exposure of local wisdom to the global community. These trilingual cultural texts are expected to contribute to the promotion of human dignity.

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LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract

Research on language learning strategies has been carried out since the 1990s in Indonesia. These studies have covered the language learning strategies among senior high school and university students. There has been insufficient research that investigates junior high school and primary school students. The main objective of the study was to investigate the language learning strategies of junior high school students in learning English by finding out what learning strategies they employ most frequently according to the four language skills. Data were collected using survey questionnaire distributed to 34 eighth grade students. They responded to the questionnaire adapted from Language Strategy Use Inventory by Cohen, Oxford and Chi (2002). The adapted version of Language Strategy Use Questionnaire consists of 40 statements concerning the four major English language skills. They are listening, speaking, reading and writing. The responses were calculated through statistical analysis in terms of frequency, mean and standard deviation by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 20 for Windows. The findings revealed that the eighth graders of the junior high school in Bandung were moderate users of strategies in reading, writing, listening, and speaking. These students were reported to use reading strategies the most while speaking strategies were used the least. The findings of this study indicate that the students had their own learning preferences and strategies in learning English. It is recommended that research on language learning strategies should not stop from investigation and exploration in order to help the learners to be successful English language learners.

Keywords: language learning strategies, junior high school students, English as a Foreign Language

Introduction

Nowadays, English has a status as an international lingua franca, and it makes scholars and educators have prompted to find out ways or methods to develop successful language learners. Therefore, students need strategies in learning English in and out of classroom activities. Language learning strategies help students to succeed in learning and developing their communicative competency. Oxford (1990) stated that learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning, and they are important for language learners because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for

developing communication competency. It means that learning strategies are individual; it will be different from one student to another. Thus, each student has his or her own strategy in learning.

The role of English language in the 21st century is very dominant. In this era, we are prompted to have good English language proficiency. The importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its most prominent themes. Furthermore, in this 21st century, there is a gradual shift of typical classroom context. Teachers are no longer the only source of knowledge. Learners are demanded to be active and self-directed. In line with the purpose of the 2013 curriculum, the teaching and learning process is expected to support students to learn by finding knowledge and information by themselves. It can be concluded that Language Learning Strategies would be important to assist students in learning how to learn.

Language Learning Strategies assist English language learners to master the materials independently, either individually or with others, where successful language learners make use of different types of learning strategies. Fedderholdt (1997) stated that language learners who are capable of using a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately can better improve their language skills because they are better equipped.

Low proficiency in English among students in Indonesia has been a significant issue in our education system. This issue has become a long debate and a hot topic among researchers. A great number of students are unsuccessful in learning English. They do not know how exactly to learn it. Meanwhile, in the teaching and learning process, language teachers only teach the language. They do not teach the learners how to learn it. In the 21st century, there is a gradual shift in language learning process, where students should be more active, independent or autonomous in language learning. Related to learning English language, students are expected to be more active in learning English by implementing learning strategies. The use of appropriate language learning strategies will help the students to improve their English.

In spite of the increasing popularity of research on learning strategies since the mid- 1970s, the topic of learning strategies is still a new research area in any educational levels in Indonesia. In other words, LLS was not popular and rarely discussed in Indonesian literature. With reference to Indonesian context, there is the insufficiency of research on LLS employed by young learners. Majority of research to date in Indonesia has focused on secondary high school, particularly senior high school students (Mistar, 2010; Mistar & Umamah, 2015) and undergraduates, particularly among English major (Lengkanawati, 1997; Djiwandono, 1998; Huda 1998; Bambang, 2000; Mistar, 2001, 2006; Lengkanawati, 2004; Johari, 2005; Ras 2013). As reviewed above, very few studies have been done on language learning strategies for young learners or junior high school students. Therefore, there are more possibilities to conduct a new research on language learning strategies among young EFL students. It is hoped that this research will shed new lights on the knowledge of language learning strategies. Concerning the issues above, this paper aims to investigate the

language learning strategies of the eighth grade junior high school students in Bandung in learning English.

Before the 1960s, in the field of second language learning and teaching, many researchers had focused on teaching methods or strategies without concerning the learners. Then, research interests shifted from the study of teaching method to the study of learner's characteristics and the effects on second language acquisition.

In the field of language learning, research in language learning strategies began in the 1960s. It was called Good Language Learner (GLL). It was then developed into Language Learning Strategies (LLS). Good Language Learner studies focused only on what a good language learner did and which Language Learning Strategies they chose in their language learning. Since 1970s, the focus and findings of the Language Learning Strategies have developed into a wider dimension such as factors influencing the learners.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) defined LLS as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individual use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1). This definition tells us that LLS can be either observable (behaviors) or unobservable (thoughts). LLS also help students comprehend and learn new information. Richards and Platt (1992) stated that learning strategies are "intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information" (p. 209).

According to Oxford (1990) learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more efficient and more transferable to a new situation. Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. In addition, Embi (2000) defines LLS as the plans and/or actions that learners take to enhance their process of language learning. Three strategies are established, which are: a) learning strategies, b) communication strategies, and c) production strategies.

Method

This research employed a quantitative descriptive research with survey method. The data collected was to find out the language learning strategies used by eighth grade junior high school students in Bandung. The participants of this study were 34 eighth grade students in one public junior high school in Bandung. They were beginners in learning English.

In this study, a questionnaire was used as an instrument of data collection. Questionnaires are the most frequently used method in current studies on language learning strategies. As mentioned by Embi (2000), most surveys conducted in language learning strategies research are of behavior questionnaires and strategy inventory involving factor analysis. The instrument used in this study was the Language Strategy Use Questionnaire adapted from Language Strategy Use Inventory by Cohen, Oxford, and Chi (2002). There are 40 statements about the strategies in learning English concerning four English major skills in the questionnaire. The subjects responded to the five-scales statements ranging from 1: Never or almost never true of me, 2: Usually not true of me, 3: Somewhat true

of me, 4: Usually true of me, 5: Always or almost always true of me. Thus, the highest mean possible is 5.00, while the lowest possible score would be 1.00. A mean score of 3.00 would be the midpoint.

Statistical analysis to calculate frequencies means and standard deviations are employed to identify the most frequently used learning strategies and the least used one. In this study, the researcher used Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 20 for Windows in analyzing the data. The descriptive statistics help to present the findings of the survey question in a form that is easy to understand. This research used descriptive statistics to analyze these variables. Frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation were used. To find out the frequency of language learning strategies used, interpretation mean score was used.

