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AN APPROACH IN TEACHING WRITING SKILLS: DOES IT OFFER A NEW INSIGHT IN ENHANCING STUDENTS' WRITING ABILITY

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Abstract

This paper aims to reveal the effectiveness of Scientific Approach in the teaching writing skills. This research used a quasi-experimental design. The population was grade VIII students of Redion School. Two classes were randomly selected as the sample. They are class 8B which used Scientific Approach as the experimental group, while class 8D becomes the control group which used conventional approach. The data were collected by using writing test. The data were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics with the SPSS 20 for Windows computer program. The results were as follows: (1) there were significant differences in the writing achievement among the students taught by using the Scientific Approach and conventional approach, (2) the use of the Scientific Approach was more effective than that of the conventional approach in teaching writing skills.

Keywords: Scientific Approach, teaching writing skills, writing achievement

Introduction

The effective learning of writing allows the students to learn easily and fun. In consequence, this needs the teacher's roles to assist and guide the students in order to achieve the learning objectives. For instance, the teacher has the roles in choosing and using an appropriate approach to the learning process of writing. Unfortunately, in Indonesia, in practice, the learning of writing that often occurs in the classroom is dominated by teachers (Antika, 2014). This viewpoint is usually called as the learning using a teacher-centered approach or a conventional approach. The learning activities in the classroom are spent by the teacher in explaining the lesson, whereas the learners take notes and listen to the teacher (Chang, 2011). The traditional approach is not effective to educational solutions that should refer to the active learning (Kompa, 2012). Therefore, this perspective in the process of teaching and learning writing should be changed from using the teacher-centered approach to the student-centered approach. One learning approach based on the student-centered approach is Scientific Approach.

The effectiveness of the Scientific approach has been often examined in the separate/independent studies on different scopes and contexts, e.g. (Astuti, 2015; Komariah, 2016; Oktarina, 2014). However, the effectiveness of the Scientific Approach specifically in the teaching and learning of writing in different contexts

needs further exploration. Therefore, in this current research, the Scientific Approach was investigated to know its effectiveness in the teaching writing of recount text.

Writing Skill

Writing is how person communicates his or her thoughts and feelings by visible signs, understandable not only for himself but also for all other people. It means that when one writes, she or he can express her or his feelings and thoughts, from words into sentences and sentences into paragraphs which have meaning (Siddiq, 2013). Thus, writing is defined as a 'process of thinking' (Rukayah, 2014). Hence, writing is as linguistic communication, since this language skill is used to communicate to each other (Quirk et al., 1985; Rukayah, 2014). For the students, writing skill is a significant skill to be possessed by the second language learners (Javed et al., 2013) because it gives positive impacts on the students' life. Unfortunately, the learners' still have difficulties in writing, such as the problems of language, cognitive and content (Wigati, 2015). In this case the teacher is a very important part in the process of teaching writing. As educators, teachers must ensure that their students learn something useful, beneficial and lasting for their future. Three roles of the teacher in the teaching and learning process of writing are as a motivator, a resource (giving clarification and facilitation), and a feedback provider (Harmer, 2002). Therefore, the teacher has full responsibilities and significant roles in the teaching and learning process of writing.

Teaching Writing Skill

Usually, in the classroom, the teaching writing is frequently seen as a way of finishing the homework and assignments, especially at the elementary and intermediate levels (Byrd, 2011). The learning activity in the classroom is spent by the teacher in explaining the lesson, whereas the learners take note and listen to the teacher (Chang, 2011). This viewpoint is usually called as the learning using a teacher-centered approach or a conventional approach. It is clearly in contrast with the opinion which said that the learning is a constructive process, where the learners construct actively the knowledge, and not received passively from the teacher (Pardjono, 2002). In consequence, Piaget and Dewey's theories refused this traditional learning approach (Pardjono, 2002) because it is not effective to educational solutions that should refer to the active learning (Kompa, 2012). Thus, the teacher has to select and apply the appropriate learning approach to teach the material. Literally, specifying what approach will be used in learning is an important thing for teachers because an approach is defined as someone's perspective toward the learning process (Rusman, 2014). Therefore, applying the suitable approach can help and affect the successful of teaching writing in the class. There are two kinds of the learning approaches, namely Teacher-centered approach and Student-centered approach (Al-Zu'be, 2013).

Teacher Centered-Approach or Conventional Approach

The teacher-centered approach generally uses a traditional approach which is based on the behaviorist theory. It is claimed that behaviorism concept that recommends stimulus-response became a prominent paradigm in the learning system in the last third of the twentieth century (Ortega, 2013). Hence, this

approach is called ‘focus on forms’ approach (Ellis, 2009). Nevertheless, the implementation of conventional approach gives the positive impact, such as teachers can organize students’ activities in the classroom and recognize their characteristics (Al-Zu’be, 2013). Thus, this approach still has the magnetism to be used by some teachers in the teaching and learning processes. For instance, in Indonesia, the teacher still dominates the whole teaching and learning process in the classroom (Antika, 2014), mainly in teaching writing. On the other hand, this approach also has the weaknesses. It tends to make the learners passively receive information only from the teacher (Ahmed, 2013), limits the students’ ability to think creatively (Li, 2016), and puts the learners as the learning object and the teacher as the only one source of learning in which it has classical learning activities (Rusman, 2014) where the learners only do and finish some assignments and homework (Byrd, 2011).

Furthermore, the teacher-centered approach represents the passive learners and the active teacher (Al-Zu’be, 2013) in which the learners take notes and listen to the teacher and the teacher delivers the knowledge to them (Chang, 2011), thus, the learners do not have an opportunity to engage in the activities appropriate with their wants and interests (Rusman, 2014). Therefore, the teacher-centered approach is not fit to apply in the teaching and learning processes considering the students have different abilities and characteristics (Antika, 2014), especially in teaching of writing skill. As the results, the students’ achievement yields the unsatisfactory results and ineffective learning. Hence, the traditional approach is not effective to educational solutions that should refer to the active learning (Kompas, 2012). Therefore, this paradigm should be changed to the student-centered approach to make the learners more active in developing their knowledge and abilities.

Scientific Approach

The students-centered approach means the learners as the learning subject (Rusman, 2014). One type of the learning approaches based on the student-centered approach is Scientific Approach. In this 2013 Curriculum, the use of the Scientific Approach becomes famous in the education field in Indonesia. Initially, this approach has been used in science, but recently it is almost applied in all school subjects. The scientific approach is defined as the learning way to facilitate the students to gain the knowledge and ability. The scientific approach is based on the concept of science where someone knows what will one does, how it will be done, and what the goals or results want to be achieved. Science pushes the students to have curiosity, rewards creativity, and promote their spirit to ask the question, because it is intended to negate anxiety in the process of teaching and learning, particularly in the second language learning like English (Kessler, 1992). Hence, Tang *et al.* (2010) assumed that ‘doing science’ in the scientific approach becomes magnetism in the learning as an easy innovation to do. Therefore, Kessler (1992) called science as a powerful approach to combine science and language learning.

A learning theory underlying the scientific approach is the Bruner’s theory which stated that the students study and construct the knowledge through the cognitive process (Hosnan, 2014). Furthermore, this approach emphasizes the

students on the learning process to seek the knowledge rather than to transfer it. In the scientific approach, the learning process aims to support and to assist the students' learning process in finding and in using their knowledge (Saefuddin & Berdiati, 2014). Therefore, in implementing this approach, the students are expected to be able to think critically (Komariah, 2016).

The Scientific approach is suitable to teach the English language, especially writing skill, because it aims to train the students in communicating ideas, particularly in writing (Hosnan, 2014). It means that this approach is effective to promote the students' language skills, particularly in writing skill. This is reinforced by the results of studies which stated that the use of the scientific approach is more effective than that of the traditional approach (Suharyadi, 2013) and it could improve the students' learning activities and develop their characteristics of responsibility (Oktarina, 2014). Then, based on the result of research conducted by Syahid and Tuharto (2015), they found that Scientific Approach was an effective approach in teaching mathematics. Therefore, the use of the scientific approach is expected to be a better approach to teaching English, especially in writing skill.

In implementation of the scientific approach, the learning process applies the science steps in constructing the knowledge in order to make the students think creatively. There are five steps offered by the Scientific approach, namely observing (to know the learners' curiosity), questioning (to develop creativity and curiosity of the students), exploring (to obtain more information about the object/data), associating (to analyze the data.), and communicating (to convey the results to others) (Saefuddin & Berdiati, 2014). Those stages can help and assist the students in the learning process becomes the active learners and the teacher. Therefore, the use of the Scientific Approach is expected to be able to affect the students' ability in writing and to make the process of teaching and learning writing becomes effective.

Method

This research used a Quasi-experimental design with a type of posttest-only control group. The population was all grade VIII students of Redion School (pseudonym). The sample was two classes that were established using the cluster random sampling technique. It was divided into one experimental group and one control group. It can be seen in the following Table 1.

Table 1. The sample of Research

Classes	Groups	Treatments
8B	Experiment	Scientific
8D	Control	Conventional

The data were collected by using tests (posttest) in the form of writing composition. The tests aimed to measure the students' ability in writing of recount text and the effectiveness of the treatments. The writing tests were given to the experimental group and the control group. To obtain the scores of the students' writing, the raters used a writing rubric.

The validity of the instruments was obtained through content validity. Therefore, the researcher asked an expert judgment to verify the validity of the instruments. For the reliability, *Inter-rater reliability* was used in which two raters were chosen to assess the scores of the students' writing, both the pretest and the posttest. Then, the scores were calculated by using *Intraclass Correlation (ICC)* in SPSS 22 for windows. ICC was divided into 5 levels: *small* (0.00-0.25), *low* (0.26-0.49), *moderate* (0.50- 0.69), *good* (0.70-0.89), and *excellent* (0.90-1.00) (Volistiana, 2014).

Based on Table 2, the results of ICC on the posttest got high values (i.e .968, .984) with the excellent correlation rate. Thus, the high-reliability coefficient of rating showed that the results of each rater were consistent or reliable in giving scores (Sujarwanto & Rusilowati, 2015). Therefore, based on the results, the raters gave the consistent/reliable scores in assessing the students' writing.

Table 2. The results of ICC

		ICC	Results
POST	Single Measures	.968	Excellent
	Average Measures	.984	Excellent

Findings and Discussion

The data were analyzed statistically through descriptive statistic and inferential statistic. The descriptive analysis of the pretest and posttest results have been shown in the statistical data in Table 3.

Table 3. The Results of Pretest and Posttest

		Min	Max	Mean
POST	8B (SA)*	83	95.5	89.66
	8D (Conv)*	65.25	83.25	74.94

*Note: SA: Scientific Approach; Conv: Conventional approach

Referring to Table 3, it presented the differences in the posttest scores of two groups. After giving the treatments, the posttest scores of each group yielded quite satisfying results with the mean scores of 89.66 and 74.94 respectively.

For the inferential statistic, the data were analyzed through the statistical tests, they are Normality Distribution test, Homogeneity of Variance test, and T-test (Independent Samples Test) in SPSS 22 for windows where the conclusions were drawn at level 0.05. They were presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The results of the Inferential Statistics

			Sig.	Results
Normality Distribution	Posttest	SA	.200*	$p > 0.05$ = normal
		Conv	.170	
Homogeneity of Variance	Posttest		.513	$\text{Sig.} > 0.05$ = homogeneous
T-Test			.000	$\text{Sig.} < 0.05$ = significant difference

Referring to Table 4, the result of the normality distribution test showed that the data distribution of the pretest and posttest for the control group and the experimental groups were normal. Then, it also can be concluded that the

variances of the groups were homogeneous. Thereafter, it is continued to the T-test. The results of T-Test presented that the sig. value_(p-value) was less than Sig. level_{(α)(0.05)} ($0.000 < 0.05$). In conclusion, there is a significant difference in the students' achievement in writing of recount text among the students taught by the scientific approach and those taught by using the conventional approach to the eighth-grade students of Redion School.

Discussion

The process of learning writing is focused on the students' activities (learning process) rather than the learning product. It should be designed well in order to give the experiences and understanding to the students in learning writing. Thus, they role is as the constructors of meaning, not as the receivers the meaning (Baker et al., 2009). Thus, it needs the appropriate learning approaches to assist the teacher and the learners in the process of teaching and learning writing. Theoretically, the learning approaches like Scientific Approach are two effective approaches that can be applied in teaching and learning writing. Therefore, this study aimed to reveal the effectiveness of the Scientific Approach in teaching writing of recount text at the eighth-students of Redion School. In conclusion, the use of the scientific approach was more effective than that of the conventional approach.

In this study, the researcher investigated the effectiveness of the Scientific Approach in the teaching of writing skill at grade VIII students of Redion School. This approach theoretically was believed as the effective approach. Therefore, the next section discussed the findings to verify the theories of the effectiveness of the Scientific Approach.

The effective learning was achieved if 75% of students reach a predetermined score of minimum criteria of mastery learning or *KKM* (Syahid & Tuharto, 2015). In this study, the predetermined value of minimum criteria of mastery learning is 75. The results of the posttest score pointed out that over 75% of the students from class 8B had scores above the *KKM* value, but from class 8D only half of the students got scores above 75. Thus, it caused the change of the means scores of two groups in which class 8B that used the scientific approach had the mean score of 89.66 and class 8D which used the conventional approach got the mean score of 74.94. It meant that the learning writing which used the Scientific Approach was effective, but the learning writing which applied the conventional approach was still less effective. Then, based on the result of T-Test in Table 4, it shows that the students' achievement in the writing of recount texts who were taught by using the scientific approach and those taught by using the conventional approach had a significant difference, with the mean difference of 14.72. This was in line with the result of research which found that the Scientific approach and the conventional approach had the significant difference, with the mean difference of 11.97 (Astuti, 2015). Therefore, the use of the Scientific Approach was more effective than that of the conventional approach in teaching writing of recount texts.

In this study, initially the class situation was very noisy, the students were passive learners, and the teacher could not control them well. They even could not create a recount text and did not understand what the recount text is. However,

after applying the Scientific Approach with some activities, they were active, had mutual interaction among them, and could produce a recount text. The students also participated physically and mentally in developing the knowledge (Sarwanti, 2016). In addition, the scientific approach could promote the students' traits, expressed their thoughts, acquired satisfactory achievements, and had the chance to train their writing ability (Javed et al., 2013). Therefore, in this study, it can be said that the use of the scientific approach is more effective than that of the conventional approach. It also confirms the result of study which stated that this approach is more effective than the conventional approach or teacher-centered approach (Astuti, 2015; Suharyadi, 2013). Although the researcher had trained the teacher, the teacher was still nervous and looked awkward. Eventually, in the first meeting, the Scientific Approach was not fully implemented by the teacher because the teacher still unconsciously mixed the steps of the Scientific Approach to the conventional approach. This was indicated by the result of teacher's interview where the teacher said that it was difficult for him to understand every step in the procedures of the Scientific approach (Komariah, 2016). However, at subsequent meetings, the teacher began to understand the stages of the Scientific Approach and fully applied it during the process of teaching and learning writing. Therefore, the scientific approach can promote the teacher's motivation.

Unlike the Scientific approach, the conventional approach was less effective to teach the writing of recount texts. This approach did not have particular steps in its implementation. In practice, the teacher only used the textbooks and notes (Muhlison, 2011). It means that the traditional approach presents students with the minimal activity where the students only sit and listen to the teacher. Moreover, the implementation of the conventional approach (e.g. drilled method and memorized the lesson) resulted in limited students' knowledge (Li, 2016). In fact, the students have to practice rather than sit and listen to the teacher (Zohrabi et al., 2012), and they also need rooms for their personal growth (Ahmed, 2013). The positive side of the conventional approach lies on the teacher who can entirely control the class and activities in orderly fashion (Al-Zu'be, 2013). This statement was in contrast with the reality of this study because the students were very noisy and the class situation was difficult to manage by the teacher. Hence, the conventional approach was an inefficient approach to solve the problems in education, and it was contrary to the active learning concept (Li, 2016). It also focused on the teacher-centered approach that was not efficient compared to the student-centered approach (Zohrabi et al., 2012). Therefore, the results indicated that the use of the conventional approach was less effective in teaching writing skill compared to the other two approaches.

Conclusion

This research has explored how the effectiveness of the Scientific Approach in teaching writing skill. The results can be summarized as follows: (1) there is a significant difference in the students' achievement in writing of recount text among the students taught by using the Scientific approach and those taught by using the conventional approach to the eighth-grade students of Redion School,

and (2) the use of the Scientific approach was more effective than that of the scientific approach in teaching writing of recount texts.

In a nutshell, the processes of teaching and learning writing need a creative teacher and active learners. A creative teacher surely chose and used a good approach to make students to be more interested and want to learn writing. By focusing on the students or commonly known as the student-centered principle, like the Scientific approach, the students are able to develop their whole abilities, potential, achievement and behavior through meaningful and useful activities, thus their knowledge would be more worthwhile for their life. Therefore, the Scientific Approach indeed offers a new insight in enhancing the students' writing ability.

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE ANXIETY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS: CAUSES AND COPING STRATEGIES

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Abstract

Anxiety in language teaching and learning is not considered a new issue, yet there has been little information as to how English pre-service teachers in Indonesia experience and overcome anxiety. The research aimed at addressing two questions: 1) what are the possible causes of English pre-service teachers' anxiety? And 2) how do English pre-service teachers manage anxiety when teaching? This research employed both quantitative and qualitative methods. The data were collected from questionnaires and focus group discussion. The results show that several factors contributing to pre-service teachers' anxiety, namely: confidence, English skills, preparation, lesson delivery, students' profiles, evaluation and classroom management. In tackling the problems, the participants applied personal, professional, social, and institutional coping strategies. Recognizing the causes of anxiety and strategies to face it can be one step forward to reduce teaching anxiety.

Keywords: English language teaching, anxiety, pre-service teachers

Introduction

English teaching practice is one of the most important aspects in English Language Education Study Program since they need opportunities to learn from real schools. However, because they lack classroom experience, some may experience difficulties and problems resulting in anxiety, which hinders them to give a successful teaching performance. Hortwitz (1986) pointed out that many non-native language teachers experience anxiety in their target language classroom. English Pre-service teachers (PTs) may also encounter difficulties during the practicum because of their minimum experience in using the target language. For example, they may feel nervous speaking the foreign language in the classroom. Being nervous or being anxious can be brought by uncertain reasons.

Previous studies have documented that learning process is influenced by language anxiety (Carroll, 1963; Horwitz and Young, 1991; and Gregersen, 2003), so PTs might also be affected by language anxiety as they are also language learners. Some research exists regarding PTs' anxiety in classrooms. Kim and Kim (2004) documented that factors influencing PTs' anxiety are limited English proficiency, lack of confidence, lack of knowledge about linguistics and education, insufficient preparation, being compared to native teachers, fear of

negative evaluation and lack of teaching experience. Establishing that anxiety is present in the EFL classrooms, it is vital for researchers to identify the causes that trigger anxiety and also the strategies used by the PTs to cope with it. Although anxiety is not considered a new issue, there has been little information as to how Indonesian PTs' experience and overcome foreign language teaching anxiety has been experienced. It is then crucial to explore this issue by addressing two questions: 1) what are the possible causes of Indonesian PTs' anxiety in teaching English? and 2) how do Indonesian PTs manage anxiety when teaching English?

Theories

Studies have investigated the causes of anxiety in the classrooms. Yoon's study (2012) examined 52 students' practicum in the university in Seoul, Korea. The factors of anxiety in his research were the fear of using English in the class, PTs' confidence, class preparation, and efforts to overcome the anxiety. However, Takashi (2014) argued that English teachers' self-perceived language proficiency levels may not necessarily be related to their anxiety about teaching English. Because there is a complex relationship between non-native English teachers' perceived language proficiency levels and their anxiety about teaching English, he pointed out the importance of investigating complex causes of anxiety in language teaching context.

Some other studies focus on the strategies to cope with anxiety in language teaching. Sameephet and Wanphet (2013) investigated the successful anxiety management strategies, namely: positive thinking, self-talking and calming down. In addition, Costa and Kallick (2000) mentioned another type of coping strategies, i.e. self-reflection, which enabled PTs to draw meaning from their teaching experience, identify the problems and gain more confidence. Some studies (Norris, Larke, & Briers, 1990; Martin & Yonder, 2000) argued the importance of administrators or supervisors in helping the students to cope with teaching anxiety. This study focuses on anxiety alleviating strategies which can be classified using Murray-Harvey categories (1999). The above mentioned strategies suggested by Sameephet and Whanphet (2013) can be categorized into Murray-Harvey's personal coping strategies. Another category is related to professionalism. To avoid stress, PTs prepared for lessons and responsibilities related to teaching. Some PTs also managed their anxiety by turning to their social networks, e.g. family and friends. Finally, this framework emphasized that supports from academic supervisors and institutions played important roles in helping teachers with anxiety. This research uses theories from previous studies to analyze the data obtained from questionnaires and focus group discussion.

Method

To answer the research questions, this research employed a mixed-method. Creswell (2003, p. 12) stated that "in mixed methods research, investigators use both quantitative and qualitative data because they work to provide the best understanding of a research problem." The first research question was investigated quantitatively by distributing questionnaires related to PTs anxiety when teaching English. As explained previously, the causes of language teaching anxiety varied among students, so the researchers also conducted focus group discussion of 7

PTs to explore more detailed information. To answer the second research question, the researcher analyzed the data from the narrations of the participants. The researchers took notes and highlighted PTs' meaningful experience, especially their strategies to cope with foreign language teaching anxiety. The research was conducted in the English Language Education of Sanata Dharma University. The survey was planned to involve 50 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) PTs. However, because of time limitation, this study analyzed only 30 PTs who returned the questionnaires by August 2016. In September 2016, there were seven PTs involved in the discussion: three PTs with the lowest level of anxiety and four PTs with highest level of anxiety. The discussion was held near the campus of Sanata Dharma University.

Findings and Discussion

Causes of PTs' Anxiety

The students experienced anxiety when they taught English in a real classroom situation. The PTs found out that anxiety results in restless movement, inability to sleep, and inability to speak smoothly. Based on previous studies, this feeling stems from several causes like confidence, pre-service teachers' language skills, preparation, lesson delivery, the situation or the condition of the students, evaluations, and classroom management (Yoon, 2012 and Kim & Kim, 2004). The analysis revealed and discussed the frequencies of those anxiety indicators experienced by the PTs.

Confidence

Table 1 shows that 16 PTs (53%) got nervous when they spoke in classroom. Only five PTs were shy. The table also revealed that 18 PTs had high expectations on their teaching performance. Furthermore, half of the respondents showed that they relaxed when they were about to teach. Finally, the data show that only 9 PTs didn't feel sure about themselves in the class.

Table 1. PTs' Confidence

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4
		%	%	%	%
1	I get nervous when I speak in classroom	3	43	53	0
2	I feel shy when speaking English in front of students.	10	73	17	0
3	I feel very comfortable in speaking English.	7	33	57	3
4	When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	10	40	50	0
5	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the class.	0	70	27	3

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

From these statements related to PTs' confidence, most PTs were nervous not because they were shy, but because they had high expectations on their performance. This factor also appeared in the focus group discussion. The PTs had high anxiety in the first few meetings because of the unfamiliarity of the class, so they had no idea of both the teachers' and the students' expectations. This is in line with what Sameephet and Wanphet (2013, p.79) found in their study that

“anxiety can relate to expectations”. One of the participants admitted that she was so anxious that she couldn’t sleep. She had high expectations because she wanted to meet her teacher’s expectations. To deal with this problem of the participants discussed the importance of elaborating the students’ expectations.

- 1) I gave the students a piece of paper to write down their expectation.
And they expect reward in the class. (P4)

Knowing the students’ expectations in the class helped her to alleviate the mood of the class. In her case, the students expected reward for students with best marks. She realized that giving rewards to students may not always be positive because the students might focus on the rewards rather than the subjects. She found that giving rewards sometimes can be beneficial, particularly to increase the students’ motivation.

English Language Skills

Table 2 shows that 17 PTs (56%) were worried to explain the lesson in English. Moreover, there were 22 PTs who worried that they may need to explain advanced vocabulary. The table reveals that most respondents (77%) PTs were afraid that they would not know how to teach certain grammatical rules. In addition, the table shows that 14 PTs (47%) became more nervous realizing that they have made errors. There were 17 respondents (57%) who were afraid that their English was not as good as the regular English teachers.

Table 2. English Language Skills

N	Statements	1	2	3	4
		%	%	%	%
6	I worry when I explain the lesson in English.	10	33	53	3
7	I worry that I may need to explain advanced vocabulary.	3	23	70	3
8	I am afraid that I will not know how to teach certain grammatical rules.	10	13	67	10
9	When I realize I have made errors, I become more nervous.	0	53	47	0
10	I am afraid that my English is not as good as the regular English teachers.	7	37	50	7

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

Table .2 shows that most PTs (77%) were afraid of not knowing certain grammatical rules. It is followed by Statement 7 which indicates that students were anxious about explaining advanced vocabulary. From these data, we could argue that the students’ mastery of English language skills influences their anxiety. PTs students were worried about their lack of linguistic mastery.

Preparation

As seen in table 3, only 4 PTs (13%) became more nervous when they prepared more for English class. When preparing the materials, more than half of the respondents (67%) were anxious about maintaining a good standard of preparation. There were 16 respondents (53%) who were afraid when they needed to write detailed lesson plans. 17 PTs (57%) were anxious when they had to develop suitable sources/materials for the lessons. Most respondents (87%) mentioned that they were worried if the lesson was not interesting.

Table 3. Preparation

N	Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %
11	The more I prepare for English class, the more nervous.	10	77	13	0
12	I am anxious about maintaining a good enough standard of preparation.	0	33	60	7
13	I am afraid when I need to write detailed lesson plan.	10	37	40	13
14	I am anxious when I have to develop suitable sources/materials for the lessons.	10	33	57	0
15	I am worried if the lesson is not interesting.	0	13	63	23

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

The data show that the PTs wanted to make the lessons/materials interesting for the students. Most PTs also worried about having enough preparation because they wanted to give interesting materials to the students. The FGD showed that they were having difficulties in preparing the lesson plan.

- 2) The most complicated thing is making the syllabus and the lesson plan for the class. (P5)

Although some PTs experienced difficulties in preparing the lessons, statement 13 revealed that the PTs didn't become more nervous when preparing the lessons. In fact, they considered preparation as one strategy that helped them cope with anxiety.

Lesson delivery

Twelve PTs (40%) worried when they introduce new topics to my students. More than half of the respondents (67%) were afraid that they could not deliver abstract concept to my students. Most PTs (73%) feared that that they couldn't get the students' attention when they delivered their lessons. Most PTs (70%) feared that they couldn't meet the goals of the lesson plan when teaching. There were 21 respondents (70%) also were afraid that they could not give appropriate feedback to the students.

Table 4. Lesson Delivery

N	Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %
16	I worry when I introduce new topics to my students	3	57	40	0
17	I am afraid that I cannot deliver abstract concept to my students.	3	30	60	7
18	I fear that I can't get the students' attention when I deliver my lessons.	0	27	53	20
19	I fear that I cannot meet the goals of the lesson plan when teaching.	0	30	63	7
20	I am afraid that I cannot give appropriate feedback to the students.	0	30	67	3

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

Most PTs feared of not being able to grasp the students' attention in the class. PTs gave great importance to getting students' attention as it was a way to

achieve the expected goals. This is in line with Merc (2011) who found out that many PTs noted that when they were able to get the students' attention, they could meet the success levels they desired. As indicated from the data, the respondents were also anxious of not being able to meet the goals of the lesson plan.

Students' Profiles

One important factor in determining the success of the learning process is the students' context. In relation to the students' profiles, there were 22 PTs (73%) anxious about possible problems in the class with individual learners' misbehavior/bad behavior. More than half of the respondents (53%) were anxious that their students would not respect them in the classroom. Moreover, some PTs (57%) were anxious when their students asked them difficult questions. There were 20 PTs (67%) anxious about the strategies to give each learner the attention he needed. Most respondents (73%) were anxious that their students unable to follow the lessons as shown in table 5.

Table 5. The Condition of the Students

N	Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %
21	I am anxious about possible problems in the class with individual learners' misbehavior.	3	23	60	13
22	I am anxious that my students will not respect me in the classroom.	3	43	40	13
23	I am anxious when my students ask me difficult questions.	3	40	47	10
24	I am anxious about how to give each learner the attention to each students' needs.	3	30	57	10
25	I am anxious that my students unable to follow the lessons.	3	23	53	20

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

The condition of the students in the classroom is proved to be one significant cause of PTs' anxiety. In the microteaching class, the PTs taught their classmates whose English are generally at the same levels. But in the real classroom situation, the PTs should face students with different levels of English and diverse behaviors. One of them complained about the difficulties in getting the students interested in the subject:

- 1) I teach at a vocational school. The students I taught were close minded. They did not think that English is important. I had to teach English from the very basic. (P3)
- 2) The students had zero motivation to learn English. They preferred playing football than learning. (P6)

These two PTs worried about being unable to motivate the students. Kim and Kim (2004) revealed that poorly motivated students can ruin the class atmosphere. They were anxious that this would be an obstacle to carry out successful teaching and learning process.

Most PTs also experienced pressure from individual learners' misbehavior. The FGD shows that one respondent was shocked when she heard that one student

swore bad word in front of her. She felt humiliated by that incident. Another PT was insulted by a student's inappropriate gesture, which was done to make other students laugh. The behavior of the students toward the PTs increases the anxiety.

Evaluation

Most respondents (80%) worried about not passing the practicum. The table shows that 20 PTs (67%) were anxious about being observed and evaluated by their supervisors/teachers while teaching. Most respondents (80%) were anxious with their supervisors/teachers' expectation. On the other hand, less than half of the respondents (37%) feel anxious when they were observed by their peers. There were 18 PTs (60%) who were anxious when their supervisors/teachers gave them a verbal evaluation of their teaching practice.

Table 6. Evaluations

N	Statements	1	2	3	4
		%	%	%	%
26	I worry about not passing the practicum.	0	20	60	20
27	I am anxious about being observed and evaluated by my supervisors while teaching.	7	27	47	20
28	I am anxious with my supervisors' expectation	3	17	47	33
29		13	50	27	10
30	I am anxious when my lecturer gives me a verbal evaluation of my teaching in front of my peers.	0	40	47	13

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

The findings show that PTs were anxious about failing the practicum. They feared that they would fail the teachers' and supervisors' expectations.

- 1) The school teacher had different style of teaching from me. She limited my space in the class. She didn't allow me to handle the class. She didn't approve materials that I considered "fun". She thought that games in the classroom were a waste of time. I felt stupid after being evaluated by the teacher. (P6)
- 2) I was afraid of making mistakes because I was observed by my school teacher. I was so nervous that I couldn't speak smoothly. (P2)
- 3) I don't know whether I should be grateful for having a supervisor who is very detailed. He expected me to be an excellent teacher. He told me about his disappointment of other *Pre-Service Teachers*. So I felt burdened and anxious. (P4)

Participant 6 had difficulties because her space was limited by the school teacher. She felt uncomfortable being criticized by the teacher. Participant 2 was also nervous when being observed by the school teacher because he was scared of failing the class. Merc (2011) also reached similar conclusion that the presence of university's supervisor resulted in great anxiety. Another participant in FGD

mentioned that her supervisor, who was her lecturer, commented, questioned and criticized every detail that she wrote in the lesson plan. He did that because he had a high expectation that the PTs become extraordinary teachers. Although the preservice teacher learned a lot, she also experienced anxiety thinking about being evaluated by a supervisor with high expectation. In accordance to this study, Rieg, Paquette, and Chen (2007) also argued that teachers' high expectation could be a contributing factor to students' anxiety.

Classroom management

Most respondents (73%) were anxious that they could not have the full control of the class. In addition, there were 21 respondents (70%) who were worried when teaching English because the classes were crowded. Most respondents (73%) worried that they could not manage the time to deliver the materials. A half of the respondents (50%) felt uncomfortable with the noise level in their class. There were 16 PTs (53%) worried when they had to enforce discipline to the students.

Table 7. Classroom Management

N	Statements	1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %
31	I am anxious that I cannot have the full control of the class.	0	27	50	23
32	I am worried when teaching English because the classes are crowded.	0	30	60	10
33	I am worried I cannot manage the time to deliver the materials.	0	27	67	7
34	I feel uncomfortable with the noise level in my class.	0	50	40	10
35	I worry when I have to enforce discipline to the students.	7	40	43	10

Notes: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: agree, 4: strongly agree

PTs believed that they did not have as much power as the teachers. They were anxious that they could not control the class and they could not manage the time well. One of the PTs mentioned that one time she was angry at one student who sang during the examination. It demotivated the class, which worried her. She felt bad being angry at the students. One of the PTs also confessed that when the teacher of the class was not around, the students would behave badly. When unable to control the class, he ignored the students who were busy by themselves.

Strategies in Managing PTs' Anxiety

Students felt that being anxious hindered them from giving their best. Therefore they used different ways in tackling these problems. They managed their anxiety using personal, professional, social and institutional coping strategies.

Personal Coping Strategies

Murray-Harvey (1999) mentioned that there are five categories under personal coping strategies, namely: cognitive strategies, physical strategies, behavioral strategies, emotional strategies and rational strategies. The FGD reveals that some PTs used some personal coping strategies, specifically cognitive

strategies, to alleviate their anxiety. The strategies are using humor, planning and preparing, getting close with the students, talking positively, rewarding the students and accepting their being nervous as a part of their learning process.

a. Humor

Humors are myriad in the classrooms' walls. Both students and teachers find jokes amusing. Some PTs which were interviewed believed that humor eases the distress and the awkwardness in the classroom.

- 2) I don't like a very serious class, so I tried to break the tension by using humor. (P3)
- 3) When we are anxious we can be awkward, which leads to making mistakes. But it is relieving to laugh together with the class when it happens. I experienced a technical problem in the class. I forgot to plug the cable and I got panicked. They noticed this silly thing and we laughed together. (P7)

Participant 3 (P3) mentioned the advantage of using humor. He used this strategy because he felt that humor would help students relax. Participant 7 (P7) mentioned a strategy that she used to make the class merrier, that is by laughing at herself. She used self-deprecation. She laughed at something she did that was hilariously wrong. Humor is generally considered as an effective tool that enables us to redirect negative feelings and turn them into laughter

b. Positive Talk

Ronan and Kenall (1997) mentioned negative self-talk was more influential on increasing anxiety levels than positive self-talk was on decreasing anxiety levels. However, one respondent mentioned that positive self-talk was effective in reducing his anxiety.

- 4) When it comes to me, I think as positively as I can. I think positively that I can do it. (P2)

He believed that positive thinking would decrease anxiety. This is in line with Buchler's study who argued that "adding positive self-talk to the anxiety-reducing techniques proved to be a beneficial strategy for many of the students." (2013, p. 150)

c. Acknowledging the state of being nervous

One respondent mentioned that she did not try to avoid being nervous because she considered it as a learning process. Instead, she mentioned that she was nervous in front of the class.

- 5) I did not have specific strategies to deal with anxiety because I think that anxiety is a part of being human. From my experience in joining the choir, I learnt not to focus on my anxiety, the more I think about the strategies to deal with anxiety, the more anxious I get. I don't want to be more afraid. I eliminate thinking about it and I smile to the class.

I admit that I'm anxious in front of the class. It turns out that they show their sympathy and listens to me. (P3)

When she felt anxious, she acknowledged this feeling. She tried to see this feeling as a part of learning. She accepted that she feared teaching the students and she let the students know how she felt. Similarly, Takahashi (2014) also argued that acknowledgement of being anxious might play a key role for PTs to deal with their anxiety.

Professional Coping strategies

Besides personal coping strategies, Murray-Harvey (1993) also mentioned that there are three categories under professional coping strategies related to knowledge, skills and qualities of the teacher. Several strategies appeared in the FGD related to building skills and building positive relationships with the students.

a. Planning and Preparing

Having adequate preparation and planning is one of the professional coping strategies in reducing anxiety (as also suggested by Yoon, 2012). PTs in the FGD discussed the importance of preparation and planning.

- 6) I prepare plan A and plan B. I was taught in the microteaching class that we should always have Plan B because not all things work as planned. I prepared more exercises and activities in the class. I tried to find other sources to help them study. (P4)
- 7) I asked information from my experienced seniors so I can anticipate the materials. By knowing the materials, I can prepare or study until I master the materials (P6)

Participant (4) and Participant (6) believed in that the better the preparation, the better the result. Moreover, Participant 4 prepared two plans, in case the first plan did not go smoothly. Some PTs believed that both planning and preparation were the keys to success. The discussion showed two ways of preparation: the first one is by finding other sources and the second one is by getting help from more experienced people.

b. Adapting with the students

One respondent felt that she didn't want to be a teacher. Due to that fact, she acted not as the teacher, but she positioned herself as the students' older sister. She did that because she felt that the closer your relationship to the students is, the less anxious you are.

- 8) I don't want to be teacher, but I need to teach. So I position myself as the students' older sisters. I considered them as my little brothers, so why should I be anxious of my own brother. I used quotes to attract their attention. They loved the quotes so they ask more of them (P7).

From this excerpt, we see that she was proactive in getting herself close with the students. Furthermore, she did not only use quotations that were related to the students' life, but she also talked to them outside the class and acted as their siblings. Having positive relationship with the students helped her reduce the anxiety.

c. Rewarding the students

Another cause of anxiety was some students felt that they were anxious of unable to control the students' behavior. To deal with that, they believed that giving rewards to the students would help them managing the class.

- 9) To deal with anxiety and control the students in the class, I prepared some rewards. The students were struggling to get the rewards. (P4)
- 10) When I was unable to control the class, I used the reward system as thought in AMT (Approaches, Methods and Theories in teaching languages). The reward for the class is watching movies together. (P2)

The students believe that rewards would make the students more motivated and more cooperative in the classroom. Knowing that students would behave after they prepare the reward, the students felt less anxious.

Social Coping Strategies

Sharing the problems to their social supports, like friends and family, could be a way to reduce anxiety. This strategy also appeared in the discussion, as shown in the following excerpt:

- 11) I learned from my boyfriend about the techniques to make my students interested. I share my feelings to him. (P6)
- 12) I was confused when I needed to explain about questions. I got headache to prepare the materials because I don't think the students can handle grammar lesson well. I have a friend who is a lecturer. I am really close to him. I considered him as my family. He also experienced the same problems and he gave me enlightenment by comparing Indonesian and English question patterns. (P3)

Both students realized that sharing with friends with similar experience help them reduce the anxiety. P6 felt comfortable to share her feelings to her closest friend that she was frustrated by the teacher. Because they had similar experience, she also learned from her boyfriend about the techniques in making the students interested. P3 mentioned that he shared the problems to a friend who could give solutions to him. He shared his problems to a lecturer from different university and got useful ideas from him.

Institutional Coping Strategies

Although the students realized that they had to be active in managing their anxiety by themselves, they also seek help from institutional authority. One respondent felt empowered by her supervisor.

- 13) The good thing from my school teacher is that she gives me space to handle my classroom. She told me that the class is under my watch and she allowed me to manage the class. (P5)
- 14) I share my problems to my advisor. I told him that I was afraid. He told me that he would guide me. He calmed me down. I saw Pak Gun

taught us calmly. He guided me by saying that everything would flow well. He told me to relax. (P6)

15) My advisor gave me constructive advice that can slightly reduce my level of anxiety. (P2)

We can see that Participant 5 felt good because the school teacher gave her freedom to handle the class. In addition, Participant 6 felt that talking to her university supervisor was helpful. Instead of judging her, he provided positive advice to make calm her down. Participant 2 was also encouraged by constructive advice given by his supervisor. These findings are in line with other studies that emphasize on the importance of administrators or supervisors in helping the students to cope with teaching anxiety (Norris, Larke, & Briers, 1990; Martin & Yonder, 2000). Accordingly, institutional level supports play an important role in reducing students' stress. Due to that fact, it is crucial that supervisors provide positive supports and non-threatening evaluation for the students.

Conclusion

From both the questionnaires and the focus group discussion, it can be seen that the causes of English preservice teachers' anxiety were their confidence, English skills, preparation, lesson delivery, students' profiles, evaluation, and classroom management. As inexperienced teachers, they tended to feel unconfident with their own teaching. Expectations set by themselves as well as the teachers and supervisors added more pressure which resulted in an increased level of anxiety. As English is not their first language, they also felt anxious about their mastery of English grammar. Other significant factors which contributed to their anxiety included fear of not being able to get the students' attention and to make the lessons interesting. In tackling the problems, the participants applied personal, professional, social, and institutional coping strategies. All those four strategies were taken to help the PTs manage and cope with their anxiety. By identifying the causes of anxiety, teacher educators are expected to be able to prepare PTs better before their placement. Teacher education programs should also help PTs through the provision of personal and meaningful guidance and supervision. Hence, it is hoped that they will be less anxious when they teach in schools. Teaching practicum in schools, therefore, should be considered as a rewarding experience rather than an unnerving one.

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THE USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM: AN INSIGHT INTO LEARNER AUTONOMY

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Abstract

This research was conducted to examine Indonesian students' experiences in using technology in learning English outside the classroom with regards to learner autonomy as an important capacity for students' learning success. The subjects of the study were students of a private Senior High School in South Tangerang. As for the methodology, this research applied quantitative and qualitative design. Quantitative elements include questionnaires as the data collecting method, while qualitative elements used semi structured interviews. In this interview, five students were chosen purposively based on students' responses to the questionnaires. The findings of this study indicate that the use of technology to learn English outside the classroom has encouraged the development of learner autonomy which includes aspects of learning motivation, metacognitive awareness, self-confidence and social skills. This research is expected to help English teachers improve their students' English proficiency with the concern on the development of learner autonomy by using various information and communication technology.

Keywords: e-learning, ICT, learner autonomy

Introduction

Technological developments in the 21st century have an influence on all aspects of human life, one of which is on the aspect of education. In addition to gaining influence from these developments, the world of education should make adjustments to equip students with the necessary skills in the future. Technology provides an opportunity for students to study independently and collaborate with their peers. This is possible because technology encourages students to reflect and analyze where these two capabilities are at the core of developing autonomy (Little, 1996). According to Hattie (2003), students themselves is the biggest factor of their learning success. Other factors include teacher factor, school factor, family factor, and peers factor.

With the development of information technology and emphasis on the importance of students' independence in solving problems nowadays, teachers should make adjustments and changes to student-centered learning. In this regards, the concept of learner autonomy as the ability to control one's own learning (Holec, 1981) becomes very important. Some research results indicate

that learner autonomy is an important factor that gives influence to students' learning success (Yen & Liu, 2009), and a number of research concerning learner autonomy in language learning have been conducted including in the Indonesian context (Kemala, 2014; Lamb, 2004; Lengkawati, 2017; Utami 2007, Warni, 2016). However, to what extent senior high school students demonstrate their capacity of learner autonomy through the use of technology in language learning outside the classroom has not been sufficiently investigated. This research tries to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in that area and is intended to explore students' experiences in learning English using e-learning and examine how the capacity of learner autonomy is demonstrated.

The term learner autonomy in language learning was first raised by Holec (1981) in the western context. According to Holec (1981), autonomous learners are able to define the goals and strategies for knowing and evaluating their own development. In its development various definitions of learner autonomy are advanced by many experts; such as Benson (2001), Dickinson (1996), Little (1991), Palfreyman and Smith (2003), Scharle and Szabo (2000) suggest the definition of focusing on the idea of taking responsibility for its own learning. The definition of learner autonomy by Dickinson (1987) as a situation in which the student is really responsible for all decisions related to his learning, and the execution of such decisions is very relevant in this study because this study examines the concept of learner autonomy in the context of self-study where no intervention from the teacher directly.

Although studies on self-directed learning in developing countries have tended to focus on the conformity of concepts that are perceived as principles of 'Western' pedagogy and practice (Jones, 1995, Sonaiya, 2002), several studies have revealed evidence of student behavior that reflects learner autonomy capacity in a context outside the west (Coleman, 1996; Lamb 2006). This indicates that the concept of learner autonomy is not only relevant in the western world where this concept emerges, but in a certain form the concept is relevant to all contexts including in Indonesia. More research is needed to examine how Indonesian learners express this capacity so that it can be a reference to design programs that can support them develop this capacity for their learning success.

In previous research, Utami (2007) revealed that autonomous learners have several characteristics such as taking responsibility for their own learning, recognizing needs, setting goals, planning their own learning, finding resources, allocating time, and working together. In the learning process, students are influenced by psychological and sociocultural factors. In another study, Kemala (2014) asserted that independent learners are accustomed to the ability to find the resources or materials they want to study, identify their learning needs and select learning activities. With regard to learning strategies, he explained that independent learners use memory strategies, social strategies, cognitive strategies, and meta-cognitive strategies. He reported that in interviews, it can be concluded that motivation, environment, tasks, teachers, and materials play an important role to make students learn autonomously (Lengkanawati, 2017). The previous studies of learner autonomy in English learning in Indonesia show that this area is already well studied in Indonesia, but how students' autonomy

capacities are demonstrated when students use e-learning facilities outside the classroom, especially in the context of senior high schools in Indonesia have not been sufficiently studied.

E-learning is the acquisition and use of science that is distributed and facilitated by electronic media (Behera, 2013). The media used to facilitate e-learning can be through websites, CD-ROMs, applications on computers, applications on mobile devices, and more. Mobile devices commonly used for e-learning can include mobile phones, smartphones (smartphones), personal digital assistants (PDAs), tablet computers and laptop computers. Although e-learning method using ordinary mobile device is categorized as m-learning, but for this research we will use e-learning term which also includes learning method using mobile device media. This is because m-learning is a form of distance learning (d-learning) and electronic learning (e-learning) that already existed (Georgiev, Georgieva, & Smrikarov, 2004)

E-learning is one form of use of information and communication technology (ICT) appropriate to support student autonomy in learning. This is because e-learning gives students the flexibility of space and time, thus providing better management that can be tailored to the educational needs of each student (Goulao & Menedez, 2015). According to Nielsen (2012), there are several reasons why e-learning can be used as a pedagogical framework for activities that can make the learner able to be more self-directed and more autonomous in the planning, monitoring and evaluation of learning methods. E-learning makes learner autonomy-related activities out of the classroom possible, thus avoiding the time pressure that occurs when teaching in the classroom. Another reasons are that e-learning has added value when compared to doing the same activity using paper (due to access to digital sources, easy access to cooperative learning media with authentic settings, etc.), e-learning provides a better simulation of the working world conditions that students will meet once they enter the workforce when compared to activities in the traditional classroom. In a previous study, online portfolios were implemented to improve students' writing skills. This media is proven to be effective in helping students plan, monitor and evaluate their learning process in an effort to improve their English essay writing skills (Warni, 2016). The potential use of technology to support the development of learner autonomy capacity encourages researchers to examine the use of technology for learning English outside the classroom.

Method

This research applied quantitative and qualitative approach with 42 students of a class in a private senior high school in South Tangerang as the subjects. Quantitative data collecting method include questionnaire adapted from a questionnaire model designed by Figura and jarvis (2007) tailored to the needs of this study. The data generated with this technique is expected to provide clarity (McDonough and McDonough, 2004) and allows for quick and simple answers (Oppenheim, 2001). All students participated in filling in questionnaires which explore how students used technology to learn English outside the classroom. However, the technique allows only limited responses. To overcome this, semi

structured interviews were also used in this study. The purposive sampling method was applied to select five students who took part in the in-depth interviews. By considering the information about the participants obtained through the results of the questionnaires, five students were those who actively used technology to learn English and could articulate their experiences and perceptions. Through interviews researchers examined how the use of technology helped students in demonstrating the capacity of autonomy in learning English. The Interviews were semi-structured which allowed students to respond more freely to specific question topics even though a list of key questions were prepared to keep the focus.

Findings and Discussion

As stated previously, this research involves quantitative data (from questionnaires) and qualitative data (from interviews). The questionnaires obtained information about participants and their experiences related to the use of technology in learning English. The interview provides data on students' perceptions on the use of technology for learning English outside the classroom in relation to the development of students' autonomy capacity in learning English.

Results of Quantitative Data from Questionnaires

Quantitative data was obtained from the results of the questionnaires filled in by 42 students which consists of 15 male students and 27 female students. The first section contains general questions covering age, class, how long they have studied English and their perceptions of their ability to communicate in English. The second part explores students' learning activities outside the classroom using technology media. The purpose of the third part is to investigate what learning strategies the students are doing. Of all the students, most of them (73.9%) had an English learning experience of more than 11 years, some even up to 17 years old. The rest had varied English learning experiences, from 10 years (9.5%), 9 years (2.4%), 8 years (2.4%), 7 years (9.5%) and 6 years (2.4%). The majority of students stated that the use of technology in learning English is very useful (47.6%), and the rest stated that it is useful. The students' experiences in using technology in learning English outside the class include the following aspects:

1. Applying the Strategy of planning, monitoring and evaluation of learning

From the experience of students using technology, most of them sometimes plan how they will learn English using 59.5% technology media), while others state never ((9.5%), often (238%), and always (7.1%) Of the students who planned the study, 54% often planned how long they would study, and even 11.9% were always planning how long they were studying. Other times and never planning a percentage of 16.7%, 54% and 16.7% . When using technology to learn English, although most students understand their learning goals, there are also those who never (4.8%) understand their learning objectives.

2. The use of various techniques to learn English listening

Listening skills is one of the skills students develop through the use of technology, as stated by 76.2% of students. Most of students (76%) paid close attention to keywords that help them understand the meaning of the phrases they are listening to. Only 2.4% did not listen to keywords in the phrase. Many

students tried to understand English phrases when listening through the computer by playing them over and over again (76.2%).

In addition to learning to listen via computer, TV with all its programs (talk shows, games and others) is a very popular listening learning media among students. This media is utilized by most of them (80%). Watching images in TV shows is one way students do to help them understand the message. More students still rely more on Indonesian sub-titles than trying to understand the expression on TV shows with the help of English sub-titles. Some students (45.3%) watched English-language programs with computer media more than once; using English sub-titles while watching the first time and with Indonesian sub-titles for the second time.

Text is a form of English communication that students learn through the utilization of IT media (computers, smartphones). Techniques and frequency of text utilization by students vary. Reading text is the most common technique by many students (31%) compared to other techniques. Generally they (30%) read English text on their mobile phone screen more than once. Most students often check the meaning of words they do not understand using Google translate. Although only occasionally, most students write new words or phrases they find on the internet and review their memories of new words they get from the internet.

3. Learning collaboratively

The utilization of e-learning, although only occasionally for most students, has facilitated them to cooperate with friends or collaboratively learn in various ways; discussing, asking friends when encountering difficulties, sending emails, asking friends to correct errors when performing live chat with a feature in their mobile phone.

Results of Qualitative Data from Interviews

Data collection through interviews yields more in-depth information about students' perceptions on the use of technology in English learning. Interview questions were prepared with reference to the concept of learner autonomy which became the focus area of this study. The interview transcriptions were then analyzed and resulted in the following findings.

1. Students' Intensity In Using ICT For English Learning

The results of the interviews reveal that all students have easy access to use the internet via mobile phone that they always carry everywhere. They use computers for at least two hours a day for various purposes; communicating with friends, reading the latest news, and searching information related to school subjects. Of the five interview respondents, three of them stated that they rarely use the internet to browse information on the website. With regards to the use of technology to support learning English, the five respondents stated that they had used the mobile phone to learn English, either intentionally or not. English learning happens by accident when they play games that contain a lot of English vocabulary in both written and conversational form. Two out of five respondents specifically took the time to learn English with a mobile phone. Television is a medium other than mobile phone that can be accessed easily by students. They revealed that television became part of their daily lives with varying intensity and frequency in each student.

2. English Materials Students Learn by Using the Internet

Students read news or English articles from the website and chat via applications in their mobile phone. One of the students has an interest in English since she was in junior high school and wanted to continue her studies at a college majoring in English. This student has a WA group with members of her junior high schoolmates who have the same intention to continue to practice English in their communications. In addition to gaming and WA apps not specifically designed for learning English, one student also stated that he has also opened several websites designed specifically for learning English. He uses many grammar exercises available on the website.