The responses from the students were divided into three categories. They are “frequently”, “sometimes”, and “never” based on the frequency of strategy use. The mean score for each item was then calculated and the frequency of use for each item was determined using the frequency ratings that were adopted from Oxford (1990).

Findings and Discussion

The following section discusses the finding obtained from the study.

Table 1. Listening Strategies

No	Strategy	Mean	Frequency
1	Listen to talk show on the radio, watch TV shows or movies in English	3.1176	Moderate
2	Listening to people who are speaking in English and try to understand what they are saying.	3.2647	Moderate
3	Practice sound in the target language that are different from sound in my own language.	2.9412	Moderate
4	Pay Special attention to specific aspect of the language.	3.1765	Moderate
5	Try to predict what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.	2.6765	Moderate
6	Listen for key words that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning.	3.2647	Moderate
7	Try to understand what I hear without translating it word for word.	3.2647	Moderate
8	Ask speakers to repeat what they said if it wasn't clear to me.	3.6176	Moderate
9	Ask for clarification if I do not understand it the first time around.	3.6765	Moderate
10	Draw on my general background knowledge to get the main idea .	3.2353	Moderate
Overall Mean		3.2235	Moderate

Table 1 illustrates the overall usage of listening strategies. As shown in Table 1, the two highest mean score are for strategy number 8 and 9. The mean score are 3.6765, and 3.6176. This indicates that respondents tend to ask for clarification if they do not understand it the first time around and they also tend to

ask the speakers to repeat what they said if it was not clear for them. In addition, the results show that the respondents also used other strategies. They try to listen to the people who are speaking in English and try to understand what they are saying. They listen for key words that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning, and try to understand what they hear without translating it word for word.

The two strategies with the lowest mean score are strategy number 3 and 5 (with the mean score of 2.6765 and 2.4912). This indicates that the respondents seldom try to predict what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far and to practice the sounds in the target language that are different from the sounds in their own language.

Table 2. Speaking Strategies

No	Strategy	Mean	Frequency
1	Practice saying new expressions to myself.	3.2647	Moderate
2	Practice new grammatical structures orally in different situations to build my confidence level in using them.	3.0000	Moderate
3	Initiate conversations in the target language as often as possible.	2.6471	Moderate
4	Direct the conversation to familiar topics.	3.0000	Moderate
5	Plan out in advance what I want to say.	3.8824	Moderate
6	Ask question as a way to be involved in the conversation.	3.1765	Moderate
7	Try to talk about topics even when they are aren't familiar to me.	3.1176	Moderate
8	Encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.	3.5588	Moderate
9	Ask for help from my conversational partner.	3.5294	Moderate
10	Make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.	2.8235	Moderate
Overall Mean		3.2000	

The second skill is speaking. The finding shows that the highest score is strategy number 5 with the mean score of 3.88 (Plan out in advance what I want to say). The second highest is strategy number 8 with the mean score of 3.55 (Encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.). The third highest mean score is strategy number 9 with the mean score of 3.529 (Ask for help from my conversational partner).

The strategy with the lowest mean score are strategies number 3 and 10 concerning making up new words or guessing if they do not know the right ones to use and initiate conversations in the target language as often as possible (with the mean score of 2.82 and 2.64 respectively). The mean score for this category is 3.20.

Table 3. Reading Strategies

No	Strategy	Mean	Frequency
1	Read as much as possible in the target language.	3.1176	Moderate
2	Try to find things to read for pleasure in the target language.	2.9118	Moderate

3	Find reading material that is at or near my level.	3.5294	Moderate
4	Skim an academic text first to get the main idea and then go back and read it more carefully.	3.6176	Moderate
5	Read a story or dialogue several times until I understand it.	3.6471	Moderate
6	Pay attention to the organization of the text, especially heading and subheading.	3.2353	Moderate
7	Make ongoing summaries of the reading either in my mind or in the margins of the text.	2.9118	Moderate
8	Make predictions as to what will happen next.	3.1176	Moderate
9	Guess the approximate meaning by using clues from the context of the reading material	3.4412	Moderate
10	Use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what individual words mean.	3.8529	Moderate
Overall Mean		3.3382	

Table 3 shows the results of reading skill. The highest score is item number 10 with the mean score of 3.85 (Use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what individual words mean). The second highest is item number 5 with the mean score of 3.64 (Read a story or dialogue several times until I understand it). The third highest is item number 4 with the mean score of 3.61 (Skim an academic text first to get the main idea and then go back and read it more carefully). These results show that respondents tend to look up words they do not understand in an English dictionary and would use an English-Indonesia dictionary. In addition, the results also show that the respondents tend to try to skim the text.

The items with the lowest mean score are items 2 and 27. The mean score of these items are 2.91. The results show that students do not try to find things to read for pleasure in the target language and make ongoing summaries of the reading either in their mind or in the margins of the text.

Table 4. Writing Strategies

No	Strategy	Mean	Frequency
1	Practice writing the alphabet and/or new words in the target language.	3.2647	Moderate
2	Plan out in advance how to write essays by writing an outline of the essay first.	3.3824	Moderate
3	Try writing different kinds of text in the target language.	3.3529	Moderate
4	Take class notes in the target language as much as I am able.	2.6176	Moderate
5	Find a different way to express the idea when I don't know the correct expression.	3.2353	Moderate
6	Review what I have already written before continuing to write more.	3.7059	Moderate
7	Use reference materials such as a glossary, a dictionary, or a thesaurus to help find or verify words in the target language.	3.5294	Moderate
8	Wait to edit my writing until all my ideas are down on paper.	3.0588	Moderate

9	Revise my writing once or twice to improve the language and content.	3.5882	Moderate
10	Try to get feedback from others, especially native speakers of the language.	3.2059	Moderate
Overall Mean		3.2941	

The last skill is writing. As the table shows, the highest score are items number 6 and 9 with the mean score of 3.70 and 3.58. The results show that the students use these strategies. They review what are written before continuing to write more. They also revise their writing once or twice to improve the language and content. The lowest score is item number 4 (take class notes in the target language as much as I am able) with the mean score of 2.61. The average mean score for this category is 3.29.

Table 5. Frequency of Language Learning Strategies

No	Strategy	Mean	Frequency	Rank
1	Listening	3.2235	Moderate	3
2	Speaking	3.2000	Moderate	4
3	Reading	3.3382	Moderate	1
4	Writing	3.2941	Moderate	2

Based on the data shown in Table 5, reading strategies were the most frequently used while speaking strategies were used least frequently. The mean score for reading is 3.338 respectively. Then, the mean scores for writing and listening are 3.294 and 3.223. Finally, the mean score for speaking is 3.200 respectively. It can be concluded that, the eighth grade students have moderate frequency in using language learning strategy ranged moderately. It also means that they have their own learning preferences and strategies in learning English.