As stated earlier, English language learning, especially vocabulary and pronunciation skills occur by accident when they play games and watch English programs where they are presented with many English vocabulary in both writing and conversation.

3. The Use of Technology and Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy, as discussed in the theoretical review, is a complex capacity involving many components. The qualitative data obtained from the interview results were analyzed with regards to learner autonomy components suggested by different experts (Benson, 2011; Lamb, 2006; Dickison, 1996). The result of data analysis shows that the utilization of ICT especially e-learning contribute to learner autonomy capacity in the following components:

1. Increasing Students' Interest in English Learning (Learning Motivation)

The students' desire to learn English came partly because of their interest in the facilities or features of their mobile phones. When students play games or when they happily work on their gadgets, the learning process takes place without any burden. The process of learning English occurs without them knowing because the elements of English are integrated with their passion to play the gadget. This is shown in the following extracts of a student's interview,

I love playing games. All the games I play in English ... Little by little I understand the meaning of the words in the game. The language setting in my phone is in English, and every day I use it (Student A).

The above statement shows that the gadget becomes an "entrance" for students to learn English. They might not have learned the vocabulary that is in the game if they did not have an interest in the game. This aspect of attraction becomes important in relation to the motivation that drives students to learn.

2. Enhancing Metacognitive Awareness

The interview results show that students are aware of what areas of English skills they improve when performing various activities with their gadgets. For example when they have a WA group and are committed to communicating with English, they feel their communication skills are improving. They can also identify what difficulties they face when they communicate certain ideas or things. A student expressed this during the interview,

I have Group WA with my junior friends. We both want to learn English. But I often have difficulty expressing something because of the limitations of the

vocabulary (Student E).

Students' awareness that their ability to speak English increases is also evident from their response to some interview questions. For example, after playing games that use English, their understanding of the vocabulary used in the game increases. The students' responses show that their ability to identify their own strengths and weaknesses is formed through learning activities using e-learning media.

3. Enhancing Self Confidence and Social Skills

Students' awareness of the increasing ability of English-speaking fosters their sense of confidence in their abilities. One student stated that his ability to understand English conversations increased with his frequent visits to TV shows in English. Another student revealed that her habit of engaging in English with her friends through the WA application made her more confident when communicating with English. The use of online chatting media such as WA and FB has also raised awareness of the importance of support from others in learning to communicate in English, as stated by one of the students in the interview,

I feel very helped by the WA group of my junior high school friends. Until now we are still actively chatting in English. My friends encouraged each other (Student C).

The media of information and communication technology (ICT) has facilitated students in developing this capacity.

This study was conducted to explore students' experiences in utilizing technology to support learning English outside the classroom and examine how students demonstrated the capacity of learner autonomy, a capacity that many studies have proven to be important for students' learning success. Various aspects of students' experiences in the use of technology to learn English have been presented in the previous section. Technology especially mobile phone with internet connection has become part of students' every day life. In relation to the benefits of technology in learning English, students also realize that technology is very useful. Knowledge of the benefits of technology in learning English does not necessarily make them maximally use this medium to learn English. As stated in the findings of this study, few students specifically plan to learn English using the technology they have. In relation to student autonomy capacity, the findings of this study indicate that the use of technology in English learning has facilitated students in developing their autonomy in learning. Motivation to learn is one aspect of student autonomy that is driven by the existence of technology. Students' interest in English learning activities arises because they love the features in their gadgets that allow them to learn. This reinforces previous studies which revealed that the use of blogs has increased the interest of students to learn to write in English (Warni, 2016). When engaging in English chatting activities with friends in the WA group, students can identify their particular weaknesses in

the vocabulary. Awareness of the limitations of English vocabulary mastery and awareness of the importance of improving vocabulary mastery to support their ability to communicate, mobilize them to find out and learn the vocabulary they meet or need but they do not yet know. This awareness known as metacognitive awareness is an important aspect of learner autonomy which is revealed in this study. Other components of learner autonomy found in this study are students' confidence and social skills. In relation to the cultural context, the findings of this study reinforce what was previously proposed by Coleman (1996) and Lamb (2006), that the capacity of learner autonomy is not only relevant to the context of the Western world.

Conclusion

This study aims to examine students' experiences in utilizing technology to learn English outside the classroom and examine their implications for their autonomy capacity in learning. Various technology tools such as television, laptop, and mobile phone with internet connection have become part of students' daily life. All students realize that technology is very useful in helping them learn English, but it does not necessarily make them maximally use this medium to learn English. As stated in the findings of this study, few students specifically plan to learn English using the technology they have. This study also reveals that the use of technology in English learning has been a driving force in the development of their autonomy in learning, which includes several components; learning motivation, metacognitive awareness, self-confidence and social skills. The findings of this study suggest that students need to have more literacy on the benefits of technology and how to maximize its use to enhance their English learning.

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STUDENT-CENTERED LEARNING AND TESTING AS AN APPROACH TO DEVELOP STUDENTS' PROFICIENCY ON ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURE TO PROMOTE AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

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Abstract

This study investigates how *Sentence Master* downloaded from Android can be used as a self-study media for students to promote Autonomous Learning to develop students' comprehension on English sentence structure which is grammatically correct. Students can measure, by themselves, whether the material given during the teaching and learning process has been successfully learned. The result of this study is also intended to be used by the teachers and lecturers to indicate the successfulness of teaching and learning that have been conducted. This is an action research which 10 students of English Education Program of the University of PGRI Yogyakarta were employed as the objects of the research. They are tested to run the game of *Sentence Master* and the score will be recorded that benefits teacher to consider whether the learning process that has been conducted is successful. This study also investigates students' difficulty on making English sentence. This study emerges results that *Sentence Master* helps students to understand English grammar better by employing the smart phone to promote Autonomous Learning. This media is used by the students as the indication whether they have the abilities to make good English sentences.

Keywords: autonomous learning, Sentence Master, English sentence structure

Introduction

There are tremendous debates among experts whether English grammar should be taught explicitly and individually, or should it be taught integrated with other skills? There are a lot of approaches been found to teach English grammar to enhance proficiency on making acceptable written English sentences since decades ago. The question that has not been answered satisfyingly is that, "is it important to teach English grammar"? Two experts observed in their study that pre-service teachers show an affirmative attitude towards grammar teaching although they strongly believe that "it should not be taught directly or overtly. Attitudes change depending on the age and purpose of the learners", which "is also seen that there is a gap between the practice and theory the reason of which may be the testing policy in Turkish educational system" (Degirmenci & Yavuz, 2015).

In recent years, people think that “grammar is too important to be ignored. The newest issue is not whether or not we should teach grammar. The issues now center on questions, such as which grammar items do learners need most? How do we go about teaching grammar items in the most effective way? Are they best taught inductively or deductively?” (Richards & Renandya, 2002). In other words, how should we teach grammar to our students?

Teaching and learning nowadays have reached the highest level of thinking in which students are engaged to autonomous learning, which means students have full responsibility to provide and learn the material and elaborate among themselves to gain the learning goals effectively and efficiently. In traditional teaching method, teachers are expected to have 4 basic skill (Jana & Pamungkas, 2018). The skills include pedagogical, character, social and professional. These skills will meet the expectation of teacher and learners during a teacher-centered classroom. However, do these teacher’s basic skills are required during an autonomous learning when students are fully engaged to technology to ‘substitute’ the existence of the teacher?

This study investigates how android app can be used as a self-assessment conducted by the students to measure their level of proficiency on making English sentences which are structurally acceptable. It is hoped that this study will emerge students’ independency on learning English grammar, especially on making English sentences as it is an expected level of proficiency at the university level.

English Grammar

If you ask average speakers of a language what they know about grammar they may remember the odd lesson from school, but beyond that they will say that they have forgotten what grammar they once new (Harmer, 1991). In the sentence of ‘*How many students are there in the classroom?*’, the function was enquiring about numbers, and in the practice which helped the learners use the structure meaningfully, they asked each other questions about hidden items. No mention was made of grammar. But there is an important grammar’s point embedded in that structure; it is countable versus uncountable. In a grammar lesson, the teacher will draw attention to that distinction. Practice of *how many?* (countable) will be contrasted with *how much?* (of uncountable items). The teacher’s concern will not be with communication and mastery of a useful structure, rather it will be with understanding of the concept and mastery of that grammar point. There would be special attention to any clash between the mother tongue and the target language in terms of what is countable (Cross: 1992). Some teachers see no need to teach and practice grammar at all. Some even regard structure practice and other forms of grammar teaching as harmful. Their view is that learners will pick up the regularities intuitively.

Talking about English grammar, as a teacher of it, it is our consideration and responsibility to teach English grammar creatively and contextually which should be based on the needs. It should be so since a lot of students may have various perspectives about teaching and learning English grammar. The question is, does teaching and learning grammar really matter? The grammatical rules provide a structure to learning any language, both FLT and SLT. However, the teachers in

the final year of general education are no longer fixated on grammar. It is hardly mentioned in the curriculum because students are supposed to have learned it in the first four years of general education. They only focus on grammar when there are recurrent mistakes made by the students. The students ought to be able to apply the rules; they are no longer required to actually know them because they should already be internalized. (Vooren, Casteleyn, & Mottart, 2012).

Learning Autonomously

Learner autonomy in language education is interpreted in various ways and various terms such as ‘learner independence’, ‘self-direction’, and ‘independent learning’ (Little, 1991); (Karababa, Eker, Serkan, & Ar, 2010). Those concepts are used simultaneously to refer to the same object called as autonomous learning. When the students are able to direct the learning process by themselves, what is the role of the teachers? (Masouleh & Jooneghani, 2012) investigate the role of the teacher in autonomous learning. The investigation reveals a belief that to help learners to assume greater control over their own learning, it is important that teachers help them to become aware of and identify the strategies that they already use or could potentially use. The study highlights the need to integrate learner independence into the language curriculum, with a well structured focus, delivery and content. Holec (1979) as cited by (Okumu, 2015) describes an autonomous learner in various aspects. An autonomous learner is capable of:

1. Determining the objectives
2. Defining the contents and progressions
3. Selecting method and techniques to be used
4. Monitoring the procedure of acquisition
5. And evaluating what has been acquired

A teacher has prepared a lot of things before he comes to the class. Is the autonomous learning possible to happen?

Should the autonomous learning be designed strictly to the norms or ethics? Or can it be arranged through games to draw more attention of the learners? A study has been conducted that games may attract more attention among the high anxiety of the young learners (Celik, 2013). It is true that, when students are learning to acquire the correct English sounds, they should have good concentration. Games will certainly make them spontaneously using their L1. In this case, games will omit the anxiety and raise the motivation to learn English. Generally speaking, motivation leads to the autonomy in learning (Vile & Buyukduman, 2013); (Egel, 2009). It has the meaning that, before actuating the autonomous learning, students and teachers should grow the intrinsic motivation of learning English because it is strongly connected to the autonomy (Daskalovska, Koleva, & Ivanovska, 2012); (Dincer, Yesilyurt, & Takkac, 2012). As it has been stated, the 3 most important things to gain the best result are language, learning motivational and the use of technology (Ali, Soleimani, & Bakhtiarvand, 2014).

Autonomous learning also has strong relationship with E-learning to diminish the distance between teacher and students (Cai, 2012). When teacher employs E-learning, it is benefited that students will have opportunity to gain abundant of material that can be easily accessed at anytime and anywhere. The vast

development of technologies urges the modification of learning and teaching approaches to gain the better results (Goulao & Menedez, 2015). (Farivar & Rahimi, 2015) proves that experimental group autonomy which employs the CALL brings the better results on English test than the control group which does not apply CALL. The reason is that CALL provides abundant material for all aspects of English learning, compared to the traditional teaching and learning method.

Is it only the teacher as the one who should create the autonomous learning environment? Are there others elements that can take participation during the conducting of this learning approach? Autonomous learning has the meaning of making the environments, not just the one in the classroom, more than that, the students should be able to feel the supports from society to apply the autonomous learning. The university or the school should support by providing good facilities and the contexts of learning such as a good library that provides anything to learn that can be accessed through inside and outside the library building as away to develop the students' learning independence which happens not only in one night (Chou & ChanLin, 2015); (Hamdi, 2016); (Laz, 2013); (Ivanovska, 2015).

The main aim of learning a language is to be able to communicate with others using that language, actively and spontaneously. In this case, students are expected to learn the language, not only from teachers at classrooms, independently to gain more results. The students are also expected to be responsible for the conceptual, motivational and content-technological (Popescu, 2014); (Bolsunovskaya, Kemerova, Asadullina, Sentsov, & Chris, 2015). Teachers' duty is to make supportive autonomous learning; students are responsible about the process of learning (Ismail & Yusof, 2012). A teacher should be able to make himself as a partner for the students, meaning that he observes, listens, analyzes and inform when the problem emerges (Cristina, 2015). Besides, it is the teacher's duty to make the students realize their real needs to accomplish the purposes and to grow the motivation environment to gain the learning goals effectively and efficiently (Alhodiry, 2016). On the other hand, the students are expected to find suitable materials based on teachers' direction, state the learning goals and responsible for the assessments (Tran & Duong, 2018).

Method

This research employs 10 students consisting of 7 males and 3 females of the third year students in the University of PGRI Yogyakarta specialized on English Teacher Training Program. The subjects of this study are asked to download the app of *Sentence Master* from their android phones. Those 10 students have joined basic structure, pre-intermediate, intermediate structure, and now they are joining Advanced Structure as the last step to be proficient in English grammar. During the process of data gaining, students are introduced to the level of the game, starting from the beginner, competent, professional and expert. They are expected to start the game with the beginner level as a way to know the game better. In the end, students will be able to finish all the levels without any obstacles, in which it indicates that the learning process of grammar is successfully conducted. The score of each subject of the research will be recorded to measure the ability to

make English sentences, after that, they are expected to answer a series of question in a provided questionnaire regarding their experiences during joining the class of grammar.

Findings and Discussion

This research focuses on how *Sentence Master* of Android App can be a media for students of English learning to measure their capability to make English sentences. The students are expected to use the *Sentence Master* to reveal their real capabilities on making English sentences which are structurally correct. The samples of *Sentence Master* are described as follows:



1. Change have ? do you Schedule
2. Like I don't food Thai
3. Very well paints she
4. Your what is ? address
5. Of the order elevator out is
6. Cold liked no one the pizza

This is a kind of grammatical language game, in which the students are asked to re-arrange the jumbled words to be a good grammatical sentence. There are 4 levels of difficulty which can be used as a parameter, in what the level the students are at the best. The principles of this game are:

1. Students choose the expected level of difficulty.
2. Students are expected to be able to arrange the jumbled words to be the grammatically accepted sentence.
3. The ability to make grammatical sentences is fully based on the level of comprehension on the word order.
4. When the students are able to get the high score, it means that the better comprehension after the learning process has been achieved.
5. By recording the score of each student in a class, teacher will get benefit that he or she can measure his successfulness on delivering material that is the English word order.

6. The measurement can be used by the teacher to fix the weak parts, both the material and the way to deliver it.
7. When the teacher is successful to measure the process and result of the learning process, it is expected that the future learning process will achieve the goals effectively and efficiently.

After the students played the game of *Sentence Master*, the researcher gained the data of the students' scores which are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Students' Scores

Respondent	The Sentences	Total Mistakes	Time Spent
Student 1	1. Mike always goes to work by car.	0	11.50'
	2. Matt is studying to be a boat captain.	0	21.37'
	3. Only after the fact did he realize his mistake.	1	19.37'
	4. More than seven-hundred farm animals were destroyed.	0	17.38'
	5. What would you do with so much money?	0	31.90'
	6. I hope that he comes tomorrow.	5	26.20'
	7. Our program was better than was expected.	2	16.42'
	8. When did you return from Madrid?	2	11.41'
	9. Listen now as Dizzy Gillespie and his all star quintet play the song.	3	39.69'
	10. It represents the special relationship between the circus animals and the human performers.	4	46.21'
Student 2	1. When are you completing the computer course?	5	18.58'
	2. Did you put the milk in the refrigerator?	4	22.74'
	3. He does not attend a high school.	1	25.81'
	4. We do this more for pleasure than for money.	4	24.16'
	5. He asked me how to use the program.	4	31.18'
	6. Jack does not need to sleep very much.	5	15.96'
	7. Soon after, music was added to his words.	4	16.53'
	8. How happy are you that John is coming?	2	26.33'
	9. When the snow melted, the flowers began to appear.	5	19.46'
	10. The cinema is next to the park.	4	24.57'
Student 3	1. He is more likely to go than to stay.	2	20.12'
	2. I brush my teeth in the morning.	0	7.43'
	3. If I had a car I would drive to work.	5	35.83'
	4. She liked the dark blue sweater the best.	3	25.50'
	5. May I have a word with you?	1	15.73'
	6. My sister goes to work at 8 o'clock.	2	12.57'

Respondent	The Sentences	Total Mistakes	Time Spent
Student 4	7. Her legs felt as she climbed the stairs.	0	11.00'
	8. What do you think of him?	0	8.35'
	9. His mom made sure that Carl finished school.	1	17.36'
	10. The cinema is next to the park.	3	16.14'
	1. There are six of us at home.	0	10.06'
	2. You should see a play while in London.	1	21.82'
	3. The live in the centre of town.	0	7.73'
	4. He is more likely to go than to stay.	0	12.51'
	5. Matt is studying to be a boat captain.	0	18.57'
	6. They live in the center of town.	0	7.73'
Student 5	7. I did not turn off the stove in the kitchen.	0	18.11'
	8. Mike always goes to work by car.	0	11.97'
	9. He does not attend a high school.	0	8.80'
	10. What is your favorite car?	0	7.00'
	1. The Ebola virus affects animal and people.	0	9.48'
	2. What would you do with so much money?	1	20.66'
	3. How happy are you that John is coming?	5	21.66'
	4. May I have a word with you?	0	12.49'
	5. When the snow melted, the flowers began to appear.	4	16.38'
	6. My sister goes to work at eight o'clock.	1	13.63'
Student 6	7. He is considered the world's first music star.	2	23.03'
	8. I hope that he comes to the party tomorrow.	1	16.45'
	9. How much money can you earn?	5	19.31'
	10. Jack does not need to sleep very much.	3	23.61'
	1. What do you think of him?	1	8.41'
	2. When did you return from Madrid?	0	12.14'
	3. May I have a word with you?	0	15.11'
	4. If I had a car I would drive to work.	0	23.54'
	5. My father has suggested that I change my job.	0	19.60'
	6. Jack does not need to sleep very much.	1	13.27'
Student 7	7. Mike always goes to work by car.	0	9.28'
	8. They live in the center of town.	0	9.65'
	9. Do you have anything to eat?	0	7.19'
	10. I brush my teeth in the morning	0	9.51'
	1. I didn't turn off the stove in the kitchen	0	12.78'
	2. Our program was better than was expected.	0	11.63'
	3. Do you have anything to eat?	0	12.76'
	4. If I had a car I would drive to work	5	28.33'
	5. How far is Houston from here?	1	16.99'
	6. I brush my teeth in the morning.	0	7.36'

Respondent	The Sentences	Total Mistakes	Time Spent
Student 8	7. Does your husband have a boring job?	0	11.27'
	8. There are six of us at home.	1	15.75'
	9. Her legs felt weak as she climbed the stairs.	2	25.17'
	10. She liked the dark blue sweater the best.	3	18.82'
	1. Did you put the milk in the refrigerator?	0	14.01'
	2. Mike always goes to work by car.	0	14.07'
	3. She Liked the dark blue sweater the best	3	43.50'
	4. Our progress was better than was expected.	1	20.81'
	5. It will harm crops, animal and fish.	0	12.41'
	6. More than seven-hundred farm animals were also destroyed.	4	27.05'
Student 9	7. If I had a car I would drive to work.	3	41.21'
	8. How happy are you that John is coming?	3	18.18'
	9. I wonder which dog he said you chased.	1	23.61'
	10. My sister goes to work at eight o'clock.	0	17.99'
	1. Do you know where he lives?	0	7.78'
	2. How far is Houston from here?	1	8.73'
	3. We do this more for pleasure than for money.	3	25.00'
	4. Matt is studying to be a boat captain.	1	10.95'
	5. Jack does not need to sleep very much.	0	7.62'
	6. When are you completing the computer course?	3	14.82'
Student 10	7. The showing of the program seemed to impress people.	4	27.28'
	8. I knew who would come to the party.	3	15.53'
	9. I brush my teeth in the morning.	0	7.35'
	10. Can I have a cup of black tea please?	2	20.80'
	1. I am going to Europe the day I graduate.	4	18.58'
	2. You should see a play while in London.	4	23.51'
	3. He does not attend a high school.	0	9.22'
	4. What do you think of him?	0	6.31'
	5. He asked me how to use the program.	0	13.00'
	6. There is a dog and a cat here.	0	9.75'
Student 10	7. Forest fires begin every summer in the western United States.	5	30.70'
	8. Did you put the milk in the refrigerator?	0	7.05'
	9. Her legs felt weak as she climbed the stairs.	5	21.37'
	10. The scientists will carry out more digging next summer.	2	18.95'

There are 100 sentences that are used as the research data, taken from 10 students that we use as the respondents of this research. Those 100 sentences are going to be used as the parameter which indicates which kinds of sentences are

difficult for most of the students to construct to be grammatically accepted. We considered that sentences which spent more time and more mistakes are the sentences that difficult to construct. The easy sentence construction should spend no more than 15 seconds which has 1 tolerable mistake. In these categorizations, we employed 4 kinds of sentences; those are simple, compound, complex and compound complex sentences. According to those criteria, here we present the sentences that are difficult to construct by most of the students:

Table 2. Difficult Sentences

The Sentence	Sentence category	Time Spent	Total mistakes
1. <i>I hope that he comes tomorrow.</i>	Complex Sentence	26.20'	5
2. <i>It represents the special relationship between the circus animals and the human performers.</i>	Complex Sentence	46.21'	4
3. <i>Listen now as Dizzy Gillespie and his all star quintet play the song.</i>	Complex Sentence	39.69'	3
4. <i>Our program was better than was expected.</i>	Passive Simple Sentence	16.42'	2
5. <i>When are you completing the computer course?</i>	Interrogative Simple Sentence	18.58'	5
6. <i>Did you put the milk in the refrigerator?</i>	Interrogative Simple Sentence	22.74'	4
7. <i>We do this more for pleasure than for money.</i>	Comparative Simple Sentence	24.16'	4
8. <i>He asked me how to use the program.</i>	Indirect Simple Sentence	31.18'	4
9. <i>Soon after, music was added to his words.</i>	Passive Simple Sentence	16.53'	4
10. <i>How happy are you that John is coming?</i>	Interrogative Complex Sentence	26.33'	2
11. <i>When the snow melted, the flowers began to appear.</i>	Compound Sentence	19.46'	5
12. <i>He is more likely to go than to stay.</i>	Complex Sentence	20.12'	2
13. <i>If I had a car I would drive to work.</i>	Compound Sentence	35.83'	5
14. <i>She liked the dark blue sweater the best.</i>	Comparative Simple Sentence	25.50'	3
15. <i>How happy are you that John is coming?</i>	Interrogative Compound Sentence	21.66'	5
16. <i>He is considered the world's first music star.</i>	Complex Sentence	23.03'	2

The Sentence	Sentence category	Time Spent	Total mistakes
17. <i>How much money can you earn?</i>	Interrogative Simple Sentence	19.31'	5
18. <i>Jack does not need to sleep very much.</i>	Interrogative Simple Sentence	23.61'	3
19. <i>Her legs felt weak as she climbed the stairs.</i>	Complex Sentence	25.17'	2
20. <i>More than seven-hundred farm animals were also destroyed.</i>	Passive Simple Sentence	27.05'	4
21. <i>The showing of the program seemed to impress people.</i>	Complex Sentence	27.28'	4
22. <i>Can I have a cup of black tea please?</i>	Interrogative Simple Sentence	20.80'	2
23. <i>I am going to Europe the day I graduate.</i>	Compound Sentence	18.58'	4
24. <i>You should see a play while in London.</i>	Complex Sentence	23.51'	4
25. <i>Forest fires begin every summer in the western United States.</i>	Complex Sentence	30.70'	5

One of the problems indicated by the table above is that the students still get difficulties in constructing the interrogative simple sentence. The patterns on making interrogative sentences from Simple Present, Present Progressive and Modal Sentences are still the problems for most of the respondents. It gets more problematic whenever the students are expected to construct the Interrogative Compound Sentence as in '*How happy are you that John is coming?*' It stresses that they are still need repetition on practicing using this kind of sentence both oral and written. It is hoped that when the teacher conducts this kind of repetition, the students are able to making interrogative sentences spontaneously. Another problem raised from constructing the Simple Sentences is the Passive Voice and the Indirect Sentences as shown in '*More than seven-hundred farm animals were also destroyed*' and '*He asked me how to use the program*'. The different principles of those two sentence structure may be resulted on students' confused.

Conclusion

From the result of the game of *Sentence Master*, it can be concluded that most students are still get difficulty in making and forming the grammatically correct English sentence. The students found that English pattern is very much different with their L1 pattern. This concept has the same meaning with the hypothesis of Contrastive Analysis which stated that whenever LI patterns are so much different with the pattern of the language being learned, it has the meaning that the students should struggle a lot to master the L2.

This study has some points that are still unclear, such as the number of participants is limited to draw general conclusion. Do all the students have the

same experiences as the respondents have? It is expected that the future research employs more respondents and broader range of ages and education backgrounds. Another point to recommend is that the result of teacher's follow up through the repetition is required to reveal in the future research in order to reveal the effectiveness of this kind of research.

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STUDENT-WRITERS' CLAIMS IN HORTATORY ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS: AN APPRAISAL STUDY IN CONVENIENCE WRITING

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Abstract

Working on writing argumentative essay instructions has been practices in a non-formal language learning settings. Yet, its students' pursued claims are not fully explored as an evaluativion of how student-writers interact as conveying arguments with the readers. Investigating the linguistic resources on which they develop and evaluate these, two selected English Language essays were looked into regarding to exploitation of macrostructures in them. Subsequently, they were captured within the framework of appraisal theory as to emerge various trends relative to the employment of engagement resource types, combined with the other resources in confirming claims: graduation and attitudinal ones. It was pinpointed that the essays were low-graded notifying substantial numbers of monoglossic resources with low-considered attitudinal items. They failed to recognise other voices and alternative positions. Their construction of evaluative meanings provided feedbacks, enhancing classroom teachers' awareness of typical features in genre-based instructions.

Keywords: argumentative, hortatory, essays, appraisal theory, low-graded

Introduction

Writing an argumentative essay is a challenging task for any students, let alone in English. They are much expected to be aware of the precise functions of grammatical aspects but also of the typical features of such writing genre. Students with excellent command in syntactic structures and lexicon in English are possible to complete argumentative essays considered ineffective and inadequate relative to their persuasiveness and/or coherence organization noticed by numerous native instructors (Serevino, 1993a in Ho, 2011). That is the fact that argumentative genre is the one apt to be dialogic in nature and demanded a high level of interaction (Thompson, 2001). These demands are substantially ignored by instructors merely focusing on prescriptive grammar while at the same they do not adequately self-capitalize with "metafunctional eyes" so as to identify the strength and weakness of their writing, extending students' awareness of rhetoric and linguistic to construct a persuasive and objective in arguing a case (Promwinai, 2010). In a number of well-established language institutions, the practice of how to compose an argumentative essay, therefore, has been a solid and reliable endorsement regarding with student service excellence; In other words, argumentation comprises the prime text type in academic writing often examined by standardized English tests (TOEFL and IELTS) for scholarship grants or promotions. Yet, rare internal study to reflect year-practices of genre-based instructions is applied as an evaluative framework leading to the understanding of interactive construed stances the student-writers have made up. This study of interpersonal resources employed by students

has been a following one researched by a number of scholars to discern the success of argumentative writing completion (Wu, 2007; Promwinai, 2010; Jalilifar & Hemmati, 2013; Liu, 2013). However, it constituted typical settings prevalently conducive to the convenient writing in that it had a less than 10 students in the class cordially invited to have any time outside class writing conferences. Referring to the umbrella of Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) comprising three metafunctions – social functions of languages-(Halliday, 1994), this study merely focused two low-graded essays on interpersonal metafunction in which it has the clause as the core resources (graduation, attitude and engagement) for expressing meanings. It aimed to pinpoint, by employing appraisal theoretical framework, the tendency of the employment of engagement resources accompanied by the other two ones: graduation and attitude. The next part taps the precise theory employed and the particular essay genre studied.

Appraisal Theory and Hortatory Essays

It is argued that texts are negotiated so that making meanings with each others are construed; therefore, text is possibly deemed authentic products of social interaction (Eggins, 2005). In the forms of clauses, it is realized by three concurrent meaning kinds: *ideational* (experiential and logical processes in a text), *interpersonal* (writer's attitude and role relationship with readers), and *textual* (organizational and unfold text fashion) (Halliday, 1994). In particular, it is further explained that the interpersonal metafunction is the participatory function of language in which the speaker's meaning potential as "an intruder" is represented making use of the language in both "expressing his own attitudes and judgments and looking for influencing the attitudes and behaviors of others" (Halliday, 1978). Appraisal theory initially developed by Martin (2000) caters a precise framework for seeking the interpersonal meanings beyond clauses. According to Martin & White (2005), appraisal expressed by lexical choices is located as an interpersonal system at the level of discourse semantics.

Furthermore, as analyzing a text, it needs to investigate appraisal (Thompson, 2004). Referring to Martin & White (2005) and Martin & Rose (2007), three interacting domains are prevalent in appraisal resources, namely *graduation*, *attitude* and *engagement*. Graduation is concerned with the strength of feeling: adjusting the degree of evaluation (Force) and adjusting the degree of boundaries (Focus). Attitude is concerned with evaluation types: feelings (Affect), judgment of behavior (Judgment): and evaluation of things (Appreciation) (Martin & White, 2005). The affect is further split into *In/security*, *Dis/satisfaction*, *Dis/Inclination*, *Un/Happiness*. Judgment values in which we evaluate people and their behavior in a negative or positive way are split into social esteem and social sanction. Engagement is concerned with positioning the writer regarding with the value position being put forward and regarding with the potential responses to that value. Its diverse resources are used by the writer to adjust and negotiate the arguability of utterances. This can be monogloss and heterogloss. Monoglossic utterances simply voice self-evident propositions, the writer's only belief, with no acknowledgment with the multiple voices (White 2008b in Promwinai, 2010).

On the other hand, heteroglossic ones, extended to projection, modality and concession, confirm that his/her own view is just multiple prevalent views whose tone is available for dialogic alternatives (ibid). Projection, later, is a grammatical resources for attributing words and ideas to the write's source so that he/she explicitly assigns the responsibility of opinions to sources deriving from the expert of the field (Martin & Rose, 2007). Subsequently, modality setting up a semantic space between "yes" or "no" is either employed to argue about probability or frequency of proposition (modalisation) or to argue about the obligation or inclination of proposals (modulation) (Eggins, 2004). Halliday (1994) proposes four types of modality, namely usuality, probability, obligation

and inclination. Eventually, concession, a resource for counter-expectancy, is a feasible stance to adopt as acknowledging and countering possible alternative propositions/views for an inexperienced writer (Wu, 2007). Thus, such concessive conjunctions as *but, even if, although, however, in fact, still, even, indeed* are noticeably found in the writer's utterances.

In line with argument genres, Coffin (2004) proposes there are four argument genres based on the writer's aims as well his/her argument about the world, that is analytical exposition genre, hortatory exposition genre, analytical discussion genre and hortatory discussion genre. The term "analytical" is differed from "hortatory" in that the earlier is an exposition persuading the readers that the thesis is well formulated, and the latter is an exposition persuading the reader to carry out as the thesis recommends (Martin, 1985 in Promwinai, 2010).

Moreover, socially "exposition "genre aims to persuade the reader's to a certain point of view where the social goal of a discussion is to hold up two or more points of view, furthermore argue for one point over the others. Consequently, the four arguments comprise divergent stages in accordance with their purposes. In a similar vein, the *hortatory exposition* has its own goal to put forward a point of view and recommend a course action as well as denotes a typical staging: Thesis (Recommendation) + argument plus evidence + (counterargument plus evidence) + (reinforcement of thesis) + recommendation (Coffin, 2004, p.236). In details Hyland (1990) presents explicit rhetorical structures for an argumentative essay together with its specific elements: (1) Thesis makes up (gambit), (information), proposition, (evaluation) and (marker); (2) Argument comprises marker, (restatement), claim and support; (3) Conclusion owns (marker), consolidation, (affirmation) and (close). In SFL tradition, thesis stage is labeled "elaboration" phase, the optional marker in the stages is termed the "preview" phase, and an obligatory marker in argument stage is referred to the "hyperclaim". Appraisal theory and a particular genre of argument in an essay, therefore, are more or less adequately elaborated.

Method

Ten participants in High Intermediate 4, having been instructed on how to prepare a seven paragraph argumentative essay - hortatory exposition - in midst of completing the course book as well as invited to have post writing conference outside at any convenient time, submitted their paper. Only two essays were selected on the basis of instructor's recommendation: these were the best one in his views. Later, they were rated employing a scale from a combined assessment version: the composition Profile consisting content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics (Jacobs et al., 1981) and the Organization Plan for an Argument comprising and replacing the previous version, namely "Introduction, presentation, of writer position, summary of opposing views, response to opposing views and conclusion (Ramage, et al., 2012). Besides, the replaced 'content category' was added "audience awareness" as a part of it. The total score for the highest proficiency is 100 and the lowest is 34. To clear it up, the essays are categorized high graded if they are 63 or higher.

Conversely, those graded below 62 belong to low graded. Selected essays titled *Stay away from Botox* and *Tarung Derajat for Life* were graded by three experienced and qualified lecturers proven from their academic backgrounds (Masters degree in English Education) and with minimum five year teaching experiences in teaching hortatory exposition argumentative essays in a full-fledged and accredited English courses from three different universities lecturing academic writing: argumentative essays. Their scores were combined and divided by three. Beforehand, they were handed in the combined

assessment version just a reminder that they employed the same combined one. Within the framework of appraisal theory, then, the researcher needs to be aware of three as reading and analyzing the data: *Reading position, top-down or bottom-up analysis* and *double-coding analysis* (Martin & White, 2005). In this study, the researcher took a compliant reading position as he shares cultural likeness and hold many ideational values with the student-writers as conducted in the previous studies as well (Liu & Thompson; 2013; Jallilifar & Hemmati, 2013). Furthermore, the researcher approved of employing the bottom-up analysis in which it begins with realizations and pursuing back to the 'mood' of the text (ibid). Eventually, the researcher should be aware of double coding, particularly in attitudinal analysis. It is argued that double-coding is permitted as attitudinal items are semantically interconnected at times, and they are sometimes simultaneously interpreted in two divergent ways (Martin & Rose, 2003).

Findings and Discussion

Tapping the aims of the research, it was figured out that the scores of the two selected essays were 56, meaning that they were categorized into low-graded essays abbreviated LGEs employing the purposefully combined essay assessments.

Table 1: Deployment of Appraisal Categories in Low-Graded Essays

LGEs	Attitude			Engagement		Graduation		Total
	Affect	Judgment	Appreciation	Heterogloss	Monogloss	Force	Focus	
LEGs 1	8	19	12	18	22	26	13	118
LEGs 2	11	21	15	19	29	34	11	140
Total	19	40	27	37	51	60	24	

The above table depicted general description of interpersonal resources in which they were exposed in a number of appraisal categories: attitude, engagement and graduation. Both student-writers employed the sub-category of attitude, judgment, more than the other two subcategories (Affect & Appreciation), in line with the study conducted by Jallilifar & Hemmati (2013). Likewise, the number of sub-category of graduation, force, was also used by the student-writers more than that of focus. This corresponds to the research of Jallilifar & Hemmati on low-graded essays of Kurdish Undergraduate Students (ibid). In terms of how student-writers interacted with the readers as well as consider the potential alternative views, it was the fact that monoglossic utterances were still more dominant than heteroglossic ones. Such typical characteristics of novice writers are short of awareness to take into account alternative opinions that the readers. As a matter of fact, they simply tend to self-claim, rather ignoring to acknowledge dialogic utterances to see the potential views from audiences (White 2008b in Promwinai, 2010). The findings of this appraisal category were compatible with other studies (Wu, 2007; Jallilifar & Hemmati 2013).

In the depth analysis of the sub-category of attitude: affect, it was notified that these LGE made use of dis/inclination and un/happiness to back up the stated thesis more preponderantly than In/Security and Dis/Satisfaction: Using Botox on face gives some negative effects and Joining Tarung Derajat has some benefits. The following were the utterances of sub-categories of affect: (1). *Botox can damage (affect > - security) body organs*; (2) *Botox can make addicted (affect > - security)*; (3) *Botox wastes (affect > - inclination) people's money*; (4) *Joining Tarung Darajat makes you used to reacting fast > + inclination*; (5) *It increases (affect > + happiness) health, mental and physical*; (6) *it adds (affect > + happiness) your income*. The preponderance of the first two sub-category effect (Inclination and happiness) were found dominant in the study carried out by Jallilifar & Hemmati (2013). Later, the expressed affectual items were articulated in the

such verbs as *damage, make, increases, adds, wastes* in which contrary to the fact the nominalized items were presented in a foregrounded way encountered in High Graded Essays (Lee, 2008; Liu, 2013; Jalilifar & Hemmati, 2013). The other two sub-categories of affect: judgment and appreciation, it was found out that both social esteem and social sanction values were prevalent in judgment. Yet, the earlier ones were more preferable than the latter ones. Both essays, though, valued in-animate/non-human in which the judgment were employed to: *Botox* and *Tatung Arafat*. Afterwards, the student-writers highlighted the employment of appreciation as things which were worthwhile or worthless. In fact, the significant appreciation was more frequent in number in that the encoded valuations were explicitly construed in the forms of advantages and disadvantages. Such findings were justified that the appreciation of valuations were preponderantly existing stemming from the level of students' proficiency (Lee, 2008).

Taking into account of the number of monoglossic resources deriving from the table, it was inferred that the student-writers availed less room for other voices as well as alternative positions. In the few times text analysis of heteroglossic resources, the projection was of no prevalence at all in that the student-writers did not cite any resources as external voice or extra-vocalizing so as to assign the responsibility for opinions to academic experts (Martin & Rose, 2003). Like in the study of Liu (2013), these low graded essays employed profound numbers of pronoun item, thus much possibly that self-citation to get an authorial self taking responsibility about the text was prompted. The other two sub-types of heterogloss, namely modality and concession were noticed and came up in following examples: (1) *They can do anything to be more beautiful like famous actresses;* (2) *If they do not use botox, they can express their feelings;* (3) *For example men may be want to have six pack body...;* (4) *May be you are bored with teaching, you can try to join the competition to show your skills.* The modality used was monotonous in syntactic structures as the student-writers was short of the repertoire of expressions revealing the degree of "yes" or "No" position. They still consider the chance of introducing additional voices and possibility as cited by Martin & Rose (2007) arguing that modality opens a space for negotiation, inviting the circulation of views surrounding the case.

To anticipate readers' certain expectations, the student-writers barely did as revealed in their written in the essays. Only one were exemplified: (1) *The second benefit of joining Tarung Darajat is it increases health...In fact, people want to have a nice body;* They failed to respond to what the other voices or alternatives were availed by the readers/audiences. Concerning the use of concessions, they put in a particular paragraph in which they refuted in the half section of it. The other ones were very rare if not considered total ignorance to anticipate divergent readers' expectations. The eventual finding of the graduation was that these low graded essays did exploit grading resources in spite of rarely intergraded with the attitudinal resources. The state was opposite to the findings in the previous study (Liu, 2013; Jalilifar & Hemmati, 2013). In general, what was found on this research substantially corresponded with the earlier one in the same subject.

Conclusion

This study attempted to explore how the student writers whose essays were graded low deployed the resources of appraisal, then figured by appraisal framework, in argumentative essays, hortatory exposition. Analysis of Low graded Essays is necessary to find out the favored appraisal uses compared to the previous study of High Graded Essay apt resources. The precise assessment employed to grade an argumentative essays intentionally integrated aspects on how the (student)-writers interacted with the audience

and claimed their arguments. As revealed in findings, the employment of monogloss was preponderantly prevalent so that self-citing was relied upon, arguably weak. Subsequently, considering the other alternative voices as well as anticipating the readers' expectation was rare in numbers. The grading values and attitudinal resources noticed in low graded essays were not profoundly connected. Despite its limit to two essays in non-formal academic context, it uncovered then the real practices of appraisal resources employment as an academic introspection of deployment" metafunctional" eyes that the instructors have to undertake.

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The Effectiveness of Grammar Tutoring Program Based on Students' Feedback Batch 2016 ELESP

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Abstract

In some ELESP speaking and writing classes, many students failed to meet a standard of good grammar & pronunciation. Therefore, two kinds of tutoring program were held namely grammar tutorial and pronunciation tutorial to improve students' skill. Those programs have run for about six months, but some people questioned whether those programs were effective or not. As an effort in dealing with that phenomenon, this paper will discuss the effectiveness of grammar tutorial as one of the programs. The data were mainly taken from observation, interview, and questionnaire, and were presented qualitatively. In addition to that, this paper also shows some good practices that can be applied in the future tutoring programs. Based on the result of the analysis, grammar tutorial was effective due to the fact that 84% of the students agreed that this program helped them to improve their skill and to understand more about the grammar materials.

Keywords: effectiveness, grammar tutoring program, students' feedback

Introduction

Many ways have been done to make students understand the materials that have been given in class such as having interactive multimedia for teaching (Astuti, et al., 2018), having a literary work as a learning material (Mulatsih, 2018), developing problem-based learning (Isrokijah, 2016), implementing moodle-based learning (Wulandari, 2016), conducting a game session (Kapp, 2012), implementing reflective learning (Brockbank & McGill, 2007), finding students' motivation (Skinner & Belmont, 1993), having additional time for service learning (Sax, 1997) , conducting a tutoring program (Hock, et al., 2001), joining peer review or peer learning program (Chism, 1999), and etc. As one of the efforts in reaching the goal, peer teaching or peer learning has also been started by many practitioners for about four centuries. Osguthorpe and Scruggs (1986) proposed the effective method to improve handicapped students learning ability by having students as tutors in class. For a big class, peer instruction was proposed so that every student took part in the learning process (Crouch et al. 2007).

Tutoring program could bring many benefits and disadvantages. Harper (2016) conducted a research about tutoring program which involved 91 children from grade one until grade eight. This tutoring program was conducted in small group. Statistic data showed that there was a significant improvement of students' skill in reading, spelling and counting. However, there was no progress in understanding

sentences. Different from Harper, Wu (2016) analyzed the labeling system in tutorial program toward learning result and students' motivation. Although tutoring program increased students' self-efficacy and confidence, it turned out that the labeling system did not improve students' understanding. There were some benefits of conducting tutoring program, but some practitioners argued that it could not reach the best level of students' understanding. Although tutoring programs have been done for long time, some people still underestimated the effectiveness of these programs.

Not only did some researchers claim that the tutoring program was not effective, some lecturers of ELESF Sanata Dharma University also thought the same after the implementation of the first tutoring programs. The tutoring programs of ELESF (grammar and pronunciation) itself started in the odd semester 2016. These programs were directed due to the fact that many students made some mistakes in writing and speaking English. For some cases, they did not even meet the minimum requirements of a good sentence. Some words were also mispronounced. This problem also sustained to the draft and defense of an undergraduate thesis.

As stated before that after the first period of grammar tutoring program, some lecturers said that this program still did not help students a lot and it was not effective, it was crucial to know more from students' perspective about the effectiveness of the program due to the fact that they were the participants who experienced this program. Considering that matter, this paper will answer two main questions: to what extent does grammar tutoring program help students? And what are the positive and negative tutees' feedback that can be considered for future tutoring program?

Method

The concept of this tutoring program was adapted from King's peer teaching that was written in 2002 and O'Donnel's peer learning that was written in 2014. King proposed that the peer teaching consisted of a group of students with a tutor who would help their difficulties. The importance lied in these several aspects such as cognitive, interaction, knowledge development, context and its integration. Not only King who had a research in relation to peer teaching, some previous researches also dealt with tutoring program (Angelova, 2006; Briggs, 2013; Narayan, 2016; Ander, et al., 2016; Colvin, 2007). While Colvin (2007) argued that there was a lack of social awareness in peer tutoring that could lead to misunderstanding and power struggle between tutor and tutee, other researchers Angelova (2006); Briggs (2013); Narayan (2016); Ander, et al. (2016); tended to still conduct the peer teaching or tutoring program due to its' benefits. Ander, et al., (2016) had a randomized controlled trial of the Match/SAGA tutorial in Chicago. Their tutorial program has increased students' math grade and decreased the chance of failing in their math course as stated below.

The tutorials improved math grades by 0.58 points on a 1–4 point scale, a sizable gain compared to the average math GPA among the control group of 1.77 (or essentially a C minus average). We also found that the tutorials cut in half the chance that students failed their math course (Ander et al., 2016, p. 10).

Briggs (2013) also showed the improvement of students' competence including some ways for conducting peer teaching. Moreover, two researches from Angelova and Narayan proposed some strategies and factors that could lead to an effective tutoring program. Angelova (2006) showed some learning strategies for dual language learners in an English-Spanish peer teaching class. They were repetition, scaffolding with cues, codeswitching, invented spelling, use of formulaic speech, and non-verbal communication. Narayan (2016) underlined some factors that affected the effectiveness of peer mentoring. There were mentoring session, maintaining mentees, mentor time table, room allocation, mentor workstation, mentor attitude, attributes, role, previous mentoring experience, communication with support staff and mentor (p. 9). But, none of those previous researches tried to gather the effectiveness of tutoring program based on students' perspective. Thus, this paper would reveal that topic based on students' feedback.

Findings and Discussion

This qualitative research began with pre-test for measuring students' basic competence of grammar. During the program, there were some observation steps for the method of tutoring. The questionnaire was distributed in the last meeting of the program and it mainly asked whether tutoring program has helped students or not based on the Likert scale from one to four. Because of the fact that many students did not attend the program continuously; the questionnaire was distributed to those students who mostly came to the tutoring program. There were 45 students who continuously took part in the program. The written feedback for better improvement was also provided in the questionnaire sheet. After analyzing the result of the questionnaire, there was an interview session with some students who came regularly to the grammar tutoring program.

The Implementation of Tutorial Program

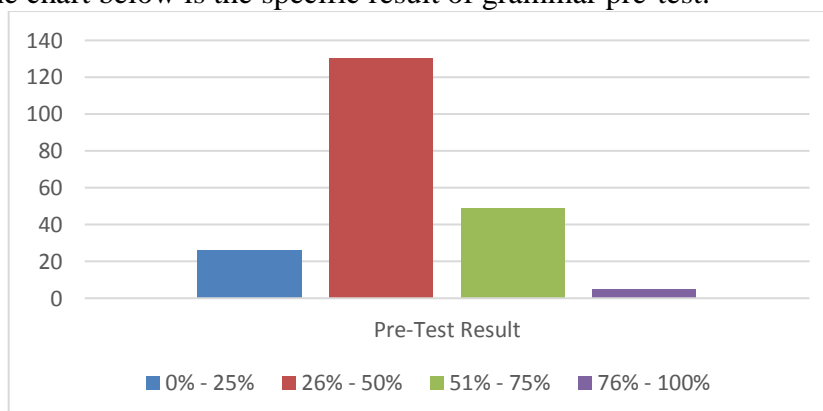
Generally, the concept of tutoring involves at least two learners (one who has good ability for understanding the given knowledge and the other one who has less ability) who spend their time to study together. The one who has better competence will help the other one so that the tutee can understand the materials well. Technically, grammar tutoring program was done with 24 tutors from selective students from batch 2013 & 2014. Six lecturers took part in the process. There were three steps of selection: administration selection, written test, and interview test. In the administration selection, the candidate should have at least 3.5 for his GPA and A score for all grammar subjects. The written test was TOEFL test, and the interview dealt with the candidate's motivation, tutoring or working experience, and teaching method.

The students who joined this program were from batch 2016 who got B, C, D, E, F score and from batch 2015 who got C, D, E, F score in the grammar subject. This program was considered as an additional class of grammar subject. Thus, this

program was compulsory for those students. There were six classes and each of them consisted of 12 students with two tutors. One tutor helped six students. This program was regularly held on Saturdays at 09.00 - 10.00 for 13 meetings. Before this program started, there was a briefing for the tutors. During the process of this program, there was a guidance process from the coordinator of this program.

Students' feedback toward the implementation of tutorial program

This section is the compilation among six parts, namely the result of pre-test as the background of students' competence level, the result of observation, result of questionnaire, interview, positive feedback and weaknesses of grammar tutoring program based on tutees' feedback. Due to the goal of this research that is the effectiveness of grammar tutoring program based on tutees' feedback, this paper does not provide the comparison between pre-test and post-test results. The consideration deals with many interventions from other subjects that increased students' ability. There were structure, speaking, listening, writing, and pronunciation classes that also distributed toward students' competence of understanding English. In conclusion, the measurement of the post test would not be objective due to the fact that there was not only tutoring program held at that time. The chart below is the specific result of grammar pre-test.

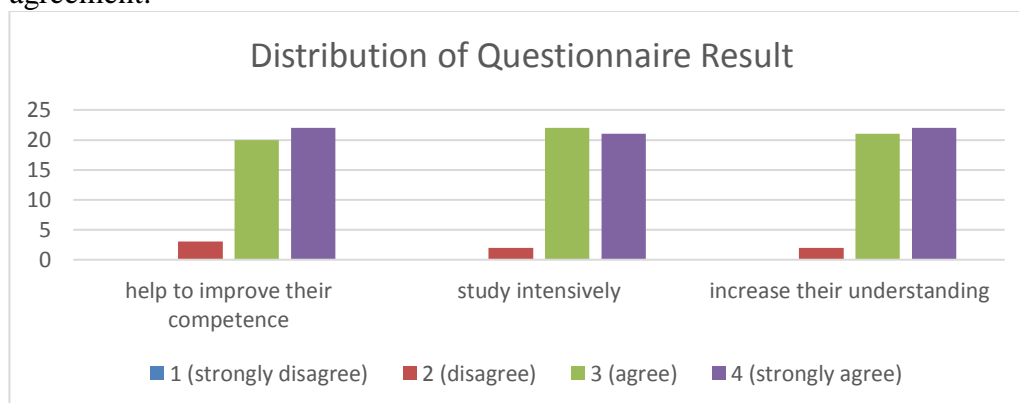


The chart above showed that mainly students' competence was under 51%. The data confirmed that most students needed more effort to increase their competence to gain a better result. The mean of the pre-test result was 43.56% (17.4265 correct numbers out of 40 numbers). This was also the strong reason of conducting grammar tutoring program.

Based on observation in tutoring classes, some tutors applied open discussion, only two tutors had a lecturing method. The discussion led to dynamic and lively atmosphere while the lecturing with so many questions to be asked dominantly by tutors made an intense class. For the communication, tutors spoke Bahasa Indonesia to explain grammar materials. Most students asked question to tutors and tutors also asked whether students had a difficulty in certain grammar topic or not. Students also gave feedback that there should be some fun activities during the tutoring program; such as games, tips and tricks session for students of ELESP. The tutoring method should vary in at least three meetings. Most of the tutoring classes did some exercises from a specific grammar book that was also used in the lecturers' classes. First, students did those exercises individually then they might ask the difficulty that they faced if their answer was incorrect. Some students did not come on time

and there were some technical problems, such as the availability of some rooms, the man who was in charge for opening the room door was late, and some rooms were in the third floor. Those were the causes why some students delivered their opinion about the consistency of the starting time.