This study investigated the learning strategies of eighth grade students by finding out what learning strategies they employ most frequently. The descriptive analysis demonstrated that reading (3.338) and writing (3.294) strategies are shown to be used most frequently while listening (3.223) and speaking (3.200) strategies are used less frequently by students. The most frequently used reading strategy by the students was item number 10; use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what the individual words mean. The students are not high frequency users of the speaking strategy. Thus, it could be concluded that they lack of vocabulary, self-confidence and practice. Students learn English only in the classroom; they do not practice the language outside the classroom.

As discussed above, the subjects of this study used reading strategies most frequently, followed by writing, listening, and speaking as the least used strategy. In addition, the eighth grade students have moderate frequency in using language learning strategies. These results seem to show that the eighth grade students have awareness and willingness in learning English.

The findings of the present study were consistent with the study conducted by Kaur and Embi (2011) who claimed that reading strategies are the most frequently employed by the primary school students in Malaysia. The most frequently used by male and female primary students was to use a dictionary to get a detailed

sense of what the individual words mean. Furthermore, speaking strategies are used less frequently by the students. In contrast to this, the study by Weng et al (2016) revealed that primary school students were moderate users of listening, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary strategies and low users of speaking strategies.

As discussed above, though the eighth grade students had no special training in using the learning strategies, most of them were conscious in using learning strategies in learning English. They seemed to be aware of the importance of learning English and were applying some kind of measures to facilitate their own learning. As Oxford (1990) suggest, learning strategies can be instructed to language learners.

The findings of this study seem to imply that there is a need to instruct learning strategies more explicitly to English learners, especially for junior high school level because they are usually motivated to do well at school. According to Oxford (1990), learner training is especially necessary in the area of second and foreign language because language learning in these contexts require active self-direction on the part of the learners. In this case, the role of the teacher is needed significantly. Embi (2000) believes that in learner training, teachers have several important roles to play. Cohen (1998) proposed that teachers in the twenty-first century must reconsider the role of the teacher and change their belief-system to learner-centeredness. If they can offer a “strategy-based instruction” to language learners to accommodate individual learners in the classroom and meet their learning needs, then students can take more responsibilities in learning English and learn more independently even outside the classroom. As a result, learners can eventually develop their learning autonomy and achieve their learning goals.

Conclusion

The present study is carried out in an attempt to investigate the language learning strategies used by young EFL learners. The statistical analysis shows that the eighth grade students are generally moderate users of language learning strategies. The findings in the study also bring some pedagogical ideas for English teachers, among them is the importance of knowing learners’ language learning strategies. Hence, teachers were expected to know not only how to teach but also how to learn in order to help the learners to be successful language learners to face the requirements of the 21st century learning.

The followings are the contribution of this study and suggestions for future research on language learning strategies based on the present research study:

1. This present study has illustrated that there is an increasing need and a high demand of investigating language learning strategies used in learning a foreign language, especially in Indonesian context. Most strategy research in the past has concentrated on language learning strategies used in a first and second language.
2. There are only very few studied conducted on young EFL learners. There are still many rooms/space for studies to be conducted at different levels and in different learning contexts (for example kindergarten learners, primary learners of different stream, university students and adults). It is also

recommended to conduct a comparative study on English major and non-English major students.

3. Future studies can be conducted on studying the strategies used by successful language learners in order to help unsuccessful language learners to learn the language effectively and efficiently. There should be also studies on the ways to allow learners to be more autonomous in their own learning.

In conclusion, there is still much work to be done on strategy research. The works on strategy research in the Indonesian context itself is limitless. There are always some studies and research that can be carried out to understand the learning process in our learning.

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COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH SPEAKING ACTIVITIES DESIGNED IN A TEXTBOOK

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Abstract

In pursuing the alignment between the goal of communication purpose and communicative approach, six new textbooks were designed to facilitate teaching-learning activities in Center of English for International Communication (CEIC) at Language Institute. Only an impressionistic overview was conducted as a pre-use evaluation due to limitation of time and resources. Thus, the writer attempted to do an in-depth pre-use evaluation of the recently revised textbook. This research aimed at investigating the activity variations and types of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) activities presented in the revised textbook used for teaching Level 1 students. The speaking activities in the textbook were analyzed using Littlewood's (1981) theoretical framework on suggested communicative activities. The results showed that the textbook has various learning activities accommodating CLT activities, pre-communicative activities, structural activities, listening activities, vocabulary building activities, and reading activities. The CLT activities found in the textbook were differentiated between functional communication and social interaction activities. Functional communication activities specifically sharing information with restricted cooperation, in the form of class surveys and information gaps were dominant compared to other activities.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), pre-use textbook evaluation, functional communication activities, social interaction activities

Introduction

Materials development is one of the most important skills in teachers' professional development. It is an essential part of teachers' tasks at the Language Institute of Sanata Dharma University (LISDU). Teachers are expected to not only develop their own materials but also understand the underlying principle of language learning and put these theories into practice (Tomlinson, 1998; Schon, 1981 as cited in Nahrkhalaji, 2012; cf. Lelita, 2016).

During the project of curriculum reform in the Center of English for International Communication (CEIC) at LISDU, a pre-use evaluation of the revised materials aims at making the best use of the textbook that is going to be piloted next year. The rationale to conduct such an evaluation is to pursue the match between the CEIC name, goal, approach, materials and evaluation. The

goal of the CEIC course is to enable students to communicate actively in English through integrated skills for the purposes of daily communication, interaction with the global community and for professional purposes (CEIC curriculum and syllabus document, 2017). In an attempt to achieve that communication goal, communicative approach or communicate language teaching (CLT) is highlighted. CLT proposes the goal of communicative competence is achieved through the principles of communication, task-based and meaningfulness (Richards, 2001). Curriculums should provide opportunities to engage students in meaningful language use when they are learning (Hayes, 2014).

Amid the curriculum reform, it is necessary to align the goal of the course with the learning activities and assessment. The term “alignment” refers to creating coherence between the essential components of an educational system: intended learning outcomes (i.e., curriculum objectives), assessment, and learning activities through a mechanism to address the teaching as a whole process (Jiang, 2013). One possible practical way to achieve that alignment is through assessing the learning activities or the method and content (Jiang, 2013). Reflecting on that point, further analysis is needed to report how CLT is accommodated through the new revised textbook.

An impressionistic overview of the textbook in order to find general strengths and weaknesses of the textbook (Cunningsworth, 1995) has already been completed. However, there is limited in-depth research on textbook content, particularly analysis scrutinizing the approach and the learning activities. This research was aimed at examining learning-activity variations and what kinds of CLT activities were found through speaking activities in the new revised textbook designed for Level 1 students. The purpose of this research was to contribute significant data for materials development projects at CEIC as well as to provide empirical consideration in designing the teachers’ book or for further revision. The research question was: What types of CLT speaking activities were found in the textbook?

Textbook evaluation

Practicality consideration is one of the benefits that teachers derive when they use textbooks to teach (Gebhard, 1996; Graves, 2000; Richards, 2001). It introduces teachers and students to the subject contents and the methodology (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004). Thus, through analyzing the textbook, teachers can actually gain insight into the approach used in the learning. Teachers’ dependency on textbooks (Skierso, 1991) provides the rationale to conduct textbook analysis in order to make the best use of it, or to provide suggestions for further revision of the textbook (Mukundan, 2007).

Impressionistic overview and in-depth evaluation are two suggested general approaches for textbook evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995). Impressionistic overview is commonly done by teachers to see the general content of the textbook, but it is a less reliable method to see the match between the content and the requirement of the teaching or learning situation (Cunningsworth, 1995). In the context of the Language Institute, an impressionistic overview was already completed through several meetings of material revision, in which some teachers quickly evaluated the revised content through discussion. However, the ideal

approach is the combination of both an impressionistic overview and an in-depth evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995).

Using a checklist is common in textbook evaluation. Various areas of evaluation can be covered on the checklist. Brown (2007) for instance, provides criteria including the goals of the course, the background of the students, approach, language skills, general content, quality of practice materials, sequencing, vocabulary, general sociolinguistics factors, format, accompanying materials, and teachers' guide. Other checklists, such as Cunningsworth's checklist (1995), cover the areas of aims and approaches, design and organization, language content, skill, topic, methodology, teachers' book, and practical consideration for evaluation. The presence of approach and speaking skill criteria in both Brown's (2007) and Cunningsworth's (1995) checklist indicates the significance of conducting an evaluation of these aspects.

Communicative language teaching

The goal of communicative language teaching is to develop students' communicative competence in the target language. The target language is both the means and the goal (Littlewood, 1981; Kumar, Philip & Kalaiselvi, 2013). Common characteristics of CLT include information gap, choice, and feedback (Johnson & Morrow, 1981 as cited in Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Information gap refers to situations of sharing information in which someone knows particular information whereas the interlocutor does not know this information. Choice means that the speaker has options in what to say and how to say it. Meanwhile, feedback refers to a purposeful information exchange, in which the speaker gets her expected feedback from the listener. Other characteristics of CLT activities according to Nunan (1989) are rehearsal to the real world, skill use, and fluency/accuracy. Three principles underlying activities in CLT are communication, task-based and meaningfulness (Littlewood, 1981). In other words, CLT activities must engage students to interact and use the language form they learnt for meaningful communicative purpose.

There are various types of teaching and learning activities in CLT. However, each type should involve students in the communicative process with information sharing, negotiation of meaning and interaction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). It can include text-based materials which enact pair work or role play, task-based materials such as jigsaws, cue cards, activity cards, authentic materials (Richards and Rodgers, 2001), scrambled sentences, language games, and picture strip stories (Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

Littlewood's (1981) book provides a practical guideline for teachers to apply CLT techniques. Major activity types in CLT are differentiated between functional communication activities and social interaction activities. Functional communication activities are based on the principle that teachers should create situation in which students can practice how to deal with information gaps and problem solving. The functional communication activities are classified into four categories: sharing information with restricted cooperation, sharing information with unrestricted cooperation, sharing and processing information, and processing information. Examples of these activities include identifying pictures, discovering identical pairs, discovering sequences or locations, discovering missing

information, discovering missing features, discovering secrets, discovering differences, following directions, reconstructing story-sequences, or pooling information to solve a problem. Social interaction activities can be in the forms of conversation or discussion sessions, dialogues and role-play, simulation, or debate. These activities put the emphasis on the social context in which students are expected to consider their choice of language and social acceptability of the language produced.

Method

This research aimed to contribute to material development as well as to promote in-depth pre-use analysis on a particular aspect in the recently revised textbook. The data was taken from the revised materials used for teaching Level 1 students in CEIC. Level 1 is equivalent to A1 Level in CEFR, in which the students are on the level of understanding and using familiar everyday expressions to interact with others if they speak slowly and clearly. Level 1 students have a lack of linguistic competence in terms of vocabulary and grammar. After the course is finished, they are expected to be able to communicate in basic familiar daily expressions such as asking and answering question related to personal details.

The analyzed sample materials consisted of fourteen lessons designed for fourteen meetings. This research focused only on analyzing revised materials for one out of six levels as the preliminary study. In order to get richer data, this research was also limited to a analysis of the types of CLT activities based on suggested activities by Littlewood (1981). The data was obtained from the syllabus and revised materials documents. In analyzing the data, a checklist was used to classify the types of CLT speaking activities found in the textbook into functional communication and social interaction activities. If the activities did not belong to these classifications, they would be classified into pre-communicative, structural practices (Littlewood, 1981), or skill-based activities in order to find the most and least recurring activities. In order to achieve validation of the data analysis, academic coordinators with authority over the academic program in CEIC were invited to conduct and discuss the data analysis through the same checklist and method.

Findings and Discussion

The sequence of each lesson of the analyzed textbook is established through a title mostly followed by objectives, Snapshot, Language Focus, Word Power, a series of practices, and Hotshot. The title represents the topic that is going to be discussed. In Lesson 1 for example, the title “Hi, my name is Sean” introduces the topic, covering greetings and self-introduction. Then the objectives of the lesson were presented in points. The learning-activities for each lesson begin with the Snapshot part as warming up activity to introduce students with the topic. Language Focus is a section containing explanations of the grammar or expressions in each lesson, while word power is a section specialized in vocabulary building activities. Learning activities, including the main activity for each lesson, are presented through a series of practices named Practice One,

Practice Two etc. The last part of each lesson is named Hotshot, and functions as the post-activity. Each lesson contains six to nine activities. The analysis was focused on Snapshot, series of practices, and Hotshot, which contain integrated speaking, listening and reading activities.