From the questionnaire sheet that used Likert scale one to four (1 is for those who strongly disagreed, 2 is disagreed, 3 is agreed and 4 is for those who strongly agreed), most students agreed that grammar tutoring program has helped them to improve their competence, to study intensively, to understand about grammar more. The mean of their agreement that the program has improved their competence was 3.373611 (84.34%), the program has given them a chance for studying intensively was 3.413889 (85.34%), and the program has made them understand more about grammar was 3.397222 (84.93%). Below is the chart of the distribution of their agreement.



From the data above, none of the students strongly disagreed that grammar tutoring program did not help them for their understanding and competence. There were only three who disagreed that this program helped them to increase their competence. Two participants disagreed that this tutoring program made them study intensively and increased their understanding. It means that the result of the questionnaire tends to reflect the positive feedback from the students. Students still wanted the grammar tutoring program to be continued.

From the interview session, all interviewees said that this program was effective, even one interviewee confidently said that this program was very effective. The effectiveness of grammar tutoring program was seen from different reasons. First, it increased students' understanding about grammar. Second, tutors helped students in facing their personal difficulties when they studied at home and when they did not understand grammar materials in class by having a discussion session. Third, tutors gave similar exercise to the one in the class and guided students intensively by showing the way on how students should do it and sometimes the tutors' way was more easily understood. Below is one of the transcriptions.

“When I had a difficulty about grammar material, I could ask the tutor and tutor helped me to face and solve it. I could understand more quickly. Discussion was the good practice of this program. But, it would be better if the discussion forum had less student no more than six students.

Too many students made some could not focus. So I suggest that there should be additional number of tutors.”

Table 1. The Summary of Students’ Positive Feedback

Result of observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion was a good practice • Students actively asked some questions
Result from questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 84.34% students agreed that this program increased their competence • 85.34% students agreed that they could study intensively during this tutoring program • 84.93% more understood grammar materials
Result of interview	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The program was effective • It increased students’ understanding • It helped students in facing their individual difficulty • There was an intense guidance

Beside positive feedback, students also delivered some suggestions during interview process. They were about additional time, number of tutors, and the need of strict regulation because some students did not come in time.

“Although this program is compulsory one, some students came late and sometimes they only signed three times out of thirteen.”

The result of the interview was the same with the written feedback on questionnaire sheet. Students might write their opinion freely. Five students marked that grammar tutoring program should be continued in the following semester, and three students wrote that this program helped them to study again the materials that had been given in the grammar class. The implementation was good based on six students’ written feedbacks.

Furthermore, they also added the weaknesses of this program that needed to be improved and some suggestions. Seven students wrote that the time allotment could be extended into one and a half hours. An hour was not enough to discuss the materials deeply for them. In this case, there were two students who explicitly wrote that each material should be discussed more deeply. They also proposed that the day of grammar tutoring program should not be on Saturdays. Weekdays were efficient enough since some of them lived far away from campus, and they needed to go to campus on Saturdays only for tutoring program. On the weekend, some wanted to go to their hometown, and some argued that they needed to spend their time hanging out with their friends. There were nine students who claimed that the day of the tutoring program needed to be changed. No wonder that a student wrote the decreasing of the number of students who came to tutoring program. One of them also suggested that there should be additional tutors so he could study in smaller group. Only one student thought that the program started too early in the morning.

Conclusion

Basically, students showed their good appreciation for grammar tutoring program. This result is taken from the analysis of questionnaire, students’ written feedback and interview. These are the some good points of conducting a grammar

tutoring program: students could tell and discuss their difficulty in the grammar subject with their tutor, students agreed that the program helped them to increase their competence and understanding, students agreed that they studied intensively during the program. However, there were some suggestions from students to make next tutoring program run better such as increasing the number of tutors, extending the time duration for tutoring, having a strict regulation, avoiding Saturday as tutoring day and having a smaller group discussion. In a nutshell, ELESF grammar tutoring program was effective based on students' opinion, and they needed it in the following semester too.

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THE ROLE OF LOCAL CULTURE IN ENGLISH SPEAKING CLASSES

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Abstract

This paper aims at finding out a model or a concrete picture of the role of local culture in intercultural communication teaching embedded in English speaking classes. Specifically, this paper studied the first-year-students' studying speaking in English Department of Universitas Negeri Semarang and lecturers lecturing speaking lesson in the same university. The study design, method, and approach implemented in this study, respectively, were case study, qualitative, and interdisciplinary. In addition, data were collected through observation, interview, and documentation study, and were validated by using triangulation technique. The collected data were analyzed using interactive model, comprising data reduction, data presentation, and verification. Results showed that the knowledge of culture, both native and foreign one, was embedded in teaching speaking classes of first-year-students in Universitas Negeri Semarang. The local culture itself served as benchmark and departing point of teaching intercultural communication to students. By acting as a benchmark, local culture gave students a standard of what considered acceptable and not acceptable both in native and foreign culture. While as a departing point, local culture served as the initial knowledge of students before getting to understand the concept of international communication further. For teaching speaking in general, local culture which was used as a ground to introduce intercultural communication would be beneficial for teachers to teach polite oral English communication which was acceptable for speakers coming from various nations.

Keywords: intercultural communication, local culture, speaking

Introduction

English in modern era focuses its usage on the issue of English as a Lingua Franca (EFL) where English is seen as the international language for communication. Although England, the United States, or Australia are usually used as the benchmark of any English test or the development of English language in general, however, the goal of teaching English is now focusing on how to use the English politely, instead of using the proper English grammar or learning to apply the dialect. Seidlhofer (2011) mentioned that ELF is a communication tool used by people who are not using English as their native language, but more as the language to bridge communication between people who need to communicate or interact with other people with different cultures and languages. In a simpler definition, English

as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is a term referred to a communication tool between people from various language background (Jenkins, 2003).

In its implementation, ELF turns out to be more than just how to use the language. It also means using the language with proper knowledge and culture mastery. Having a perfect ability in mastering the vocabulary and grammar in English without the support of the ability in interpreting and mediating culture gap between speakers will become a problem in intercultural communication (Neff & Rucynski Jr., 2013). Even, the mistakes in grammar or structure of English is considered understandable, while the mistakes in choosing wrong topic or using inappropriate diction and topic of conversation can be considered as rude (Bardovi-Harlig, 1991; Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004).

From this issue, therefore, the trend of English teaching in modern era tends to discuss about problems related to culture gap mediation in English intercultural communication. The culture mediation in English communication is known as Cross Cultural Communication or Intercultural Communication. Some experts differ the meaning of each term to cross-cultural which tends to be defined as cultural learning between nation where two or more different cultures are compared, while the intercultural underlines the interaction between people who have different cultural background (Baker, 2012; Koester & Lustig, 2015). The ambiguity between the definitions let some other researchers to treat the terms in similar way (see Gu, Patkin, & Kirkpatrick, 2014; Neff & Rucynski Jr., 2013). For this research purposes, I will tread cross-cultural and intercultural communication in similar way, considering that both terms have the definition that communication happens as the result of an interaction between speakers with different language and culture. Therefore, in this study, the interaction will be referred as Intercultural Communication (Nayono, 2013 & Rudianto, dkk., 2015).

Supporting the previous definition by experts was Hopson, et al. (2012) who stated that cross-cultural or intercultural communication has to be built simultaneously with mutual benefit, adaptive, understanding, interactive, dependable, and supported by all lecturers. Surely, to establish the ideal situation just like what is hoped by previous experts in the field of intercultural communication is not easy. In its relation to this, in teaching and learning English, initiative of the lecturers is needed in teaching the theory on how to mediate cultures in intercultural communication. Mediating the culture is a big challenge to the teacher, lecturer, or practitioner in English Language Teaching, specifically for the teachers who teach English in EFL country where English is taught as foreign language, like in Indonesia. The condition where the class is mostly occupied by local learners are the challenge for the lecturers since the source of information related to the culture of target language is considerably limited. Whereas, to support the teaching of intercultural communication needs material input both from local and target culture.

In addition to the intercultural communication which becomes the center of the present research, the term is actually understood as the transfer of language between different language and culture. The term Intercultural communication also refers to the communication between people from different ethnic, social, and culture, or in other words, it is the conversation between the minority and dominant cultures

(Arent, 2009). Culture in English is distinguished between small 'c' and big 'C'. Capital C in culture means covers the general culture, like, music or literary works, while small 'c' means the discussion of communication norms between speakers (Gill dan Čaňková, 2002). In oral English speaking classes in Indonesia, the norms tend to learn about the native user of English culture's norm. Therefore, in this study, Intercultural communication means the learning of cultures as a result of the meeting of two different cultures or more during the conversation takes place.

In teaching and learning English the understanding of intercultural communication reflects an overview that a learner of English as a Foreign Language has to have the knowledge of the local culture as well as the native one (Kramsch, 1993). In other words, The learning of intercultural communication of a language is defined as a way to develop the ability of a learner to negotiate meanings behind a language or culture to face the multicultural world (Ho, 2009). More specifically, the aim of learning that is containing and teaching the knowledge of intercultural communication is used to sharpen the knowledge and understanding of a learner towards the way of communicating and negotiating cultures between speakers from different cultures. This attempt is done by helping learners to be aware in understanding every forms, implementation, and limitations of culture in intercultural communication. The most important also is to teach the learners to bring the understanding to the real English communication between culture in a flexible and purposive way (Baker, 2012).

In addition to this is the local culture itself. From the previous definition, we can infer that the intercultural communication is the ability which is taught in order to develop the relationship between cultures which is reciprocal between the native and foreign user of English (Chi & Suthers, 2015). Therefore, local culture gives more contribution towards the knowledge of custom and norms as well as knowledge for the mediation of cultures in teaching the language (Lin, et al., 2002). Here, McKay (2002) also delivers that the teaching of local cultures to the English classroom teaching can improve the knowledge of learners which later will be useful in practising intercultural communication.

Canagarajah (2006) in Hopson, et al. (2012) in his research about norms in intercultural communication delivers that most of the research in English gives more emphasis on the implementation of the classroom teaching, i.e. the teaching of cultures, the materials, textbooks, as well as the teaching techniques. There were quite little research explaining more about how to negotiate local cultures in English teaching (Canagarajah, 2006 in Hopson, et al., 2012). It means, the local culture influences the intercultural communication since the knowledge of local cultures will be useful in oral culture negotiation. This is supported by Barker (2012) which delivered that local culture is one of the important supporting component in the implementation of intercultural communication teaching in the classroom because, if it is used for communication, the knowledge of culture may reveal the differences between cultures and taboos in different cultures that may support the process of negotiation formation between two foreign speakers.

Generally, about the integration of culture in teaching English in ELT, Neff & Rucynski (2013) had previously learned that the role of culture in teaching English is crucial. Previous study had been done researching about Japanese student who

studies English in one of the university in Japan. It was found out that the communication misunderstanding between native speaker and the Japanese student happened because the ability of English had by the students is not supported by the mastery of culture had by the students. To overcome this, Neff & Rucynski had attempted to develop some detailed and completed teaching activities, with roleplay as the teaching technique. It was claimed that it was succesful to help students to master the culture contained in the language.

Another previous study by Zeff (2016) studied about the teaching strategy of intercultural teaching in speaking classes, which specifically learns about greetings. In this study, the researcher asked the students to create a journal which told about the cultural gap in greetings which the students got both directly and from television. He also further explained about contextual assignemnt he gave to the students which would give the opportunity for the students to do problem solving. Usually the assignment is given in role play, so the students can act as if they came from different countries and tried to have and bridge communication between cultures.

In Indonesia, the research about culture in teaching English had been done by Kirkpatrick (2015) by doing collaboration research with some researchers in Indonesia which specifically studied about English textbook used in some schools in Indonesia. Results show that English textbook in Indonesia focuses on showing and introducing Indonesia local cultures. However, how the local culture differs with the native cultures and how it is similar hasnot been discussed, let alone the way to bridge the cultural gap. A suggestion was derived from the Kirkpatrick's research telling that the factor of English lecturer or teacher is important. Teachers who have the spirit of pluralism and sensitively open with cultures are needed to teach culture in ELT specifically in oral English.

Eventhough, some previous study had already attempted to learn the teaching of cultures embedded in oral English teaching, however, the role of local cultures in the classroom itself had never been studied before. Therefore, the aim of the present study is to find out how the local culture take part in the teaching of speking skill in the English Department of Universitas Negeri Semarang. Specifically, what is the role of local culture teaching in teaching speaking in this university.

Method

The Research Approach

The research implements the interdisciplinary approach, combining the knowledge between the ability of using oral English and the knowledge of intercultural communication. Method used is qualitative which naturally observes people and link it to the environment where they live, the interaction between people, and the interpretation they have to the world (Nasution, 1996).

The Research Design

This study employs the case study as its research design. The aim of the case study is to gain the detailed result in its relation to a specific case and relates it to the theory that has been existed before and also the results cannot be generalized (Bryman, 2012). Here, we specifically employed the intrinsic case study. It is chosen since the researcher wants to understand the case deeper.

Location and Target of the Study

The research site in this study is in the English Department of Faculty of Languages and Arts of Universitas Negeri Semarang. The target is specifically about knowledge of local culture and its role in teaching Intercultural communication in English Speaking Classes by using previous theories by McKay (2002) and Baker (2012).

Data Collection Technique

The data collection technique uses in this study is observation, interview, and documentation study. Observation was done during the classroom teaching was held. While, the interview was given to 6 key informants and 9 supported informants. The 6 key informants were 3 lecturers and 3 students decided by the researcher based on the background of each subject. The three lecturers have different teaching experience duration. Informant 1 has been teaching more than 10 years old, the second informant has been teaching for 5 to 10 years old, and the last has been teaching for less than 5 years. While the students also have different criteria. Student 1 is a freshman who never teach any English to any students. Student 2 is a freshman but has been having the teaching experience from private teaching, and student 4 who has been given the international communication teaching for almost a year. While, the supportive informants are selected randomly.

Data Validation Technique

The data validation technique implemented here is triangulation which was explained by Denzin and Lincoln (2000) as a set of heuristic tool for researchers. The data triangulation comprises the source data triangulation based on previous claim from the researcher, researcher triangulation which learned from previous researchers, theory triangulation which studies the research result based on previous theory delivered by experts, and methodology triangulation which uses various method to study a single problem.

The Data Analysis Technique

The data analysis technique in this research implements the data analysis technique by Nasution (1996) by analyzing the natural learning phenomena. It is also in line with Miles and Huberman (1992) which uses the interactive model comprising data reduction, data presentation, and verification.

Findings and Discussion

From the observation and interview results, the study found that both the lecturers and students have already had the same views about the role of local cultures in English speaking classes in Universitas Negeri Semarang. Both of them agree that local cultures should exist to provide them with an understanding before they are asked to learn how to mediate cultures. Both agree that although the local culture teaching is significant, however, all lecturers do not teach the local culture explicitly but implicitly. The statement is also agreed by the students. The implicit teaching of local cultures is also affected by the availability of the textbook which mainly provides the students with the knowledge of target culture, i.e. formal and informal speech, expression, gesture, etc. While discussing about the target culture, then local culture teaching is given implicitly as the comparative variable, so the discussion can appear in the classroom.

The challenge of the local culture teaching in the classroom faced by the lecturer is more to the difficulties in defining whose local culture they need to teach in the classroom. Having different island and places, Indonesia also has different cultures with different norms attached to it. What is considered polite in one island or place in Indonesia is considered rude for someone else living outside the region, let alone the norms of culture in the world. This problem is then mediated by the decision of acknowledging the cultures or norms which are followed or obeyed by most of the students in the classroom.

Both lecturers and students hope that there will be more explicit teaching of local cultures, so the learning to mediate culture gap is clearer. Especially for students who have experienced teaching, the knowledge of how to mediate cultures is useful for them to teach communicative English for their students. It is because in explaining about the norms of using polite oral English, sometimes the students of theirs will also ask the similarity between local and foreign cultures and also explanation about how to be polite even though the cultures of the speakers are not the same. To underline this, both lecturers and students think that the textbook and materials given to teach the students give more focus on the culture of native speakers, while at some point, the students themselves actually do not really understand about their local culture.

The idea of teaching local cultures to the students is actually derived from the thought that the students need to understand their culture first before attempting to mediate their cultures with the foreign one under the umbrella of realizing the aim of English to be used as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2012). Classroom teaching, usually in speaking classes often teach the students how to be polite in other country while neglecting whether what is considered polite in another country is also considered the same in the students' native country. Therefore, in this study, it formulates that the functions of local culture teaching are useful in two major reasons; local culture may serve as a benchmark and departing point of teaching intercultural communication. Thus, students will have had the standard of what is considered polite or impolite in their own countries, before learning other cultures and trying to mediate the gap between the two cultures.

The second use of teaching local culture to students is actually to realize the teaching of intercultural communication itself. The goal of oral communication in English is no different as to have the similar understanding between two speakers both in terms of the information delivered or the way it communicates in a polite way. Results of the study are in line with what had been delivered by McKay (2002) that the teaching of local cultures to the English classroom teaching can improve the knowledge of learners. It is later will be useful in practicing intercultural communication. Intercultural communication may exist when both speakers understand each other and attempt to respect to other cultures while also respect their own cultures. If the students keep being taught by using the foreign cultures, they will be considered as polite in other countries but sometimes neglect that their politeness is not acceptable in their own country. This way, intercultural communication has not achieved yet.

Conclusion

The study attempted to study the role of local culture in speaking classes. The data were collected by observing the class, interview, and documentation study. Results showed that the knowledge of culture, both native and foreign one, was embedded in teaching speaking classes of first-year-students in Universitas Negeri Semarang implicitly. The local culture itself served as benchmark and departing point of teaching intercultural communication to students. By acting as a benchmark, local culture gave students a standard of what considered acceptable and not acceptable both in native and foreign culture. While as a departing point, local culture served as the initial knowledge of students before getting to understand the concept of international communication further.

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SWEAR WORDS IN *BAD BOYS II*: A SEMANTIC ANALYSIS

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Abstract

English movies have become a medium for the global spread of English swear words. However, not all people from non-English speaking countries know and understand the literal meanings of these words. This qualitative research aims to figure out the semantic referents of swear words in the film *Bad Boys II*. Content analysis was employed as its method. The results of this study show that nine semantic referents of swear words were used in the movie, namely sexual references, profane or blasphemous, scatological and disgusting objects, animal names, ethnic-racial-gender slurs, psychological-physical-social deviations, ancestral allusions, substandard vulgar terms, and offensive slang. Thus, *Bad Boys II* has a vast variety of swear words.

Keywords: swear word, semantic referent, *Bad Boys II*

Introduction

As English is considered to be an international language, the use of English is increasing in many countries including Indonesia. English has become one of the obligatory subjects in schools and it can be heard in daily conversations, especially among the young generation. Not every Indonesian is fluent in English and uses English fully in their daily conversations. However, it cannot be denied that sometimes Indonesian people insert some English vocabularies in their utterances. English swear words are among the vocabularies used by Indonesian people.

The use of swear words is spread mostly through social interactions. Jay (2000) states that children may acquire swear words in their vocabulary even as soon as they start to speak. Children acquire the swear words from what they hear and learn to use them through social learning. People whose native language is not English acquire English swear words through more-or-less the same way. They learn the words from daily conversations or other media, such as English movies, and imitate the words in their speech.

This study focuses on the semantic referents of swear words in an English movie entitled *Bad Boys II*. The underlying reason for this study is that the use of swear words is often taken connotatively rather than denotatively (Wajnryb, 2005; Goddard, 2015). It is also the reason why there are relatively few semantic studies on swear words. Goddard (2015) states that most linguists consider swearing to belong to the field of pragmatics rather than semantics. It can also be assumed that

people who only imitate English swear words do not really understand the literal meanings of the swear words that they utter. An English movie has been chosen as the object of the study since English movies are a popular medium that helps to spread the use of English around the globe, including the use of English swear words.

Swear words can be described as the lexicon of offensive language (Jay, 2009) and are usually considered inappropriate and to be avoided by certain cultures (Wajnryb, 2005). Meanwhile, the action of uttering swear words is called swearing. To be specific, Jay (2000) describes swearing as “the utterance of emotionally powerful, offensive words or emotionally harmful expressions that are understood as insults” (p. 9). The connotative use of a swear word is what is considered offensive (Allan & BurrIDGE, 2006). The words used in a swearing utterance function to express certain emotions. Those emotions may be negative emotions (e.g. anger, shock, frustration (Ljung, 2011)), positive emotions (e.g. joy, joke (Jay, 2000)), or as a response to pain (Stephens, Atkins, & Kingston, 2009).

To avoid using swear words and in order to be polite and less offensive, people often use euphemisms in their speaking. Euphemisms are described as words chosen to replace any word that is considered offensive or unpleasant for the listener (Jay & Janschewitz, 2008; Jay, 2009; Gao, 2013; Finn, 2017). A euphemism is usually used to lessen the inappropriateness of the reference, such as to sexuality, death, body products, and so forth. As an example, the phrase *make love* will be preferred to *fuck* in a conversation between mixed participants (Jay & Janschewitz, 2008). Euphemisms can also enable a speaker to talk about ideas that may have been avoided had a more offensive word been chosen (Bowers & Pleydell-Pearce, 2011). Mohr (2013) states that “a euphemism is the opposite of swearing” (p. 197) as it hides the swear words which emphasize the feelings expressed. However, as the context of the swear words and their substitutions are still the same, using a euphemism is still considered to be swearing. Utilization of a euphemism is propositional swearing, which is done intentionally and in full awareness (Finn, 2017).

Although swear words are usually used connotatively, it is also possible that the literal meaning of a swear word is also offensive. For example, some English swear words contain body excretion or sexual intercourse meanings that are taboo in some cultures and should be avoided (Gao, 2013). This demonstrates that different standards of the offensiveness of a word may apply to different cultures. Besides body excretion and sexual intercourse, there are many other topics that are discussed using swear words. According to Napoli and Hoeksema (2009), religion, health, sex, and bodily excretion are four big topics for swear words. Ljung (2011) also provides some other themes for swear words, such as mothers, animals, death, prostitution, ethnic backgrounds, and levels of intelligence.

Another classification of the literal meanings of swear words is from Jay (2009), who distinguishes swear word referents into nine categories, namely sexual references, profanity or blasphemy, scatological and disgusting objects, animal names, ethnic-racial-gender slurs, psychological-physical-social deviations, ancestral allusions, substandard vulgar terms, and offensive slang.

Sexual references are related to sexual acts (e.g. *fuck*), sexual anatomies (e.g. *cock*, *dick*, *cunt*), and sexual deviations (e.g. *motherfucker*, *cocksucker*). Profane and blasphemous swear words refer to religious terms (e.g. *Jesus Christ* or *damn*), while scatological and disgusting objects refer to faeces (e.g. *crap*), excretion organs (e.g. *asshole*), excretion processes (e.g. *shitting*), and body products (e.g. *piss*). Swear words may also be in the form of animal names (e.g. *bitch*, *monkey*) and ethnic-racial-gender slurs (e.g. *nigger*, *fag*). Psychological-physical-social deviations are also often used as swear words (e.g. *moron*, *pox*, *whore*). Ancestral allusions are swear words which involve or relate with family relationships and ancestors (e.g. *son of a bitch*, *bastard*). Substandard vulgar terms are vulgar words of which the constructions are below the satisfactory standard of language (e.g. *on the rag*, *fartface*). Lastly, offensive slang refers to offensive substandard words that are invented to ease communication (e.g. *bang*, *suck*).

Method

This qualitative study employed document analysis as its method. The object of this study was *Bad Boys II*, a film that was released in 2003. *Bad Boys II* was chosen as this movie contains many swear words in its dialogue. The data gathering process included the listing of all the swear words uttered in the dialogue. To check whether the listed words were swear words, the words were compared to the list of swear words from *wiktionary.org*, *www.cs.cmu.edu*, *www.noswearing.com*, *An Encyclopedia of Swearing*, and *The Big Black Book of Very Dirty Words*. Since there were some swear words which were used more than once in the dialogue, only one of each word was taken to be analysed.

In analysing the data, the classification from Jay (2009) was used as the base of the classification. To determine the semantic referents of the swear words, some dictionaries and an encyclopedia were used, namely *Merriam-Webster*, *Cambridge Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Oxford Dictionary of English*, *Oxford Dictionary of Slang*, and *An Encyclopedia of Swearing*. Some meanings of the swear words were also checked using *www.urbandictionary.com*.

Since *www.urbandictionary.com* is not a legitimate source to validate the meanings of the swear words, the researchers conducted several adjustments in consulting the meanings. Since it was possible to get some different meanings for a swear word from this website, the researchers chose the meaning with the suitable context for the utterance. Then, the meaning with the most “likes” was chosen with the assumption that it was the meaning which most people agreed on.

Findings and Discussion

After analyzing the dialogue of *Bad Boys II*, the researchers found that the characters of this movie uttered swear words 449 times. Those utterances consisted of 53 different swear words. The researcher categorized the referents of the swear words from *Bad Boys II* into nine categories based on Jay’s (2009) theory. The categories are sexual references, profanity or blasphemy, scatological and disgusting objects, animal names, ethnic-racial-gender slurs, psychological-

physical-social deviations, ancestral allusions, substandard vulgar terms, and offensive slang.

All of the nine categories of semantic referents of swear words were found in this movie. Profane and blasphemous referents was the category with the most words (12). The category with the least amount of words was ancestral allusion with only one swear word.

Sexual References

The researcher found six swear words containing sexual references in *Bad Boys II*. There were variations of the word *fuck* (*fuck*, *fucks*, *fuckings*, *fucked*, *fucker*), *motherfucker*, *motherfucking*, *fuckings mother*, *tit*, and *titties*, which were classified into sexual references. The variations of the word *fuck* were used 108 times in the movie, which made it the second-most used swear word after *shit*. This could indicate that the use of the word *fuck* is more flexible than the other five sexual-related swear words.