The sample of the new revised textbook contains 102 activities in total. Table 1 showed types of activities found in the textbook. Functional communication activities were dominant, with the highest percentage of 23.5%, followed by structural and listening activities with 20.6% for each activity. Social interaction activities got 14.7%. Less dominant activities were vocabulary building activities with 12.7% followed by pre-communicative activities with 4.9%. Reading activities had the lowest percentage of 2.9%.

Table 1. The Percentage of Activity Variations Found on the Revised Textbook

Kinds of Activities	Total of Activity	Percentage
Functional communication activities	24	23.5%
Social interaction activities	15	14.7%
Pre-communicative activities	5	4.9%
Structural activities	21	20.6%
Listening activities	21	20.6%
Vocabulary building activities	13	12.7%
Reading activities	3	2.9%
Total	102	100%

It was noteworthy to notice the activity variations found in the textbook. Listening activities were a big proportion of this revised textbook. The writer found the distribution of exercises needs to be consider. Lesson 2 for example has four listening activities, whereas there are not any listening activities found in Lesson 11. Vocabulary building activities in the textbook refer to activities that focus on developing students' vocabulary. Although there is already a section that discusses vocabulary in Word Power, the percentage for these activities was slightly under as that of social interaction activities. Eight out of thirteen vocabulary exercises were found in the Snapshot part. It indicated that teachers might start most lessons by vocabulary exercise, even though these activities consisted of many variations, such as asking students to explore vocabulary from the first letter of their nicknames, listing things in their bags, competitive games in which students explore as many words starting with a particular letter as possible, and matching pictures with their vocabulary. Decaricco (as cited in Ketabi and Shahraki, 2011) mentions that in CLT vocabulary is not a primary concern due to emphasize on fluency over accuracy. Vocabulary is not taught separately, but serve only as a support for functional language use. Reading exercises had the smallest portion in this textbook. Only three out of 102 reading activities were found. The elaboration for pre-communicative and structural activities was discussed further in the Discussion session.

From the perspective of CLT, learning activities should accommodate both students' linguistic and communicative competence (Littlewood, 1981). Table 2

specifically explained the types of functional communication activities found in the textbook. The results as presented in Table 2 showed that the recurring information gap activities found in the textbook were sharing information with restricted cooperation. The most activities included class surveys, discovering locations, and discovering secrets. Class surveys were dominant. In total, there were nine activities asking students to interview their friends and write the results. One example was taken from Practice Three of Lesson 1. After reading a dialogue and practicing it with their friends, the students are asked to interview their friends and write the results of the interview in the provided table. Restricted cooperation was made by showing an example of what questions need to be asked and what the expected answer should be. The other example was found in Practice Six of Lesson Four. Similar to the previous example, after having a dialogue practice followed by a listening and reading exercise, the students are asked to interview their classmates and write the results in the provided table.

Discovering missing information or locations were the other purposes in information gap activities found in the textbook. For instance, in Practice Five of Lesson Three, Student A and Student B have different information concerning certain numbers. The students then take turns to mention the number, and then write it down on the provided crossword in order to find the hidden message revealed if they finish the task. In Lesson Eight, discussing the topic of telling locations of public buildings or places, students are involved in three practices in which they have to locate a certain building based on the information from their partner. Students work in pairs, and each student has information that the other does not know.

The other variation of this information gap activity was discovering secrets which was presented in the form of games. One example was the Hotshot activity of Lesson Six. Students are asked to work in pairs and hide something in their pocket. They are asked to guess what the thing hidden by their friend is through asking yes-or-no questions. Here the cooperation between the two students would be restricted through only asking and responding to yes-or-no questions. Five out of six activities of this type were presented as Hotshot activities, which functions as post activities.

Table 2. The Percentage of Functional Communication Activities

Kinds of Activities	Total of Activity	Percentage
Sharing information with restricted cooperation: class survey/discovering missing information	9	18.6%
discovering locations	4	
discovering secrets	6	
Sharing information with unrestricted cooperation	2	2%
sharing and processing information	3	2.9%
Total	24	23.5%

The next activity found was sharing information with unrestricted cooperation. In this type of activity, teachers have less control over the information and responses that students produce. An example of this activity was found in Practice Five in Lesson One, in which students are asked to make a conversation without any cues. The students have the freedom to structure the conversation and give responses to what is said. This is in line with natural communication outside the class, in which the questions and the responses are more spontaneous and less predictable (Littlewood, 1981).

The other activities found were sharing and processing information. Through this type of activity, the students are expected to not only share the information but also analyze or evaluate the information they get. An example was found in Practice One of Lesson Three. In this activity, students are asked to form a single line based on their age. The students not only use the language to communicate in questioning and answering questions, but also process the information and then make physical movements in order to complete the task. Two other activities of this type were presented as communicative games in the Hotshot section in Lesson Seven and Lesson Ten.

Social interaction activities were also found in the textbook. Table 3 showed the percentage of each activity type.

Table 3. The Percentage Of Social Interaction Activities

Kinds of Activities	Total of Activity	Percentage
Dialogue and role play	7	6.9%
Conversation and discussion session	8	7.8%
Total	15	14.7%

The recurring activities of this type were conversation and discussion sessions followed by dialogue and role play. An example was found in Practice Four of Lesson Ten, in which students are asked to play the role of a reporter working at red carpet event and interview an artist to discuss the attire they are wearing. The other activities found under the underlying approach of social interaction activities were conversation and discussion sessions. Although these activities do not involve any information gap, they fulfill the criteria of providing students with opportunities to express their self and experiences by using the foreign language they learn. An example of this activity type was in Practice Two of Lesson Seven in which students describe their house and furniture and then share the information with the class.

The results showed that this revised textbook provided various activities that include functional communication activities, social interaction activities, pre-communicative activities, listening activities, vocabulary building activities, reading activities, and structural activities. Variation of activities was beneficial to keep students motivated to go through the lessons. The activities that were not CLT activities were classified based on the focus of the activities.

Five activities found were pre-communicative activities. Littlewood (1981) used the term pre-communicative to refer to activities such as cued dialogue,

drills, or question and answer activities that have a purpose to prepare students with the required skills for communication but do not necessarily require students to perform communicative arts. Thus, the focus of this activity is to produce an acceptable piece of language production. Similarly with example mentioned in Littlewood's (1981) book, an example of a pre-communicative activity found in this textbook was Practice Four of Lesson Seven. In this activity students work in pairs. Student A asks "Where are the crayons?" and Student B answers "They are in the drawer." There is no structured situation provided by teachers and both students have already known the location of the things. Therefore this kind of activity is considered artificial and not functional (Littlewood, 1981). Nonetheless, this activity can serve as a drill practice that can prepare students to produce grammatically correct information and to use this linguistic competence when communicating.

Structural practice in the forms of drilling activity can actually serve as pre-communicative activity if it is done orally related to a certain context (Littlewood, 1981). However, the writer found that structural activities focusing on grammar exercises or sentence creation lack spoken practice. Activities classified into this category were purely written grammar practices such as completing the dialogue and the sentences with grammatical items. Grammatical practices stemmed from structural approach which focused on the students' mastery of the grammatical items. In Mareva & Nyota's (2011) study related to CLT application in Zimbabwe, structural approaches were still dominantly used due to the teachers' lack of knowledge of what CLT is and conservatism, even though the curriculum recommended a CLT approach.

Teachers indeed need to be aware of avoiding structural approaches focusing on memorization of grammatical rules and drills. Nevertheless, the use of structural approaches must not always be avoided. Thompson (2011) mentions that one most persistent and damaging misconception of CLT is that CLT does not teach grammar. According to Littlewood's (1981) underlying principles of CLT, through this approach, teachers should be able to develop both students' linguistic and communicative competence. In designing the activities on the textbook, awareness of to what extent the activities can facilitate students' communicative competence is important, so that the trap of using a fully structural approach is avoided. However, structural activities can serve as an input to prepare students for communicating fluently. In order to response the structural activities found in the textbook, a retrospective approach, in which the grammar rules are discovered by the students after they do communication practices should be used (Thompson, 2011, Kumar, Philip and Kalaiselvi, 2013).

The results indicated that the communication activities most accommodating functional purpose were sharing information with restricted cooperation. Students' limited linguistic competence was the main consideration in choosing such activities. Doing class survey activity is one way to facilitate students to at least interact with their classmates in the context of the classroom. The structural activities and exposure of dialogues serve as scaffolding activities to lead the students to be able to practice their speaking in conversation. Littlewood (1981) suggests that as the linguistic ability of the students improves, the information gap

activities can be extended to processing information activities, in which students are expected to evaluate or analyze information for problem solving activities.

One characteristic of CLT, authentic materials, was absent in the textbook. This might be due to the consideration of the difficulty level of the authentic materials, as well as time and resource limitations. For beginner students, the use of unsimplified authentic materials may lead to students demotivation, whereas the process of simplification itself is another challenge for teachers since it cannot be simply shortened without losing its authenticity (Guariento and Morley , 2001).

Conclusion

Communicative language teaching activities can take many forms. However, in order to understand more about CLT, teachers need to consider to what extent they have accommodated students' need for communicative competence. This can be investigated through scrutinizing activities designed for learning activities. The results of this research showed that the revised textbook already provided a variation of activities such as speaking activities, listening activities, vocabulary building activities and structural activities. Nonetheless, this textbook still needs further improvement in terms of the proportion of structural activities, so that grammar exercises are not dominant. In order to avoid the dominance of grammatical approaches, the writers of the teachers' book should emphasize inductive grammar teaching and modification or variations of the series of practices to make the activities more communicative. It is also noted that several CLT activities found in Hotshot sections should be made the main activity for the lesson.

Although the linguistic ability of the students is still limited, the materials can be designed as more complicated tasks that can give the students more exposure to sharing information with unrestricted cooperation or sharing and processing information. Dialogue practice should also be added with more specific social contexts to make it as similar as possible with real-life conversations.

This research had several limitations. First, there was no interview with the authors of the textbook. Their point of view can provide more insight into the rationale of selecting certain activities in this textbook. Secondly, the sample was only taken from one textbook for one particular level. In order to get a holistic perspective as to what extent the textbook in CEIC has accommodated CLT, five other revised textbooks also need to be analyzed with a broader area of evaluation, including other skills such as listening, reading and writing. Further research especially the post-use textbook evaluation was also strongly recommended.

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LANGUAGE ATTITUDES OF INDONESIANS AS EFL LEARNERS, GENDER, AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

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Abstract

This study explored the language attitude in terms of gender and socio-economic status (SES) in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The aim of this study was to find out the relationships among five components of languages attitudes in terms of gender and socio-economic status (SES). There were 256 participants from four universities in Yogyakarta. The participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire about the language used and general language attitudes through the Google Form. The results showed that there are five components of language attitudes; 1) Indonesian learners showed positive language attitudes toward English (3.58); 2) positive language attitudes toward Indonesian (3.66); 3) positive language attitudes toward English and negative language attitudes toward Indonesian (3.52); 4) positive language attitudes toward Indonesian and negative language attitudes toward English (3.58); 5) positive language attitudes toward English and Indonesian (3.91). These five components of language attitudes were then correlated with gender; 1) gender was positively related to English language attitude where female learners had higher positive language attitudes than males did toward English (.097); 2) there was no relation between gender and Indonesian language attitude (-.071). In addition, SES was also related to five (5) components of language attitudes in which the learners who came from upper class had higher positive language attitudes towards English (.155) than learners who came from lower class. On the other hand, the correlation between SES and Indonesian language showed the learners from middle class had higher positive language attitudes (.031) than the learners from upper class and lower class.

Keywords: language attitudes, gender, socio-economic status

Introduction

This research is part of a research project on language attitudes conducted by the research team at Sanata Dharma University. The other two articles focus on language attitudes and instrumental orientation, and language attitudes and educational background. There will be a similarity in terms of language attitudes across the three articles. Results about language attitudes across the three studies are the same. However, this study focused on language attitudes and their correlations with gender and socio-economic status. The research by Kharismawan and Mbato investigated the correlation between language attitudes and language orientation, as well as language orientation, and gender and SES.

The research by Kurniasari and Mbato, on the other hand, looked at language attitudes and their correlations with educational background.

English is one of the most widely used world languages today (Eskicumali & Turedi, 2010) with around two billion people learn English. English is learnt not only for the communication but also for the bridge between the national and global context (Penjak & Karninčić, 2015). Learning English as a foreign language helps to build the sense of human beings and construct the identity among learners (Gardner, 2001).

English language is used in the various fields of politics, economics, technology, diplomacy, international trade and industry, commerce, education, science, information, and popular culture (Crystal, 2003; Huda, 2000; Lauder, 2008; Jenkins, 2003). Particularly in education, a large number of scientific papers published are in English. Moreover, English is used as the medium of instruction in schools and universities. Furthermore, English skill is needed as the requirements of some job vacancy.