The swear word *motherfucker* was listed in this category not only because it contains the word *fuck*, but also because it is considered to be a deviant sexual act (Jay, 1992). Ljung (2011) considers this word to carry both sexual and mother themes, with the mother theme being more dominant. The word *motherfucking* is the adjective form of *motherfucker*. This can be seen from the functions of the word *motherfucking* in the dialogue, which were as adjectives of dislike and emphases in which the swear word preceded a noun. The phrase *fuckings mother* has more or less the same meaning as *motherfucker*. The researcher considered that the speaker of this swear word intended to say *motherfucker* instead of *fuckings mother* as this expression is quite rarely heard in movies. Besides, the speaker of this word was a Russian character whose first language was not English.

The words *tit* and *titties* have the denotation of a sexual organ. These words refer to a woman's breast. Although there were some other swear words denoting sexual organs found in the movie, only these two words that were put in this referent. The other words belong to the category of substandard vulgar terms.

Profane and Blasphemous

Profane and blasphemous swear words refer to religious terms or references (Hughes, 2006). There were 12 swear words of this referent in the movie. All of those served as profanity or without any intention to attack a certain religion or belief. This finding was similar with what Mahayana (2017) found, which is that blasphemy was not used in *Bad Boys II*. The swear words included in this category were *Christ*, *damn*, *devil*, *gee*, *God*, *goddamn*, *gosh*, *hell*, *jeez*, *Jesus*, *Jesus Christ*, and *Lord*. While *God*, *devil* and *hell* are general terms for some religions, the words *Christ*, *Jesus*, *Jesus Christ*, and *Lord* are more familiar to Christianity. The words *damn* and *goddamn* are related to condemning or provoking a divine power.

Euphemisms were used in the words *gee*, *jeez*, and *gosh*. *Gee* and *jeez* were substitutions for the use of the word *Jesus*, while *gosh* replaced the use of the word *God*. Such euphemisms might be used as the speaker avoided using the word *Jesus* and *God* in swearing for fear of them feeling inappropriate.

Scatological and Disgusting Objects

There were 6 swear words in *Bad Boys II* movie which referred to scatological and disgusting objects. Scatological and disgusting objects refer to excretion and bodily products (Jay, 2000). Excretion organs and other things that are considered to be disgusting by most people are also included in this referent. The words containing this referent were *ass*, *butthole*, *crap*, *piss*, *shit*, and *shithole*. The words *shit*, *bullshit*, and *crap* are excretion products. *Piss* is also an excretion product, but the movie used derivations of this word, which were *pissed* and *pissing*. These two words have the sense of an excretion process rather than the product.

The words *ass*, *butthole*, and *shithole* denote organs or body parts that are related to an excretion process. Jay (2009) actually uses the word *ass* as an example of animal names referent since *ass* can denote an animal as well. However, these days the use of the word *ass* in this context has been replaced by the word "donkey" (Hughes, 2006). The researcher put this word into the scatological referent category since it commonly denotes a human body part in its modern use. Besides, the word *ass* is the American version of the British word *arse*, which also denotes the same human body part. Even though *butthole* and *shithole* denote the same excretion organ, *shithole* also has another meaning. *Shithole* has developed into a slang word used to refer to an unpleasant place.

Shit was the most frequently employed swear word in this movie as it was uttered 114 times. The high frequency of this word in the dialogue may be explained by Ljung's (2011) statement that "*shit* is a very useful word used as an expletive interjection ..., and as an expletive epithet in utterances ..., and also in other expressions ... " (p. 38). This is also an indication that the word *shit* has flexible functions.

Animal Names

Some animal names were also used as swear words in the dialogue of *Bad Boys II*. There were five animal names which were used as swear words, they were *bitch*, *dog*, *jackal*, *pussy*, and *rat*. The word *bitch* means female dog, while *jackal* is an animal which looks like a dog and eats dead animals. *Pussy*, which is often used to refer to a woman's genitals, also refers to cats. Lastly, the word *rat* refers to a species of rodent. The animal name chosen for a swear word is usually influenced by the addressee's behavior (Allan & Burridge, 2006). An example is that the word *rat*, which is often considered to be a pest, was used to describe one of Johnny Tapias' men named Roberto, who often caused problems.

Ethnic-Racial-Gender Slurs

The researchers found five swear words containing this referent in *Bad Boys II*. However, none of them was a gender slur. Those words were ethnic and racial slurs, such as *black*, *gringo*, *negro*, *nigga*, and *nigger*. The words *black*, *negro*, *nigga*, and *nigger* share the same meaning of a group of people who have dark pigmentation. The word *nigger* is a modification of the term *negro*. Furthermore, the word *nigga* is a variation of the word *nigger*. Even though it was used several times to express anger in name-calling swearing, this word is less offensive than *nigger* as it is commonly used in communities of black people. This is supported by the fact that the word *nigga* was only used between black characters of the

movie. The word *nigga* is considered to be a sign of identity and solidarity among African-American people (Allan & Burrige, 2006). The word *black*, however, is occasionally considered to be an offensive word that is less insulting. Allan and Burrige (2006) suggest that the word *black* "... should probably be marked as orthophemistic ..." (p. 84), meaning it is usually considered to be straight talk rather than an offensive word. In this movie, this word became offensive because it was used in an unfriendly suggestion swearing, "*kiss my black ass.*" From these four words, the word *nigger* is considered to be the most offensive.

Meanwhile, the slur *gringo* is derived from a Spanish word. The offensiveness of the word *gringo* is still debatable. The researchers browsed through some forums on the Internet and found that some people claimed that this word is commonly used by its native speaker without any derogatory meaning. In the other hand, some who had experienced being called *gringo* felt insulted by this word.

Psychological-Physical-Social Deviation

There were six swear words in this referent in *Bad Boys II*. However, the researcher found examples of all three of the sub-categories within this referent. The swear words from the movie which belonged to this referent varied between *dumb*, *fool*, *freak*, *lunatic*, *maniac*, *punk*, and *stupid*. The words connoting psychological deviation are *dumb*, *fool*, *freak*, *lunatic*, *maniac*, and *stupid*. These words denote psychological states or levels of intelligence. The terms *dumb* and *freak* also have physical deviation meanings, *dumb* means unable to speak and *freak* means a person with strange physical attributes. Meanwhile, only *punk* belongs to the category of social deviation. *Punk* belongs to the social deviation referent as it denotes a certain culture or social group. Using its archaic meaning, *punk* is a word for prostitute.

Jay (1992) states that these referents are often employed as insults. He adds that they function "... to hurt the person directly through the particular word or phrase" (p. 8). In this movie, the researchers found that the use of these referents was not limited to direct insults. It was also used to describe a third party, which means it did not directly insult the person. Moreover, there were also some uses of this referent to describe something.

Ancestral Allusions

There was only one phrase that belonged to the ancestral allusion referent, *son of a bitch*, and it was only used three times in the movie. This phrase allures to the relation between a male addressee and his mother. This is supported by Ljung (2011), who states that this phrase contains the "mother" theme, and Jay (1992), who argues that it is commonly directed to male addressees. Jay's argument was demonstrated by the finding that *son of a bitch* was only used between male characters in this movie.

Substandard Vulgar Terms

Wardhaugh (2006) states that substandard English sounds like poorly arranged utterances. Therefore, the swear words from *Bad Boys II* which were below the satisfactory standard of English were put in this category. Five substandard vulgar terms were found in the movie. The swear words with this referent were the suffix *-ass* (*big-ass*, *little-ass*, *freak-ass*, *kick-ass*, *dumb-ass*,

thick-ass, and *grown-ass*), *bullshit*, *cock diesel*, *dickhead*, and *shit-storm*. These words were considered substandard as their uses in the sentences could not be taken as grammatically correct. Moreover, these swear words contain vulgar terms, which lines up with Jay's (1992; 2000) explanation that vulgar terms are often related to sexual acts, body parts, products, and processes.

The suffix *-ass* was used in the movie by compounding it with the preceding words. This suffix functioned as an intensifier or to create a new meaning (as in *kick-ass*). *Bullshit* and *shit-storm*, which carry the same vulgar term *shit*, have different meanings. *Bullshit* means something nonsensical, and *shit-storm* means a big problem. Meanwhile, *cock diesel* and *dickhead* contain sexual organ terms in their constructions, yet they do not contain the same meaning. The phrase *cock diesel* is for a very muscular or stout person. On the other hand, *dickhead* means a stupid or contemptible person.

Offensive Slang

Out of all of the swear words in *Bad Boys II*, seven of them were offensive slang. The swear words belonging to this referent were *ball*, *bang*, *bimbo*, *gangbanger*, *hump*, *screw*, and *scumbag*. Corroborating Jay (1992)'s statement that slang as a new vocabulary is developed to ease communication, slang was used as a new label or a new name for something that already existed. These slang words found in the movie were used as new labels for something, such as the word *balls* to refer to a man's genital parts. The words *bang*, *hump*, and *screw* are other terms relating to sexual intercourse. *Screw* can also mean "to make a mistake" or "to make a mess of something." Slang is also used to refer to a person with certain attributes, such as the word *bimbo* for an attractive but stupid woman, *gangbanger* for a member of street gang, and *scumbag* for an unpleasant person. In its other use, *scumbag* also means a contraceptive.

Conclusion

From this research, it was found that *Bad Boys II* employed 53 different swear words in its dialogue. It was also found that all the nine semantic referents of swear words from Jay (2009) were referred by those swear words. The profane and blasphemous referent was the referent with the most words (12 words) and ancestral allusion was the least referred with only one word. The swear words used in this movie also varied in terms of their offensiveness. Not only were the offensive words used in the dialogue, but some less offensive words in the form of euphemisms were also found. The research results show that *Bad Boys II* contains a wide variety of swear words, both in the expansiveness of its vocabulary and in the offensiveness of the words themselves.

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**LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT LITERACY DEVELOPMENT:
A STUDENT-TEACHER'S EXPERIENCES
IN TEACHING PRACTICE PROGRAM**

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Abstract

The development of a student-teacher's language assessment literacy was viewed through her experiences in conducting teaching practice in one of the senior high schools in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. An interview was conducted to explore the experiences taking place in the teaching-practice in relation to the language assessment literacy development. It was found out that the experiences were understood as mostly dealing with administrative tasks and there is a need of more knowledge in administrative matter in teaching and assessment. From the results of the study it was obvious that further studies need to be conducted to explore the role of teaching-practice in the development of student-teaching language assessment literacy. More participants and multiple data collection methods in a longitudinal study are needed to help student-teachers to be more assessment literate, which in turn helps them to be better teachers.

Keywords: administrative tasks, language assessment literacy, teaching practice

Introduction

Assessment is an integral part of teaching. However, studies have shown that many teachers do not have enough knowledge and skills on how to assess their students. The teachers' lack of knowledge and skills on assessment will disadvantage their students and render teachers less accountable towards stakeholders.

It is therefore necessary to explore the teachers' educational measurement knowledge and the skills to apply that knowledge to measure students' achievement. This study is aimed to discover the Language Assessment Literacy/LAL of student-teachers of English Language Education Study Program, Sanata Dharma University, Indonesia. These particular participants and their setting were chosen since not many studies have been done to explore their language assessment literacy. This study therefore will fill in the gap in the literature.

The term assessment literacy was first coined by Stiggins (1991) who defined it as a fundamental understanding of educational assessment and skills to apply such knowledge to measure student achievement. In the field of language assessment, Fulcher (Fulcher, 2012) proposes the most detailed working definition of Language Assessment Literacy (LAL). To date, despite the agreement that LAL is necessary for language teachers, there has been little consensus among assessment experts on

what knowledge, skills, and principles (Davies, 2008) that teachers should master in order to be assessment literate, or what components of LAL should be taught and prioritized (Harding & Kremmel, 2016; Taylor, 2009).

Assessment literacy has gradually been considered as an integral part of teachers' professionalism (Popham, 2004, 2011; Schafer, 1993; Stiggins, 1995) due to the pivotal role of assessment in students' learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998, 2010; Xu & Brown, 2017). Popham (2004) even argued that assessment illiteracy is a form of professional suicide considering the vital role assessment plays in students learning. However, many studies have shown that teachers are unconfident in assessing their students (Volante & Fazio, 2007) and lacking in knowledge and skills of educational assessment, and they are in the need of proper training (DeLuca, LaPointe-McEwan, & Luhanga, 2016; Herrera & Macías, 2015; Malone, 2011; Stiggins, 1999).

In order to address this problem, several studies have been conducted to find out what training and knowledge are needed for teachers to be assessment literate. Using the survey form they designed for three types of stakeholders (language teachers, language teachers training, and language testing experts. i.e. who are involved in item writing) in Language Testing and Assessment (LTA), Hasselgreen, Carlsen, and Helness (2004) identified training needs of those stakeholders in the countries across Europe to offer subsequent training in the field. The researchers reported that there is a need for more formal education and training in language testing and assessment among those stakeholders. They also reported that most LTA activities (using statistics, assessing culture, integrated skills, establishing validity, and assessing productive skills) were carried out by teachers who have no training in these activities.

In response to Hasselgreen et al.'s call for more research on teachers' assessment literacy, Vogt and Tzagari (2014) conducted a similar study built on Hasselgreen et al.'s research by including additional European countries and exclusively targeted foreign language teachers (see also Tzagari & Vogt, 2017). Their results show that according to the participants, the LTA literacy of foreign language teachers across Europe is not very well-developed. The majority of those teachers had received either "a little" or "no" training at all, and they believe that their training has not sufficiently prepared them for their work. This study's results then corroborate Hasselgreen et al.'s study.

Several studies conducted to study both pre-service and in-service teachers' assessment literacy also yield similar results (Mertler & Campbell, 2005; DeLuca, Chavez, Bellara, & Cao, 2013; Campbell, C., Murphy, J. A. & Holt, J. K. , 2002, Mertler, C. A., 2003, and Plake, 1993 as cited in Mertler, 2009) which show that those teachers do not seem to possess high, or even adequate, levels of assessment literacy. Researchers have also noted that there is comparatively little research on teachers' current assessment practices from which professional learning programs to encourage teacher assessment literacy can be constructed (Brindley, 2001; Harding & Kremmel, 2016; Mertler, 2009). Moreover, little research has been conducted on teacher candidates' assessment practice when they are conducting their field experiences in schools. While in fact, finding out what teacher candidates experience in terms of designing and implementing classroom-based assessment in

their teaching practice or field experience will help avoid the phenomena of testing the students the way they were tested (DeLuca et al., 2013). Teacher candidates' field experiences can influence their perception of assessment and their assessment decisions, as well as many other instructional decisions (Clark, 2015; Heafner, 2004). This case study therefore is aimed at describing and interpreting what happens during teaching practice or field experience in secondary schools in relation to teacher candidates' language assessment literacy development.

As I mentioned in the beginning of this paper, assessment is an integral part of teaching. Teachers will not be able to help their students or themselves to learn, if they do not have the knowledge and related skills to assess their own and their students' learning. Therefore, teachers should be assessment literate.

Even though assessment literacy has a vital role in teachers' teaching and students' learning, many studies have shown that teachers do not have the required knowledge and skills to be considered assessment literate. The same studies also shown that teachers need training and support to be assessment literate. Therefore, in this study, I would like to explore how student-teachers of English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) develop, design, and implement their assessment plan. In that way then I will be able to see whether they have the knowledge and skills to design an appropriate assessment plan. Later, I will observe them doing their teaching practice when I can observe the way they assess their students. Since pragmatism is the paradigm of this study, I will use multiple methods to answer the research questions.

The following are the research questions guiding this study:

Central question:

What happens in teaching practice or field experience in secondary schools in relation to teacher candidates' language assessment literacy development?

Subquestions:

- 1) How do student-teachers of English Language Education Study Program develop their assessment plan (formative and summative assessment) in their teaching practice in the local secondary school?
- 2) How do student-teachers of English Language Education Study Program implement their assessment plan?
- 3) In what ways do development and implementation affect assessment literacy, if at all?
- 4) How does the school as a system, where those student-teachers do their teaching practice, support their professional development for assessment literacy?

Method

Interview was employed to answer the research questions above. One student-teacher of English Language Education Study Program, Sanata Dharma University, Indonesia who has just finished her field experience (teaching practice) was chosen to be interviewed. The interview was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia via text-based WhatsApp application. Considering the distance and time difference between the interviewee and interview, all the questions were all at once posted in the WhatsApp for the interviewee to answer whenever it is possible for her to respond. This

technique allows the interviewee to have more time to think about her responses and allows the interviewer to ask further questions on her responses that need further clarification.

The interview protocol that I used consists of two parts. The first part contains the consent form asking the interviewee whether she is willing to voluntarily participate in this study. Once she confirmed that she was willing to participate, then the second part was posted in the application. The following is the interview protocol:

(1) Dear participant,

First of all, I need to get your consent for this interview.

Before that, let me give you some information about this study. This is a small study looking at English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) students' language assessment literacy and the role of teaching practice/PPL in the development of ELESP students' language assessment literacy. Some questions will be about your experiences designing and implementing assessment when you are doing your teaching practice. Some other questions will be about the role of teaching practice, ELESP lecturers, and the courses you have taken before you took teaching practice. Your identity will not be revealed in any document published related to this data gathering.

Do you agree to participate in this interview?

(2) The following are the questions you need to respond:

1. I believed that you have just finished your teaching practice program. Would you please describe your responsibilities in the program?
2. In terms of assessment, how do you go about planning and implementing your assessment plan? I mean, would you please share your experiences in designing and implementing your assessment (formative and summative) plan?
3. Do your lecturers and teacher-supervisor guide you in designing and implementing your assessment plan? How do they go about doing it?
4. Do you think you are ready to do your teaching practice especially in relation to conducting assessment for your students' learning? Why?

It took two days for the interviewee to respond to these questions. Once she replied, I followed up with several questions for further clarification and examples. The complete transcript of the WhatsApp interview as well as its translation can be found in the appendix.

Thematic analysis was applied to analyze the transcript of the interview. I followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) step by step procedure of thematic analysis to analyze the interview transcript. First, I transcribed the interview. This was easy since the interview was conducted using text-based WhatsApp desktop application, so what I need to do just copied and pasted the interview/chat into word processor. Then, I translated the interview transcript into English. This helped me to understand it deeply since I had to read the original transcript over and again to ensure that I did not miss the original meaning of the conversation. Then, using MAXQDA 12 software, I coded the transcript and found 48 codes. The codes were informed by the research questions that I have formulated, so this kind of coding was deductive in nature. I then compiled and collated those codes into some themes

in order to provide insights and deeper understanding on what happened during teaching practice in relation to student-teacher language assessment literacy development.

Findings and Discussion

Based on the themes found in the interview transcript, what happened in the teaching practice program was that this student-teacher dealt with mostly administrative tasks. From the day one she entered the school, until the last months of the teaching-practice program, most of the tasks were administrative. Even in their teaching and in the assessment design and implementation, she dealt with administrative matter. Her concern in the assessment design was how to design rubric to assess attitudes, skills, and knowledge correctly using the template given by the vice headmaster in curriculum. She thought that she was not prepared enough to design a lesson plan and its rubric since her lecturer did not teach her. She even suggested that ELESP lecturers should equip their student-teacher with more detailed knowledge on how to write lesson plan, especially in terms of designing and writing those rubrics.

In terms of designing the assessment, she received little help from her teacher supervisor and lecturer since she was considered competent enough to design it. She was also trusted to teach Grade XII students. Usually, student-teachers generally were given opportunity to teach Grade X students. In fact, some secondary schools only allow student-teacher to teach Grade X students. It shows that she gained trust from her teacher supervisor, so she was given the opportunity to teach not only one but two classes of Grade XII.

In terms of assessment implementation, she implemented her assessment as mostly formative assessment in the form of quizzes, comprehension questions, and assignments to check her students' understanding of the materials. She became more competent in her assessment literacy, even though only in terms of understanding the template to design rubric to assess attitudes, skills, and knowledge through collaboration with fellow student-teachers from other study programs, who happened to be more well-informed than her in terms of some administrative tasks dealing with teaching (writing yearly program and semester program) and assessment (writing rubrics).

In terms of the teacher supervisor and lecturer's support toward the student-teacher's language assessment literacy development, the student-teacher in this particular school received little support since she was considered competent enough to conduct her own teaching and her own assessment. It can be seen from the interview that only minor suggestions or revision were provided by teacher supervisor and lecturer concerning her assessment design.

One of the limitations of the study is that only one participant was involved in this study which might not provide a complete picture of what was happening during teacher practice in terms of ELESP student-teachers' language assessment literacy development. This participant conducted her teaching practice program in one of the most favorite state senior high schools in Yogyakarta. It is situated in a rural area, and it is considered as one of the best schools in terms of the implementation information technology. Other contexts of ELESP teaching-

practice program (rural vs. urban schools, senior vs. junior high schools, senior vs. vocational high schools, private-based vs. state-owned schools) were not represented.

Conclusion

More qualitative studies need to be conducted to explore and better understand the role of teaching practice in the development of student-teachers' language assessment literacy. Multiple methods of data collection (interview, lesson plans, assessment materials, video-recorded teaching performances, observations, reflective journals, among others) and a longitudinal study must be employed to provide a more complete picture of what is happening in the teaching practice program. It is necessary therefore to conduct more studies on this area since teacher candidates' field experiences can influence their perception of assessment and their assessment decisions, as well as many other instructional decisions (Clark, 2015; Heafner, 2004).

The other limitation was the data collection technique. The data were collected through interview using text-based WhatsApp application which might limit the interaction and depth of the interview. Since the participant was quite busy (it was toward the end of the semester with a lot of deadlines) and considering the time difference, the distance as well as the quality of the internet will not guarantee the smooth quality of long-distance video or even phone call, so text-based chat was chosen. However, the synchronous nature of text-based chat allows both the interviewee and interviewer ample time to think about the responses and further follow-up questions which can facilitate more meaningful interaction.

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EXTENSIVE READING FOR INDONESIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS: AN ALTERNATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR IMPLEMENTATION

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Abstract

One recommended way to promote interest in foreign language reading is through Extensive Reading. This paper aims at revisiting Extensive Reading along with its pertaining principles. In addition, it proposes an alternative framework to implement Extensive Reading with Indonesian EFL university students. It will specifically cast some light on how to implement supervised (or instructed) Extensive Reading. This kind of reading has gained popularity over the years, ever since it was introduced to the realm of foreign language learning. It has been shown to bring a lot of benefits for L2 learners in many respects, and, consequently, it has been implemented in a variety of contexts. However, the implementation of Extensive Reading has sometimes been criticized for not observing the outlined principles, for instance, in the issues of the absence of pleasure in its undertaking and the inclusion of inappropriate post-reading activities.

Keywords: Extensive Reading, alternative framework, university student

Introduction

The ineluctability of foreign language reading is obvious whenever one is learning a foreign language. Reading is important since it is a way to learn (Clarity, 2007). Channuan and Wasanasomsithi (2013) state that reading is a skill which is vital as it is demanded for successful use of the language as well as for the pursuit of higher education and future career. Susser and Robb (1990) add that reading is the most emphasized skill in traditional FL teaching and has become the mainstay of EFL instruction in many countries. Due to the minimum language exposure that foreign language learners have, Extensive Reading is believed to be powerful to promote interest in foreign language reading. Stoller (2015, p. 152) avows that “the best way to help students learn to read and improve their reading skills is through reading itself.” Besides, she opines that giving students freedom to choose what they read will empower them and will result in more engagement in reading. This paper aims at revisiting the concepts and principles pertaining to Extensive Reading. On top of that, it attempts to propose how supervised ER program, which places Extensive Reading as the main activity, can be implemented in Indonesian EFL university context.

Theory

Extensive Reading

Extensive Reading was firstly introduced to foreign language teaching by Harold Palmer (Kelly, 1969 as cited in Day, 2015), who views Extensive Reading as reading activities that students do for enjoyment and information. Stoller (2015, p. 154) defines Extensive Reading as “an approach to the teaching and learning of reading in which learners read large quantities of reading materials, in and out of class, that are easily understood, interesting, and enjoyable.” Grabe and Stoller (in Waring & McLean, 2015) also concur with the definition. Extensive Reading is aimed at encouraging learners to read extensively material which interests them as well as to develop cognitive and met cognitive skills for reading comprehension improvement (Channuan & Wasanasomsithi, 2013). Besides, Renandya (in Brown, 2012, p. 11) avers that Extensive Reading creates “an environment that nurtures a lifelong reading habit.”

Extensive Reading serves as an excellent means of supplying rich target language input, particularly in EFL setting. It deals with reading a lot of self-selected texts which are easy as well as interesting and doing few or no exercise afterwards. It becomes a strategy to promote interest in foreign language reading (Yulia, 2011). Its goal is to promote fluency and enjoyment in the process of reading (Clarity, 2007) as confirmed by Day (2013, pp. 10-11) saying “They read for information and enjoyment, with the primary goal of achieving a general, overall meaning of the reading material.” Moreover, Warring (2011) augments, Extensive Reading is done to promote reading speed, general comprehension and reading skill. What should happen in such an activity, he argues further, is READ, which means “Read quickly and . . . Enjoyably with . . . Adequate comprehension so they . . . Don’t need a dictionary” (Waring, 2011, p. 3). Since reading gain should be without pain as Day and Bamford suggest (in Day, 2013), whenever students find reading materials which are not interesting or too difficult, they are encouraged to stop and find another. The underlying reason is that ER tasks should minimize the frequent stopping and restarting that occur whenever students consult dictionaries while working on the task (Stoller, 2015). Nonetheless, they are encouraged to make their reading comfort zone bigger overtime; that is, to extend the range of materials that they can read easily and confidently (Day, 2013).

Extensive Reading may be practiced in one of these three forms depending on students’ needs and institutional constraints (Bamford & Day, 1997; Day, 2015). First is supervised (or instructed) Extensive Reading. It places Extensive Reading as the main focus of a reading course which is combined with a variety of follow-up activities. Second is blended Extensive and Intensive Reading. It employs Extensive Reading as an addition to an ongoing reading course whereby students read books that they select for homework. Third is independent (= non-instructed) Extensive Reading. In this type, Extensive Reading serves as an extracurricular activity with the teacher guides and encourages students whose fond of reading has been developed and who meet regularly to discuss what they read. Based on Jeon and Day’s (2016) study, effective ER programs take place when Extensive Reading is incorporated as part of the curriculum compared to other types of Extensive Reading and when it is held in EFL settings. Moreover, they unveil that

the effects of Extensive Reading are bigger in adults compared to children or adolescent groups. Adults are deemed to be cognitively more able to start reading extensively due to their experience, background knowledge and vocabulary. Moreover, low effects on adolescent may originate in the test-centered curriculum in the schools and in their low interest in Extensive Reading since it provides no direct impact on their grades (Jeon & Day, 2016).