In Indonesia, English is learnt as a foreign language. The status of English as foreign language cannot be separated from colonialism. Indonesia was colonized by the Dutch over 350 years (1596-1942). During the Dutch colonialism, only few Indonesians obtained a good education. Elite schools only accepted some selected local children whose parents were in the high position in the government to be their students. Gregory (1964, p. 15) states that only indigenous children attending these schools were taught as English as a foreign language. English was first taught to Indonesians in 1914 (Lauder, 2008).

During the Second World War, Indonesia was colonized by Japanese for three and a half years (1942-1945) where the teaching of English was prohibited. Then, Dutch returned to Indonesia after the Japanese defeated. Indonesian won its independence from the Dutch on August 17, 1945 and made English the first foreign language to be taught at school replacing Dutch (Darjowidjojo, 2003). Since then, English language has been taught as a foreign language at various educational levels in Indonesia. However, English has never been officially used as a medium of communication. Therefore, Indonesian people rarely speak in English outside the classroom learning contexts. Lack of use in the real communication may become one of the reasons why Indonesian people tend to use non-standard form in speaking English (see Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Learners' attitudes play a significant role in learning English a foreign language. Attitudes are how people feel about the language (Crystal, 1997, p. 215) and is "a construct that elucidates linguistic behaviour in particular" (Mamun et al., 2012, p. 201). The attitudes can be positive or negative (Ellis, 1994, p. 1997) and both of them may influence people in learning L2. Some of them may feel happy to learn L2 while others may not (Ellis, 1994, p. 201).

Numerous studies of language attitudes have been conducted (Penjak & Karninčić, 2015; Eskicumali & Turedi, 2010; Mamun et al., 2012). In conducting this research, the researchers were motivated by the study which had done by Sicam and Lucas (2016). To some extent, this study was a replication of Sicam and Lucas' study (2016). While Sicam and Lucas investigated the relationship between language attitudes and language orientation towards Filipino and English,

this study attempted to explore the language attitudes towards Indonesian and English in terms of gender and socio-economic status (SES) of Indonesian students studying in several universities in Yogyakarta, Indonesia where English is learnt as a foreign language. In particular, this study aimed to find out about the relationship between language attitudes, gender, and socio-economic status. This study attempted to answer two research questions, namely, firstly: What are Indonesian university students' general language attitudes towards Indonesian and English? Secondly is there any significant relationship between Indonesian university students' general language attitudes towards Indonesian and English in terms of gender and social economic status?

Language Attitude

Kendler (1974) notes that attitude is a willingness to accept or avoid positive or negative things such as social, personal, situations, ideas, and concepts. The characteristics of behaviour language are divided into two types, namely: language and non-language attitude (Anderson, 1984, p. 37). The language attitude is a catalyst to have a successful language learning (Fasold, 1984, p. 36). Language attitude might be a positive or negative depending on how people learn the language (Chaer & Agustina, 2010). Zeinivan, Azizifar, and Gowhary (2015) also assert that language attitude is the internal stage which influence people to do what they want to do.

Brown (2000) employs the term of language attitude as the set of beliefs that the learner holds. A successful learner is a learner who perceives a positive attitudes towards the target language (Prodromou, 1992). Dittmar (1976) reveals four characteristics of language attitude, i.e. the selection of primary language that people use in a multilingual community, the distribution of the language, the differences of dialect, and the interaction among individuals based on the common problems that arise. Accordingly, language attitude is “an umbrella term, which refers to various attitudinal objects, including languages, dialects, speech styles, speakers, communities, language learning, and language use” (Ianos et al, 2015, p. 2).

Gender

Simaki et al. (2016, p. 868) assert that people with different gender tend to have different style of linguistic. Women and men use different language styles depending on the situation (Edlund et al, 2007) and women usually do better than men in learning the language (Ellis, (1994). Dornyei, Csizer, and Nemeth (2006) also note that women are more motivated than men in learning a foreign language. Several studies have found gender differences in language attitude. One of the examples come from Ladegaard (1998; 2000). The result of the research showed that the female participants had the higher positive attitudes towards Standard Danish (SD) than male participants had. In addition, Wang & Ladegaard (2010, p. 16) state that women use the high prestige variety of a language while men use the local vernacular.

Socio-economic Status

Parson, Hinson, and Sardo-Brown (2001) define the socio-economic status as the term to distinguish between people' position in the society in terms of family

income, educational background, and occupational prestige. The social classes are classified as upper, middle, and lower class (Ariani & Ghafournia, 2015).

Lamb (2012) asserts that socio-economic status has an impact on the learners in learning languages. Ellis (1994) also adds that there is the connection between the social class and achievement; particularly it comes from the level of education, income, and occupation (p. 204). Students with the high social and economic status are called as successful students and students with the low social and economic status are called unsuccessful students (Barry, 2005; Ewijk & Slegers, 2010).

Method

To some extent, this study was replication of a quantitative study by Sicam and Lucas (2016) on language attitudes of adolescent Filipino bilingual learners towards English and Filipino. In order to collect data, the current study employed a survey method in the form of a questionnaire. The researcher utilized Google Form to distribute the questionnaire because the participants were separated in some areas of Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The participants of this study were 256 students (184 females and 72 males) from one state universities and three private universities in Yogyakarta. In this study, the participants were invited to participate voluntarily and were assured that the information collected was confidential. This study employed a questionnaire adapted from Sicam and Lucas (2016) to suit Indonesian contexts and consisted of two parts; demographic background information and language attitudes. There were 26 statements about language attitudes towards Indonesian and English. The questionnaire was written in Indonesian rather than English to avoid misunderstanding when the participants filled it out. In order to answer the questionnaire, the participants were instructed to respond to the items on a 5-point Semantic Differential Scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) as depicted in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Items Distribution of the Questionnaire

	Components	Number of Item	Total
Language Attitudes	Positive towards English	1, 5, 7, 8, 14, 23, 24	7
	Positive towards Indonesian	4, 18, 26	3
	Positive towards English and negative towards Indonesian	3, 6, 11, 12, 9	5
	Positive towards Indonesian and negative towards English	2, 10, 13, 20	4
	Positive towards English and Indonesian	15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, 25	7
	Total		26

Findings and Discussion

In line with the research question, this section focused on general language attitudes towards Indonesian and English, and on the correlation between learners'

language attitudes towards Indonesian and English in terms of gender and socio-economic status (SES) respectively.