Extensive Reading has brought plenty of benefits for L2 learners. Bell (1998) claims that Extensive Reading provides comprehensible input which facilitates acquisition, enhances general language competence, improves vocabulary knowledge and promotes motivation to read. Additionally, Extensive Reading deepens grammar knowledge as readers are confronted with the use of language in context. A number of research has demonstrated the value of Extensive Reading in improving reading fluency (Beglar, Hunt, & Kite, 2012), reading level (Mermelstein, 2014), reading rate gains (Beglar & Hunt, 2014), reading comprehension (Edy, 2014) and writing ability (Mermelstein, 2015). Moreover, it promotes positive attitude toward foreign language reading (Yamashita, 2013; Ro & Chen, 2014; Tien, 2015), increases motivation (Chien & Yu, 2015; De Burgh-Hirabe & Feryok, 2013), reduces anxiety (Ro, 2013) and fosters autonomy which leads to learning success (Channuan & Wasanasomsithi, 2013; Dickinson, 1995; Mede, İnceçay, & İnceçay, 2013). Furthermore, it also builds new vocabulary knowledge and expands students' understanding of words they previously learn (Stoeckel, Reagan & Hann, 2012; Waring, 2011).

Despite the attested benefits which Extensive Reading has on language proficiency, some teachers or schools show little commitment to incorporate Extensive Reading and thus make Extensive Reading not widely practiced in either ESL or EFL setting (Jeon & Day, 2016). The reasons, according to Stoller (2015), stem among others from the need for plentiful reading resources, teachers' resistance to change their way of teaching reading, the misunderstanding which views silent reading as no teaching or no learning happening, and instructional time constraints. For these reasons, it is vital that teachers, administrators, and policy makers be informed and educated of the benefits of Extensive Reading over traditional teaching (Jeon & Day, 2015 & 2016). Only by convincing them will ER approach be possibly encouraged and adopted in school settings.

Principles of Extensive Reading

According to Macalister (2015), Extensive Reading is in fact an easy concept, but it is oftentimes misunderstood by many teachers and researchers and it results in some confusion about the pertinent literature. Alternatively, he avows, it has been over-complicated. It is true that there is no a one-fits-all approach to Extensive Reading practice. Extensive Reading should be better understood as a continuum, ranging from *pure ER* in which all the principles are observed to *fringe ER* in which Extensive Reading is name only (Day, 2015). Notwithstanding the differences, they share three elements, namely quantity, ease, and choice, which usually exist in some form in any programs (Brown, 2012). In this section, the principles of Extensive Reading will be revisited to find out which principles are obligatory for any ER programs to be successful.

Day and Bamford (1998, 2002 as cited in Day, 2015) outline top ten principles for implementing Extensive Reading. They are: (1) The reading material is easy, (2) A variety of reading material on a wide range of topics is available, (3) Learners choose what they want to read, (4) Learners read as much as possible, (5) The purpose of reading is usually related to pleasure, information, and general understanding, (6) Reading is its own reward, (7) Reading speed is usually faster rather than slower, (8) Reading is individual and silent, (9) Teachers orient and guide their students, and (10) The teacher is a role model of a reader. The principles, Waring & McLean emphasize (2015), should not be seen as rigid prescription but rather as mere characteristics of successful Extensive Reading programs. Macalister (2015: 123) has the same opinion in that he views the top ten principles as the guidelines rather than commandments. Researchers and teachers have varied views about how Extensive Reading should be run; thus, it would be critical that there are general characteristics that every researcher agrees upon as to what constitutes Extensive Reading and what does not.

Waring and McLean (2015) spell out the essential core attributes and variable dimensions of Extensive Reading. According to them (2015, p. 164), the essential core attributes of ER should address “fast, fluent comprehension sustained over extended periods with minimal distractions.” They assert further that the focal element to decide whether reading extensively is done is by looking at the way the text is processed and not on the product. Waring and McLean (2015, p. 162) argue that

...the central concern for most researchers when deciding whether their subjects are ‘reading extensively’ is whether they are fluently comprehending the meanings and ideas in the text, or not. In a broad sense whether the subjects are reading extensively or not, is a matter of how text is processed, i.e. smoothly and with high, fluent comprehension. By contrast, the products of the research – e.g. what is learnt, how much reading is done – serve as the independent variables.

Put it another way, reading pains should be minimal; otherwise, the activity stops being Extensive Reading because the focus is more on the language forms rather than ideas and meaning in it. As for the variable dimensions of Extensive Reading, they are influenced by pedagogical aims, research questions, and given practicality within the setting. They among others include “amount of time spent reading, what is read, where it is read, whether the reading is required, and who selects the texts” (Waring & Mclean, 2015, p. 164).

Based on these ten principles, Macalister (2015, p. 122) tries to categorize them into four broad categories, namely the nature of reading, the nature of reading material, what the teachers do and what the learners do. The first category includes principles (5), (6), (7) and (8). The second category comprises principles (1) and (2). The third category contains principles (9) and (10). Meanwhile, the last category consists of principles (3) and (4).

Macalister (2015, p. 126) proposes a different idea. Considering the nature of reading, the nature of reading material, what the teachers do and what the learners do, he argues that the top ten principles can be reduced to seven, which are compulsory for Extensive Reading to occur. As these are obligatory, he claims,

they are closer to commandments. By this he refers to principles (1), (4), (5), (7), (8), (9) and (10). He also extends one of the seven principles as being “Learners read as much as possible in a regularly scheduled, time-limited period” (2015, p. 127). The activity may be carried out in the classroom, as an easier way, or as an out-of-class activity through negotiation with the students, as long as reading activity becomes the daily routine.

In contrast, Jeon and Day (2015, p. 302) state that the key principles to any ER programs aiming at improving L2 reading proficiency are only five. They are: (1) The reading material is easy, (2) Learners choose what they want to read, (3) Learners read as much as possible, (4) Reading is individual and silent, and (5) Teachers orient and guide their students. They argue that ER programs that use the five core principles can work successfully in both n EFL and ESL settings.

Theory Application

Setting Up an Extensive Reading Program

Extensive Reading should be included in any curriculum designed to foster L2 reading in order that it may yield the expected learning outcomes (Anderson, 2014; Waring, 2011). To set up an ER program, there are some aspects to consider (Day, 2013, pp. 11-17). Such consideration will guarantee that the program is managed in an effective and positive ways in order to be fruitful (Clarity, 2007).

Once the preparation is done, teachers can start introducing and advertising the ER program to students. They should provide necessary guidance as the Extensive Reading is done. Also, they need to inform students about the benefits of Extensive Reading so as to spark motivation on them.

As for the materials for Extensive Reading, many practitioners advocate the use of graded readers. However, Susser and Robb (1990) declare that graded readers are not the only possibilities. They may take the form of any texts in the target language that is within the proficiency level of the students. Varied collections comprising graded materials, children's literature, literature for young readers, popular writings, materials written for first-language readers and online texts are recommended. The cost of setting up a library, which is expensive, can be greatly reduced if teachers replace paper books with digital books. Moreover, research has demonstrated higher effect on the use of web-based stories than paper books (Jeon & Day, 2016). Concerning the genre, Anderson (2014, p. 7) claims that reading programs should employ a balanced approach whereby students should be exposed to both narrative and expository texts depending on the students' proficiency level. The reason is that the two genres have different vocabulary in spite of the same theme.

Teachers may determine the target of Extensive Reading that students should achieve, which can be expressed in books, pages, chapters, or amount of time. The amount of reading to do should be flexible to fit the students' reading ability and schedules. There is no rule determining the amount of reading to be done extensively, but Light (1970) as cited in Susser and Robb (1990) recommends a rule of thumb that the length of the tasks should be sufficient that the students and the teacher will not be tempted to talk them through in class. To give a concrete

clue, research suggests that minimum one book per week at the students' own level is sufficient (Day, 2003; Stoeckel, Reagan & Hann, 2012; Waring, 2011).

Credit can also be given to students to enhance motivation to do the reading. It can later be integrated with the assessment and grading issues that teachers should do. As for where to read, mostly the reading will be done out of class; however, class time may be used to show students the importance of reading. Outside reading should be given more priority to give students longer periods of time to read longer texts (Anderson, 2014).

Furthermore, monitoring of the reading activities should also be done to confirm that students are reading and that they are not struggling with the materials. Sometimes students will need help in finding their comfort level and will need advice about finding suitable material. Therefore, Waring (2011) suggests, it is important to hold a silent reading time whereby they are reading their book in class. During this time, the teacher should go around the class monitoring that the students are reading at the right level. Teachers can individually talk to each of them asking if their book is easy and if they understand it. If they are not enjoying the book, or it is too difficult, they should stop and read something else.

Susser and Robb (1990) pinpoint that in ER programs teachers should encourage and assist students with their reading. This can be done by conferences during or after class time, and by checking and commenting on written summaries that students do of their reading. Jeon and Day (2015) maintain that the role of teachers in ER programs will differ to varying degrees depending on the age of the participants. Whenever it is done with adults, the teachers can play a role as a facilitator or a role model since adults can read independently without much assistance. With younger learners, teachers should be more dominant in providing scaffolding. Whichever the case, they view that the success of ER programs relies to a large extent on skillful and enthusiastic teachers who employ the five core principles as outlined in the previous section. Furthermore, in spite of teacher's effort, the success of ER programs depends also on the systematic support provided by the school and government, for instance, in providing diverse books through school libraries.

To maintain interest, previous research (Haider & Akhter, 2012) suggests various interesting post-reading activities be employed. e.g. writing a book report, making presentation on a selected book, keeping a diary on a given book, discussing the books with classmates, or copying interesting, new words and expressions into a notebook after reading a story. Yet, comprehension question and summary writing should be avoided. Waring (2011) adds such activities as writing (or giving an oral) short report on each book, making posters, drawing a picture of a scene, talking about the characters and the plot, and writing reaction reports. Students may also form reading groups in which they can do such activities as selecting book together and discussing various aspects of the contents of the book (Jacobs & Renandya, 2015). Peer interaction, according to Jacobs & Renandya (2015, pp. 108-109), may have some benefits for students, namely: (a) They can motivate each other to read more, (b) They can offer each other suggestions of what to read or not read, (c) They can help each other understand

what they are reading, and (d) Discussing with peers can enhance student enjoyment of reading and can push them to think more deeply about what they read.

In addition to allowing students to collaborate with peers, post-reading activities are supposed to stimulate or trigger creative response or critical thoughts (Fenton-Smith, 2008). They should be varied enough to ascertain that students can respond to them in different ways throughout the program and hence will make them regard the tasks as a thought-provoking extension of the reading process. Jacobs and Renandya (2015, pp. 106-108) suggest plenty of follow-up activities in Extensive Reading programs which can make Extensive Reading even more student-centered. To name a few, they are oral or written review of the book in which they convince others to read (or not to read) it, telling the most interesting/exciting part of the book, designing poster to advertise the book, and many more.

One last issue in setting an ER program is assessment and grading. Following Krashen's Input Hypothesis, many people often discourage the assessment of Extensive Reading because they believe it may produce negative effects on students' attitude toward reading (Stoeckel, Reagan & Hann, 2012). Nonetheless, teachers are required by the educational institutions to assess each course. On top of that, teachers may need to know whether students really do the reading and what they obtain from it.

With regard to this, there has been some tension existing between autonomy and institutional education in assessment. Brown (2012) recommends that ER program be implemented without testing. Giving them a test, according to Waring (2011, p. 10), will make them think that "*all* reading must and will be tested, which goes against the spirit of Extensive Reading, which is to help learners to read for themselves without pressure so that they can build a life-long love of reading in English." On the other hand, assessment is required. To resolve this, Fenton-Smith (2008, p. 905) shares a trick by striking "a balance between making students accountable and making students comfortable."

One of the ER principles states that reading should be its own reward whereby freedom and independence are nurtured. It means to say that Extensive Reading emphasizes the intrinsic reward of reading instead of extrinsic reward materialized in the form of grade. However, most educational institutions always demand grades as evidence of accountability. Thus, it makes assessment a challenging task. In the case of assessment and grading demand, teachers should strive in such a way for method of assessment which is simple, maintains the focus on reading, and does not yield negative backwash.

Some standard unit of amount which has been discussed earlier may serve as the basis for students to measure their own progress, and for teachers to compare students and to assign grades. Additionally, Stoeckel, Reagan and Hann (2012, p. 189) recommend short quizzes as a means of assessing students because their research findings have lent support that ER quizzes have no impact on reading attitude. Short quizzes are preferred because they are "quicker (allowing more time for reading), require actual reading of the material, and cannot be plagiarized" (Stoeckel, Reagan & Hann, 2012, p. 154). It may last 2-3 minutes

and should not be in-depth forms. Besides, the use of quizzes may become external motivation to make students read as well as to verify that they are reading.

Nonetheless, it is worth noting that ER programs do not provide instant benefits (Jeon & Day, 2016). It takes time for the benefits to emerge. The best way to maintain students' motivation over time is by making Extensive Reading part of the curriculum (Jeon & Day, 2015 & 2016; Waring, 2011) because this scheme enables students to do the reading during classroom hours and extend it outside the classroom.

An Alternative Framework to Implement Extensive Reading

Extensive Reading has been implemented in diverse language learning contexts. Many of those programs incorporate ER as addition to an ongoing reading course, i.e. blended Extensive and Intensive Reading. Alternatively, it is placed as an extracurricular activity, or termed independent (= non-instructed) Extensive Reading. Yet, very rarely does it stand as supervised (or instructed) Extensive Reading whereby it becomes the main focus of a reading course. On top of that, there are criticisms on ER implementation as some programs do not follow best practices. Haider and Akhter (2012), for instance, find that the implementation is still shadowed with worries about passing exam. Many aspects of the implementation of Extensive Reading do not conform to the ER principles. Besides, there is a pressing need to include interesting and appropriate post-reading activities. Likewise, Waring (2011) claim that many ER programs have faltered because of lack of interest and enthusiasm for ER, inadequate planning, poor execution, and insufficient resources.

For these reasons, the writer will elucidate her idea about how to implement Extensive Reading as the main focus of a reading course in Indonesian university context. The scheme of incorporating ER into part of the curriculum is put forward because it is rarely applied in Indonesian context, meanwhile previous research has shown that this form of ER is the most effective and that the effects of ER are bigger in adults (Jeon & Day, 2015). Moreover, university level is deemed appropriate as a platform to apply this scheme. It is not constrained by test-centered curriculum as rigidly as primary or secondary schools are. The discussion will be presented following Richards and Rodgers' (1982) definition of *procedure* (in Susser & Robb, 1990, p. 165). They are (a) resources in terms of time, space, and equipment; (b) techniques and tactics used by teachers; and (c) exercises and practice activities.

a. Resources: Time, Space, Equipment

The course is designed for 2x50 minutes class meeting per week. Before embarking on the program, teachers should explain what the program will be like so that the students know what is expected of them. Besides, they need to be informed about the benefits that Extensive Reading has in order to make them motivated.

The materials needed throughout the course are reading materials which the students should select on their own based on their interest and proficiency level. The students may find the materials from the university library, bookshops, any other libraries which are accessible, or else they can find them online. Thus, there

is no need to worry about unavailability of reading resources. In the case of unavailable library or internet connection, teachers may provide book-swap scheme with the class or using used books. To follow what literature has suggested, the genre types to be covered throughout the course are narrative and expository texts. They may choose graded materials, children's literature, high interest-low vocabulary books, literature for young readers, or popular writings. As for the place to read, mostly the reading activity will be done out of class. Students will be allotted more time to read longer texts. Class time will be spent on individual reading, monitoring and doing varied post-reading activities.

Teacher should determine the target to be achieved for one semester by considering the existing number of meetings in that semester. This can be expressed in books, pages, chapters, or amount of time. On top of that, teacher may also create credit system to foster students' external motivation.

b. Techniques and Tactics Used by the Teachers

Teachers need to ascertain that the minimum of five core principles of ER exist in the program. The more principles to include, the better. As teachers play a central role in the success of Extensive Reading, they should show high motivation and enthusiasm. Stoller (2015) claims that instructional setting nowadays holds scaffold sustained reading (ScSR); thus, teachers play the role as guide or facilitator rather than as model reader. What teachers should do is monitoring students' engagement, text selection, and text comprehension. During in-class Extensive Reading, the teachers circulate and interact quietly with individual students to monitor whether the students are on task and that they have chosen books of appropriate level. If felt necessary, teachers may provide help for students in finding suitable material at their comfort level. As the program is intended for adult learners, teachers' role is less domineering.

Concerning assessment and grading issues, teachers may employ authentic assessment. The focus of such assessment is more on the process rather than the product. Scoring rubrics as the tool may be used to record and provide score for students. Besides, teachers may also use portfolios to keep track of students' work. The credit given as incentive based on the predetermined target may be taken into consideration in deciding students' final mark. If deemed necessary, teachers may also administer short quizzes.

c. Exercises and Practice Activities

The comprehensive ER project will be divided into in-class activities and out-of-class activity. After giving the orientation on the first day of semester, the next meeting students should come to class bringing 3-4 books, be they digital or paper books, which suit their interest. The class time will be used for reading one selected book. The rest is for alternative readings, whenever the selected book turns out to be not interesting or too difficult. While the students are reading, the teacher will monitor to ensure students have found an appropriate book. The reading process will be continued out-of-class at the students' own schedule. In the initial step of ER implementation, the time allotted for reading may be two weeks. After the students have adjusted, it can be reduced to one week, as research suggests.

After the ER task is finished, the following class meeting is used for doing post-reading activities. Such activities are beneficial for the sake of assessment and sustaining students' interest. The activities selected should be varied and interesting so that students will be challenged and not become bored. Ideally, the post-reading activities are done every other week, after one-week reading. Yet, this can be adapted to suit the class dynamics. Table 1 presents the summary of the framework.

Table 1. The Proposed Framework for ER Implementation

One Program		
ER Process	In-class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individual Reading • Monitoring
	Out-of-class (ideally 1 week)	Individual Reading
Post-reading Activities	In-class	Various interesting activities

Teachers may select activities from the following possible alternatives: making oral or written review of the book, making presentation on a selected book, keeping a diary on a given book and discussing with classmates at regular intervals, and copying interesting, new words, for example. Other instances include designing posters to advertise the book, drawing a picture of a scene, telling about the character(s) one likes best and why, writing reaction reports, discussing the books with class, writing personal reflection, and telling the most interesting/exciting part of the book. There are many more activities which teachers can creatively employ.

Conclusion

Realizing the importance of reading in foreign language learning, it is high time to integrate Extensive Reading into L2 curriculum as suggested by Anderson (2014) and Tien (2015). Taking account of the literature review and previous research findings, this paper attempts to spell out an alternative framework to implement ER as part of the curriculum in Indonesian university context, whereby it stands as the main activity. It should be noted that the key element of successful ER program is motivation and that the indicator of success may be derived from the high enjoyment that students feel from reading. Besides, to facilitate its execution, teachers and students need to redefine their roles. The paper has expectantly given useful insights into alternative implementation of ER in Indonesian university context. To maintain the program, perseverance is called for since Extensive Reading produces no immediate benefits.

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TEACHING EFL LEARNERS THE PAST PERFECT AND PAST SIMPLE THROUGH COGNITIVE GRAMMAR: EXPERIMENTAL EVIDENCE

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Abstract

Cognitive Grammar (CG) is a relatively new approach to linguistics that is becoming more mainstream in recent years due to its comprehensive description and meaningful elaboration of grammar. CG proponents have been proposing this approach to L2 grammar instruction instead of a more traditional approach that relies heavily on rules. Our main interest is to investigate whether such approach is indeed beneficial to learners, particularly in the learning of English past tenses. Our goal in the current study is therefore to examine the relative effect of CG instruction on Indonesian EFL learners' mastery of two past tenses, simple past and past perfect. These tenses were selected as our instructional targets since most common traditional explanation does not help learners differentiate and use them contextually (Jones & Lock, 2011). Twenty-seven EFL learners studying at a senior high school in Jakarta participated in this quasi-experimental study. They were assigned to one experimental group receiving a two-week pedagogical treatment with pre-test and immediate post-test design. Statistical analyses indicate that the group significantly performed better after the treatment, notably in discourse-related test sections. The results confirm the efficacy of CG which can lend support to its applications in L2 instruction.

Keywords: cognitive grammar, EFL learners, teaching grammar, tense and aspect

Introduction

Issues in L2 grammar teaching have been growing rigorously within the past decades, affirmed by myriad approaches being put forth by ESL/EFL practitioners to enhance grammar learning in classrooms. These include numerous approaches such as PPP (Presentation, Practice, Produce) approach (Ur, 1996), natural approach (Krashen, 1981) and form-focused instruction (Long, 1991). Despite this, as Larsen-Freeman (2015) has pinpointed, such progressive development has hitherto only resulted in modest—if not little—impact on pedagogical grammar due to their incomplete grammar description. She further argues that grammar is still viewed by educators merely as a set of rules with major focus on sentential analysis of the structure. Considering this, it is important that a grammar perspective compensating for this shortcoming be proposed.

Seen to possess a more comprehensively descriptive model of language, Cognitive Grammar (henceforth CG) has undeniably become an alternative that

bears some potential to better EFL grammar teaching. Tyler (2012) suggests that CG—with its meaning-focused representation of grammar—can demonstrate well “the regularities and systemic connection in the language” (p. 5), thus rendering memorization of grammar rules less necessary when learners are able to figure out its inherent meaning. Not only that, CG is argued to offer meaningful and authentic portrayal of grammar because it is based on how human cognition perceives the world in reality and translates it into language use (Langacker, 2008). Many earlier studies have attested to such claim about CG’s efficacy, such as articles (Huong, 2005), prepositions (Tyler, Ho & Mueller, 2011), modal verbs (Tyler, Mueller & Ho, 2010), and tense and aspect (Bielak & Pawlak, 2013; Kermer, 2016).

Nonetheless, one can notice how little attention is given by proponents of CG to the teaching of tense and aspect. Until recently, there have been at least three CG-based studies on this topic: present simple versus present continuous (Bielak & Pawlak, 2013; Kermer, 2016) and past simple versus past perfect (Kermer, 2016). Moreover, these studies were not without any limitations, one of which was their lack of discourse-based grammar—one core tenet of CG (Langacker, 2008). In addition to the fact that tense and aspect are still under-investigated, the use of past perfect and past simple is even more barely scrutinized through CG pedagogical application. This is an irony given that many learners still misuse the two tenses particularly in a more contextualized setting (Jones & Lock, 2011).

In response to this, this study endeavors to examine the effect of CG-based instruction on enhancing Indonesian EFL learners’ understanding towards the two tenses. Its effectiveness is also further scrutinized with respect to specific tasks which include both controlled and free production skills. At this juncture, two research questions are to be answered in the following study:

1. Does CG-based instruction help students significantly to understand the contextual use of past simple and past perfect?
2. Does CG-based instruction also enhance their understanding towards the tenses as measured by their performance in controlled and free production tasks?

Cognitive Grammar, a field under the study of Cognitive Linguistics, postulates that the focal aspect of grammar is semantics (i.e. meaning) instead of syntax (i.e. form) with the meaning derived from how human cognition perceives the world around them and translates it into language forms (Langacker, 2008; Taylor, 2008; Tyler, 2012). Further elaborated by Langacker (2008), each grammatical form bears its own semantic core and by grasping this ‘semantic spin’, grammar can be learned more naturally instead of relying on rote memorization of rules. This semantic conceptualization leads to the idea that grammar can be embodied in the form of symbolic accounts or imagery (Taylor, 2008), e.g. visual images, diagrams or semantic abstractions. Through this way, grammar becomes more meaningful and less arbitrary.

Equally essential is the usage-based nature of grammar (Langacker, 2008) which suggests that linguistic forms stem from their recurrence among language users. Grammar is consequently inextricable to the exploitation of discourse where certain grammatical items prevalently occur. Thus, Tyler (2012) strongly asserts that discourse is an important feature to facilitate grammar learning.

All of these CG tenets are also manifested in how English speakers perceive the concept of tense and aspect, including past simple and past perfect (Radden & Dirven, 2007). They posit that in narrative context, past simple refers to a series of bounded (i.e. completed) events in the past whereas past perfect or pluperfect is used to denote a backshift or flashback from a fixed viewing point set in the past. The tense prototypes designed based on Radden & Dirven's (2007) description are as follows:

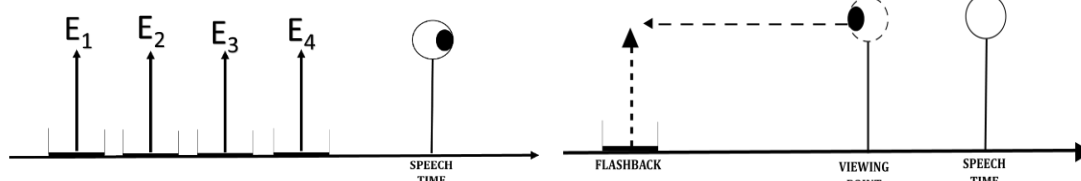


Figure 1. Illustration of Past Simple

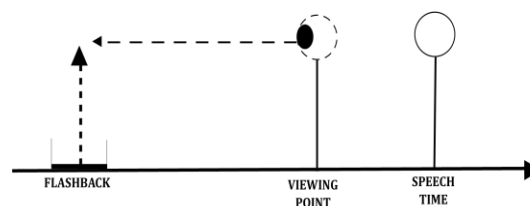


Figure 2. Illustration of Past Perfect

- 1) *I arrived at the platform for the Tokyo express train at 10:03. The train **had left** at 10:02 sharp. So I had to wait another hour for the next train.*
(p. 222)

Example (1) clearly shows that past simple denotes the forward sequence of events that happened in the storyline: the action of 'arriving' and 'waiting'. The event expressed in past perfect, on the other hand, is not part of the narrative progression of events; in fact, it stops the sequence and makes a flashback to explain why I had to wait for another hour (i.e. a reason). As argued by Lascarides & Asher (1993), past perfect can be used to contribute to the coherence of story by providing details of a particular event, e.g. reason, elaboration, parallel or contrasting events. Suffice to say, it is not merely 'an event before another past event' as stated in many grammar books such as those of Azar & Hagen (2009), Murphy (2004) and Swan (2005).