General Language Attitudes towards Indonesian and English

Five categories of language attitudes towards English and Indonesian were calculated to answer the research problem. The mean of each category and the comparisons of means between the categories are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. General Attitudes towards Indonesian and English

Attitude	Mean	SD
Positive towards English and Indonesian	3.91	1.02
Positive towards Indonesian	3.66	0.93
Positive towards English	3.58	0.98
Positive towards Indonesia and negative towards English	3.58	0.92
Positive towards English and negative towards Indonesian	3.52	0.99

Note: Scale: 0–1.0 = very low attitude; 1.1–2.0 = low attitude; 2.1–3.0 = moderate attitude; 3.1–4.0 = high attitude; 4.1–5.0 = very high attitude

The table indicates that the participants have a high positive attitude towards English and Indonesian languages ($M = 3.91$). This finding supported studies by Sicam and Lucas (2016); Fuentes and Mojica (1999); and Pascasio (1980) who found that second language learners had high positive attitudes towards English and their first languages. Then the second highest mean was positive towards Indonesian ($M = 3.66$) in which the learners are using their first language, Indonesian. The learners also had the positive attitudes toward English ($M = 3.58$). The score was the same as positive attitudes towards Indonesia and negative towards English, while the score of SD of positive attitudes towards English was higher than the other one. The lowest score came from the positive attitudes towards English and negative towards Indonesian ($M = 3.52$).

In addition, based on 23 items about language attitudes, there were five (5) statements which obtain a high attitude. Among those five statements, three statements referred to the positive attitudes towards English and Indonesian. It can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Statements with the High Rating

Number	Statement	Mean	SD
15	Speaking English helps people to get a job.	4.27	0.91
12	When Indonesian people attend international conferences, he feels confident because he has facility with the use of English rather than Indonesian.	4.16	0.89
21	To be an efficient government official, one must be proficient in both English and Indonesian.	4.11	0.92
19	Speaking both English and Indonesian help people get promotions in their jobs.	4.04	0.93
1	Modernization and advancement can be better achieved through the use of English.	4.03	0.98

Most of the participants strongly agree with the statement that English and Indonesian can help them to get a job ($M = 4.27$) and to be promoted in a job (M

= 4.04). It is realized that nowadays, Indonesian learners considered English as an instrument in getting a job. It was supported by Arslan and Akbarov (2012) who state that, “Most of the students believe that English will be useful in their future job. It is in line with the general belief that knowing English opens door to jobs” (p. 27). This study also shows the use of English and Indonesia language in different contexts as presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Language Used in Different Context

No	Context	Language(s) used	Percentage
1	Home		
	a) talking to father	Indonesia	69.14 %
	b) talking to mother	Indonesia	71.48 %
	c) talking to brother/ sister	Indonesia	55.86 %
2	School		
	a) talking to classmates	In Indonesia and English equally	37.89 %
	b) talking to lecturer/ teacher	In Indonesia and English equally	31.64 %
3	Community		
	a) talking to neighbors	Indonesia	89.45 %
4	Media		
	a) watching TV programs	In Indonesia and English equally	40.23 %
	b) watching movies	In Indonesia and English equally	47.27 %
	c) reading newspapers/ magazines	In Indonesia and English equally	42.58 %
	d) reading educational books	In Indonesia and English equally	53.13 %
	e) reading comics/ fiction books	In Indonesia and English equally	37.50 %
	f) listening to music	In Indonesia and English equally	44.14 %
	g) listening to radio programs	In Indonesia more than in English	39.06 %

In the context of family, the participants preferred to use Indonesian to speak each other. In contrast, the participants preferred to use both English and Indonesian equally in the context of the school/ university and the place where they worked. In terms of using media, when the participants were watching TV, watching movies, reading the newspaper, reading educational books, reading fiction books, and listening to music, they preferred to use both Indonesia and English equally. Nevertheless, when they were listening to the radio, they used Indonesian rather than English.

Correlation between Learners' Language Attitude towards Indonesia and English in terms of Gender and Socio-economic Status (SES)

In this section, the researchers investigated the correlation between learners' language attitudes in terms of gender and SES. The researchers employed a paired-sample t test to find the correlation between language attitude and the variables. The results can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5. Correlation Matrix of Language Attitudes, Gender and SES.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Gender							
2 SES	.025						

3	Positive towards English	.097	.155
4	Positive towards Indonesia	-.071	.031
5	Positive towards English and negative towards Indonesia	-.038	.259
6	Positive towards Indonesia and negative towards English	-.122	.085
7	Positive towards English and Indonesia	-.025	.069

Based on the result, it showed that gender had a positive and significant correlation with positive English attitude. Specifically, there is a difference score between male ($M= 3.49$) and female ($M= 3.62$). This result also supported the studies made by Sicam and Lucas (2016); Wang and Ladegaard (2010); and Dornyei, Csizer, and Nemeth (2006) which claim that female learners had a higher positive attitude in learning English than male learners.

On the other hand, this study also found that socio-economic status (SES) had a significant correlation with all of the language attitude components. In addition, the score of components towards SES level presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Mean Score of the Language Attitude based on SES

No	Components	Lower Class	Middle Class	Upper Class
1	Positive towards English	3.59	3.45	3.77
2	Positive towards Indonesia	3.48	3.75	3.61
3	Positive towards English and negative towards Indonesia	3.34	3.40	3.78
4	Positive towards Indonesia and negative towards English	3.40	3.62	3.60
5	Positive towards English and Indonesia	3.92	3.84	4.00

Table 6 clearly showed that SES had the impact on learners' attitude in learning the language. According to Lamb (2010), socio-economic status has the impact on the learners in learning languages. Specifically, the learners who were included in the upper class had higher positive language attitude towards English than lower and middle class. Moreover, Kahn-Horwitz et al. (2006) described that the students with the high socio-economic status had a sense of the importance of English as foreign learners.

Conclusion

Based on the result, it shows that language attitudes diverge among different groups of Indonesian adults. Firstly, these finding refers to the high positive attitude towards Indonesian and English languages. The use of Indonesian as the preferred language in the family context is proven in this study. Moreover, both English and Indonesia are equally used in the context of the school/ university and the place of work and media use. Secondly, the study revealed that there is a correlation between learners' language attitude towards Indonesian and English in

terms of gender. This finding is an agreement with the findings from Sicam and Lucas (2016); Wang and Ladegaard (2010); and Dörnyei, Csizer, and Nemeth (2006) which claimed that female learners had a higher positive attitude in learning English than male learners.

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