Then, the next question arises regarding how to present these CG theoretical bases in pedagogical grammar. Holme (2009) has proposed several considerations that L2 teachers need to pay heed to when designing CG-based classroom materials.

Based on the ideas of semantic conceptualization and symbolization by Langacker (2008) and Taylor (2008), it is suggested that grammar can be depicted through diagrammatic, pictorial or cinematographic imagery (Holme, 2009). These illustrations are said to be helpful in that they make each grammatical form more predictable, thereby enabling students to recognize meanings with their respective forms. Secondly, grammar needs to be learned by means of explicit metalinguistic description (Holme, 2009; Tyler, 2008). This conforms to the analysis by Norris & Ortega (2000) who pinpoints that explicit grammar explanations could be more beneficial than a pure inductive lesson. Along with explicit information, they also argue that the explanation is complemented with some meaningful tasks. Such is an instance of what Li, Ellis & Zhu (2016) has found pedagogically valuable: Task-Supported Language Teaching (TSLT). Lastly, as mentioned earlier in regards to the notion of usage, discourse is inevitably necessary to be the primary source of language use. Concerning past perfect and past simple, they are found to be widespread in narrative context according to a corpus study by Biber, Johansson,

Leech, Conrad & Finegan (1999). Using all of these grounds, the researcher designed all of the instruments in such a way that all of them are in line with CG values as will be elaborated in the following section.

Method

Briefly, this study employed a quasi-experimental study with pre-test and post-test design carried out with one experimental group. The study was administered to 27 EFL learners for approximately two weeks. The study consisted of pre-test in the first week and 90-minute treatment divided into two sessions as well as an immediate post-test in the second week.

In this study, 27 senior high school students of grade XI at a private school in West Jakarta participated, but only 20 scores were used because of the fact that some students did not take part in one or more sessions of the study. All of them studied English as a Foreign Language (EFL) formally at school for approximately 135 minutes each week.

There were at least two research instruments utilized in this study: tests and CG handout. Formerly, all of these were validated through a pilot study conducted months prior to the real experiment, which ensured the validity and reliability of the test. The pre-test and post-test were made equal in terms of question items and difficulty. The format of the test per se was adapted from the test used in Bielak & Pawlak's (2013) study with some modifications. The test consisted of three major parts: controlled production (i.e. isolated sentences and mini-narratives) and free production (i.e. translation task). The controlled production was presented in the form of gap-filling items whilst in the latter, students were asked to translate from Indonesian to English and used past perfect and past simple where necessary.

The treatment, including the handout, was likewise designed based on CG principles. First and foremost, the author implemented discourse-based grammar teaching in which a narrative recount text was used as the source of instructional targets, which conforms to the usage-based nature of CG (Langacker, 2008). Following was a set of CG-based explanations of the tenses (i.e. viewing point and flashback) accompanied with pictorial symbolization. Not only pictures, the teacher also showed a *Ratatouille* video as an example that demonstrated how past perfect was used in an authentic context. Lastly, to help students grasp the concepts, interpretation tasks (Ellis, 1995) were given to guide them in mapping forms with their meanings, and a collaborative-output based activity in the form of text editing (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011) was conducted to spur students to produce the target items communicatively with their peers.

The whole research procedure was divided into three major sessions held within two weeks. Initially, the experimental group was given a pre-test for 40 minutes, and after a gap of one week, the classroom activities were divided into two sessions on two consecutive days. In the first session, the subjects were involved in reading comprehension and theory exploration. Teacher explicitly explained the concept of both tenses with the assistance of diagrammatic and cinematographic (i.e. video) representation of the tenses. Ending this session was the first section of the interpretation task in which they needed to match which event from the text is the viewing point or the flashback. On the day after, the students proceeded to the

next section where in they had to match the flashback events with their respective viewing points. Afterwards, they were engaged in text editing activity. They interacted with their partners while delving into the use of the tenses. An immediate post-test was conducted right after this whole treatment.

The obtained data were analyzed statistically with SPSS 17. Normality test of Shapiro-Wilk was necessary to be performed to ensure the normal distribution of the pre-test data because normal data is a prerequisite for t-test to be valid (Howell, 2014). Next, paired-sample t-tests were used to identify whether there was any significant improvement of scores from pre-test to post-test. This was not only done with the overall scores to answer the first research question, but also those of each test section to answer the second one.

Findings and Discussion

As elaborated earlier, before utilizing the paired-sample t-tests to answer the research questions, one needs to make sure that the data is normally distributed. Below is the calculation of normality test:

Table 1. Tests of Normality

Pre-Test Section	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df.	Sig.
Overall Score	.942	20	.265
Isolated Sentences	.963	20	.597
Mini-Narratives	.970	20	.763
Translation Task	.939	20	.228

Table 1 clearly demonstrates that all of the scores to be analyzed are normal, shown by the significance value that exceeds 0.05 ($p > 0.05$). With this data in hand, paired-sample t-test can be utilized as follows:

Table 2. Paired-Sampled T-Test Results (N=20)

Group	Pre-Test		Post-Test		t-score	Significance ($p < 0.05$)
	M ean	S D	M ean	S D		
Overall	6	1	80	7.2	-	.000
Score	8.47	1.50	.10	2	4.420	
Isolated	8	1	86	11.	-	.208
Sentences	1.35	1.72	.73	60	1.303	
Mini-	7	1	81	13.	-	.006
Narratives	2.00	2.58	.50	79	3.123	
Translation	5	1	72	6.3	-	.000
Task	2.07	7.60	.07	6	4.886	

Concerning the first research question about whether CG-based instruction will help EFL learners understand the tenses better, it is observable in Table 2 that with significance value lower than 0.05, there is indeed a significant gain from pre-test to post-test in terms of the students' overall test scores. This conforms to many arguments set forth by CG proponents (Langacker, 2008; Tyler, 2008) who state that CG indeed owns the potential to ameliorate grammar teaching. Furthermore, the results are generally in line with some previous studies (Bielak & Pawlak, 2013;

Kermer, 2016) that pointed out the effectiveness of CG in complementing pedagogical grammar in L2 contexts. However, some intriguing findings are noticeable concerning the second research question of how CG-based instruction affects students' understanding of the tenses when they are put in distinct tasks and contexts.

In the first part of controlled production task (i.e. isolated sentences), the score gain is found to be insignificant as the value is more than 0.05. Despite that, this does not denote that there is inconsistency of results with the overall scores. It is rather misleading to conclude that CG is not actually effective to help students tackle this type of grammar items. Under further scrutiny, there is one major caveat: the ceiling effect phenomenon—one statistical event where most of the subjects score relatively high in the pre-test, and by this way, it is less possible to determine whether a treatment can bring about significant improvement (Vogt, 2005). The data shows that there were at least 55% of the subjects that scored above 80 out of 100 in this test section, meaning that they had formerly understood the tense use at sentential level. Plus, it can be argued that they were already familiar with sentence gap-filling exercises whose format was pervasive in many popular 'traditional' grammar books (Azar & Hagen, 2009; Murphy, 2004).

Unlike isolated sentence part, the scores garnered from both mini-narrative and translation tasks are in consonance with the overall test result. The significant increase of scores is salient in both sections as proven by the significance value that is lower than 0.05. This can be attributed to the fact that the perspectives of CG towards past perfect and past simple are broadened. Students were told during the treatment that both tenses do not merely denote the temporal relation, but they were also made aware of the notion that past perfect was used as well to contribute to the narrative coherence (Lascarides & Asher, 1993).

In general, the findings show that CG-based instruction is effective to be incorporated into grammar teaching. There are indeed a few factors that account for the success of CG in helping learners comprehend and use the instructional items, and all of these are parallel to the arguments proposed by Langacker (2008), Taylor (2008) and Tyler (2012).

Most likely influencing the success of CG in the present study, the substantial role of the usage-based principle of CG is not to be ignored. It is manifested in the form of discourse-based grammar learning wherein every single grammatical item is put contextually into discourse—in this case, narrative discourse. The tenses are constantly explored by the students particularly in regards to their authentic use and function when utilized in a text. This could fill the gap of what earlier CG-based studies of Bielak & Pawlak (2013) and Kermer (2016) actually missed: the lack of authentic discourse.

The next considerable factor is the way the meaning of grammatical items are illustrated through diagrams and movie clips, i.e. symbolization of grammar (Holme, 2009). The symbols managed to demonstrate the notion of flashback event and viewing point when they were chained into a real and authentic context. This was even further supported by the teacher's explicit elaboration of these grammar representations.

The last component whose effect is not negligible is the utilization of meaningful and interactive CG-based tasks integrated with explicit explanation from the teacher as Norris & Ortega (2000) have suggested. Both tasks, i.e. interpretation task and text editing, played different roles in shaping students' understanding of the tenses. Whilst the interpretation task—which is basically an input-based task—successfully guides students in exploring the contextual relation of the two tenses, the collaborative output task spurs students to produce the target items along with their partners. This exemplary application of Task-Supported Language Teaching (TSLT) which amalgamates both tasks and explicit information is evidently beneficial, confirming the study of Li, Ellis & Zhu (2016).

Conclusion

Cognitive Grammar is known to be recently thriving and carries over its capacity to aid grammar learning in EFL setting. The present study has been able to show how CG-based materials and instructions can be of substantial assistance for students in understanding the concept of tense and aspect, notably the use of past perfect and past simple. What is more, not only has CG contributed much to students' controlled production skill at isolated sentential level, but it has also been proven to be helpful to enhance their controlled as well as free production in a more contextual setting, i.e. narrative discourse. It is evident that CG, whose nature tends to be theoretical, can actually be adapted into EFL classroom practices appropriately and effectively without burdening students with too many technical jargons.

With such benefits, it is expected that both EFL teachers and students will benefit from applying CG in their classroom. Teachers are equipped with a more contextual, authentic and cognitively accessible perspective of CG when they are about to teach the tenses, and students are likewise to reap benefits in such a way that they receive a more complete description of the tenses that helps them use those target forms in a wider context. Aside from pedagogical merits, CG offers a rich and insightful research field as its potential has not been much explored in Indonesian EFL contexts, let alone its applicability for teaching tense and aspect. Eventually, it is not exaggerating to state that it is about time that CG deserves its stage in EFL grammar teaching.

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THE USE OF GOOGLE TRANSLATE IN EFL ESSAY WRITING

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Abstract

Writing skill is considered a difficult skill for some of the students because of limited vocabulary as well as grammatical weaknesses. Therefore, this study aims to investigate further the practice of GT in EFL essay writing as well as its role in language learning. The study was conducted in Universitas Kristen Krida Wacana, involving eight respondents from Ukrida Department of English. Two methods were used, such as mediated-observation and interview. A writing task was given to each respondent and her/his writing process was recorded using screen-recording application. The data collected from the writing tasks were analyzed by classifying it into appropriate writing aspects while the interview data were transcribed. The result showed that students used GT in three different aspects: vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. Vocabulary became the highest used, with word-level became the first one, followed by phrase as a second highest, and sentence as the third. Spelling became the fourth highest used, while grammar was the least used among students. It is also found that GT is perceived as a dictionary as students used GT mostly in understanding vocabulary items.

Keywords: Google Translate, essay writing, vocabulary

Introduction

Google Translate (GT) as one of the products provided by Google has become a popular translation tool for language students. As English is still considered as a foreign language in Indonesia, many Indonesian students, even college students appear to use GT to help them in learning English. This tool tends to help the students to get the translation quickly and easily.

From the four main skills in English, writing is considered as a difficult skill for students to acquire (Al-Badi, 2015; Al Darwish & Sadeqi, 2016; Belkhir & Benyelles, 2017; Huwari, I & Al-Khasawneh, 2013; Younes & Albalawi, 2015). The reason behind this issue is because writing skill has many components that students need to master in order to have a better writing performance, for example, subject-verb agreement, word order, and diction. Moreover, first language transfer (Belkhir & Benyelles, 2017), grammatical weakness (Huwari, I & Al-Khasawneh, 2013), the limited number of vocabulary and idioms as well as less experience with second language (Salem, 2007) are other reasons why students find writing difficult. Since writing, especially essay writing has become a problem for EFL learners (Ahmed, 2010), the existence of GT appears to play an essential role to help them while writing an essay.

GT has become a debatable issue whether this tool can be applied in language learning. Many researchers have discussed this translation tool regarding its output, for example, Ghasemi and Hashemian (2016) investigated an error analysis from English-to-Persian and Persian-to-English, and Santoso (2010) examined an error analysis from Bahasa Indonesia to German. However, a discussion related to the Online Translation (OT) and writing are still scarce (Fredholm, 2014, 2015). This study, therefore, discusses further the students' use of GT in EFL essay writing. It aims to find out which writing purpose that the students consult through GT.

A word-processing program is one of the examples of the technology in language learning (Alsulami, 2016; Oxford, 2004; Walker & White, 2013). Kasapoglu-Akyol (as cited in Alsulami, 2016) said that using this program is a great method to assist students' writing development. Microsoft Word as a word-processing program has many features that are beneficial for students in facilitating their writing process (Walker & White, 2013). The spelling and grammar checker are few of the features from Microsoft Word (Nomass, 2013) that are usually used by the students. Those features are mostly used by the language learners in writing because sometimes they make many mistakes in terms of spelling and grammar as they have a grammatical weakness (Huwari, I & Al-Khasawneh, 2013) and less experience with the target language (Ibnian, 2011).

Medvedev (2016) shared his idea regarding the advantages of GT. It has a free access. The users only need to open its website in a browser or download the app in their gadget to use it. It is also instant, in a quick click, the users could get the translation result. It also provides a variety of languages. Photo recognition becomes one feature in GT application in students' smartphone that they use in order to save their time, especially when they try to understand some English texts. The student only need to take a picture of words or text, then let the tool finishes the job.

Although it has some great benefits, GT still has some drawbacks. The most discussed drawback from this tool is the incorrect translation for a longer sentence or text (Medvedev, 2016; Santoso, 2010). Medvedev (2016) stated that GT is unable to handle a longer sentence. If it translates a longer sentence, usually this tool gives a word-per-word translation. Santoso (2010) even mentioned that this tool cannot handle idiom or figurative language. Furthermore, he added that the length of the text determines the quality of the product translated; the shorter the text, the better the result. van Rensburg et al. (2012) found out that from six different text types (newspaper article, minutes, class notes, official letter, examination, and PowerPoint slides), only PowerPoint slides that have a good result when translating it from Afrikaans to English using GT. The reason behind this is because the slides do not contain full sentences; only phrases are used.

Jin and Deifell (2013) added that GT is used as a complementary tool because this tool does not have a grammatical function. It is said that GT is unable to handle the subject verb agreement (Bozorgian & Azadmanesh, 2015). Bozorgian and Azadmanesh said that this tool does not have a capability to identify the subject-verb agreement because the tool does not know the rule of the agreement. This is different from a human translator who is aware of the principles. Another drawback from GT is a translation in context (Medvedev, 2016). He suggested the students

be aware of using GT in their language learning when translating words in context. This is because GT can “cause some misunderstanding in the choice of words” (p. 185).

The goal of every student when they have a writing assignment is to produce a good writing, so they can also have a good score. There are several aspects that are required for the students to create an effective writing: organization, clarity, word choices, and mechanics (Starkey, 2004). Organization refers to how the students arrange the idea in their writing. It means that the idea of the writing should be clear and organized logically. If the writing has a good organization, the reader can easily follow the writer’s idea. Clarity is one of the essential elements of writing that students need to possess to make a readable and understandable writing for the reader (Hamadouche, 2010; Souhila, 2015).

Word choice refers to how the students choose the words to express their own ideas in their writing. Choosing the right words while pouring the ideas in writing is one of the best ways to deliver the message to the reader (Starkey, 2004). Word choice is strongly related to vocabulary. Vocabulary is defined as words that are needed to convey students’ ideas and meaning (Alqahtani, 2015). Moreover, vocabulary plays an important role in language skills as it determines the success of the language use.

Mechanics in writing can consist of many things, some of them are grammar and spelling. Grammar refers to the knowledge that the students have about the rule of language. Spelling is considered as one of the important aspects of mechanics because in EFL context, teachers tend to focus on this trait when grading the students’ writing (Hamadouche, 2010). In addition, having a good spelling in the writing gives a credibility to the students (Alred, Brusaw, & Oliu, 2009; Hamadouche, 2010). Moreover, Starkey (2004) emphasized the importance of spelling in writing, saying if students make spelling mistakes, the readers’ impression towards the writer seems to be negative.

Many researchers have been discussing the use of Machine Translation (MT) in language learning. Clifford et al. (2013), for example, investigated the use of MT using survey at Duke University in the USA. He administered the surveys to the undergraduates studying French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. The study shows that the students use MT mostly for vocabulary (91%), followed by the idiomatic expression (36%), transition words or connectors (31%), verb tenses (29%), and word order (20%). Moreover, they use MT to translate individual words (89%), short phrases (62%), full sentences (16%), and short paragraph (7%). It is stated that if the students translate from their target languages (Spanish, French, Italian, and Portuguese) into English, one of the activities that they usually do with MT is rechecking what they have written.

O’neill (2012) investigated the effect of Online Translation (OT) on French as a foreign language in writing skill. One of the main focuses of his study is the effect of OT in second language features in writing skill, such as “comprehensibility, vocabulary, syntax, grammar, spelling, and content” (p. 67). The result of his study indicates that the use of Online Translation (OT) has an effect on some categories, such as comprehensibility as well as spelling and accent, while the rest of the features do not have a significant difference among groups. Moreover, the use of

OT in writing could decrease the error related to orthography. Regarding the use of OT, most students use this translation tool to look up for words and phrases.

Fredholm (2014) examined OT use in Swedish learners studying Spanish at the upper secondary school. It focuses on the effect on morph syntactic and lexical-pragmatic accuracy in essay writing. The study found out that the use of OT does not really affect the students' writing performance. It is neither improving the writing performance nor provide worse results.

Method

The method of the research was a qualitative method. This research was a case study of eight students, exploring the practice of GT in students' essay writing. This research involved eight undergraduate students from the first to the fourth year in an English Department located in Jakarta. The respondents were purposively chosen because they were the ones who used GT in their writing assignment. Mediated-observation was used to investigate the exploration of GT used among the respondents. Mediated-observation refers to the use of a computer as an observation instrument to record the respondents' action on the computer screen using an available software.

The respondents were asked to write a narrative essay and their writing activity was recorded using a screen recording from *QuickTime Player* application as well as supervised by the researcher. After the writing task was done, the screen recording and the writing file were saved into a folder of each respondent. Each respondent had a code. The code was from 01 to 08. The writing session was conducted once only because of the limited time the respondents had. Then, there was an interview to know their use of GT in depth.

To analyze the data, the first thing to do was watching the screen recording of each respondent. Then, listing and classifying each data from the screen recording into a table in *Microsoft Excel*. In analyzing the item that the respondents had input to GT, five different writing aspects were detected:

Word: If the respondents inserted a single item in the GT box, it was classified as a word.

Phrase: If the respondents input a group of words, it was considered a phrase. The phrase can be any type of phrase, such as noun phrase, prepositional phrase, verb phrase, and so on.

Sentence: The item classified as a sentence if the respondents inserted at least subject and predicate, sentence fragment, or a clause.

Grammar: This related to the grammatical thing, such as a plural form.

Spelling: If the respondents used GT to check word spelling, it was included in the spelling aspect.

Then, the next step focused on the interview data. The data from the interview was transcribed, then it was classified into a table based on the question that was being asked.

Findings and Discussion

It is found out that the students use GT for three different aspects of the essay writing: vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. Vocabulary is divided into three

different level: word level, phrase level, and sentence level. This aims to take a look closer into which level has the highest use among the student. The total findings from mediated-observation are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The total use of Google Translate

Writing Aspect	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	Total	%
Vocabulary Word	14	8	2	6	17	5	13	16	81	68.07%
Phrase	5	0	0	1	4	2	8	4	24	20.17%
Sentence	3	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	7	5.88%
Grammar	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.84%
Spelling	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	4	6	5.04%
Total	24	9	2	7	22	7	24	24	119	100%

The total of the data collected through the mediated-observation from the respondents' screen recording is 119. Table 1 shows that there are 81 attempts for word, followed by the phrase, which has 24 attempts. The sentence has 7 attempts, while spelling has 6 attempts. Grammar becomes the least used, with only one time. All respondents use GT for vocabulary in word level, while only six respondents use GT to consult phrase. Then, only three respondents use GT for sentence and spelling. Meanwhile, only one respondent that used GT for checking grammar. Respondent 1, 7, and 8 have used GT the most, with the total use is 24 times. It is followed by Respondent 5 who used GT 22 times. Respondent 2 used GT 9 times, while Respondent 4 and 7 are 7 times respectively. Respondent 3 used GT the least, with only 2 times.

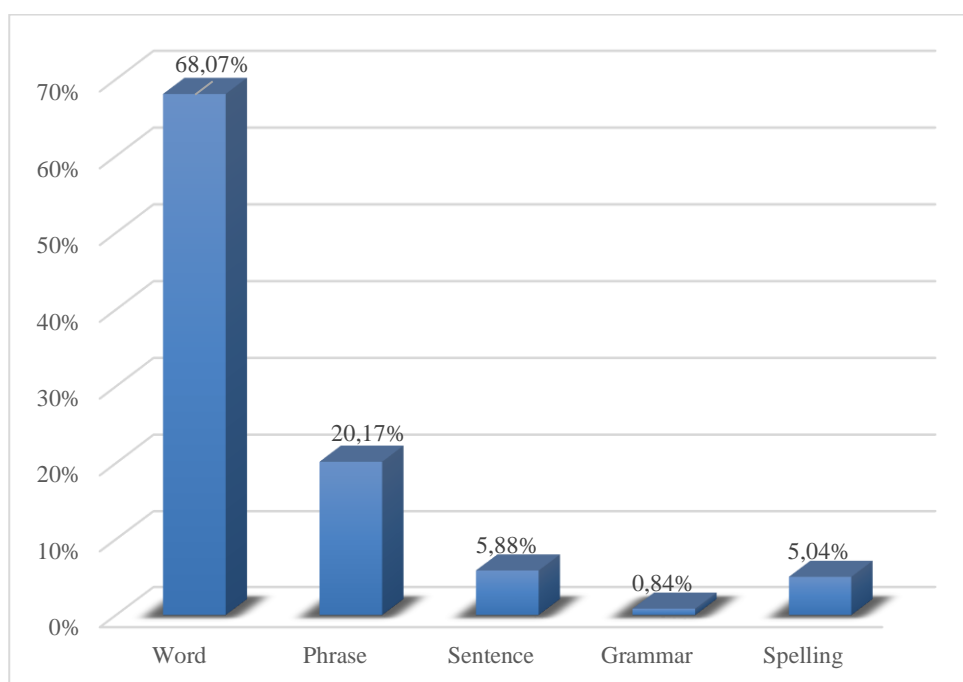


Figure 1. The use of Google Translate

Figure 1 presents the percentage of Google Translate (GT) use in this study. The highest percentage is the word with 68.07%. The second highest is the phrase, with 20.17%. The sentence becomes the third one, with a percentage of 5.88%, followed by spelling with 5.04%. While grammar becomes the least one, with only 0.84%.

Table 2. Interview result

The purpose of using GT	Translating the word or idiom that they do not know, finding new vocabulary, if there is an assignment, checking their diction and spelling
The reason for choosing GT in writing	GT is the easiest/simplest way because they only need to type the words that they do not know and the result will show up directly. Using GT is faster if using a dictionary, it takes much time Not confident with the writing, sometimes the meaning of the word that has been written is different with the context
GT is helpful in writing context?	Yes, but only in finding or translating a word that they do not know Helpful for beginner
Benefit	Simple, easy to be accessed, feature (voice, upload photo)
Drawback	Wrong translation, especially with phrase & a longer sentence; sentence structure & grammar are incorrect; unreliable, especially with context

From mediated observation, it is found out that all respondents use GT mostly in vocabulary aspect. The highest one is in word level with 81 data (68.07%), followed by phrase with 24 data (20.17%), and sentence with only 7 data (5.88%) out of 119 in total. These findings confirm the study from O'Neill (2012) and Clifford et al. (2013). O'Neill's study found out that most of the students use Online Translation (OT) to look for words and phrases. This is based on the self-report of his respondent on the translation use. Moreover, Clifford et al.'s (2013) study, which uses a survey, found out students used the Machine Translation (MT) mostly for vocabulary (91%). Furthermore, Clifford et al.'s study also revealed that students used MT to translate individual words (89%), short phrases (62%), full sentences (16%), and the short paragraph (7%).

All respondents use GT in the word level. There was at least one attempt for each respondent. While in phrase level, there are two respondents (R2 and R3) who did not use GT in this aspect and in sentence level, there are only three respondents (R1, R5, and R7) who used GT in the sentence level. R2 and R3 have a similar belief. During the interview session, both claimed that they rarely use GT due to the lecturer's prohibition in using GT at the university level. It is better to use GT only at the word level. R3 even suggested not to use GT in the writing because

there are some better tools that can support the writing process, such as Oxford and Cambridge dictionary.

As mentioned earlier, all respondents use GT in word level. This is due to the drawback of GT, that especially cannot handle a longer sentence. Medvedev (2016) mentioned the bad thing about Machine Translation (MT). Some of them are providing a literal translation, especially with a longer sentence, inaccurate grammatical output, and inequivalent translation of cultural references. Moreover, Santoso (2010) states another drawback, commenting that GT is unable to handle idiom or figurative language. During the interview, all respondents agree that GT gives an inaccurate result in terms of translating sentences. They also claim that they use GT mostly for vocabulary in a word level because GT result is inaccurate if it is dealing with a longer sentence. Because of these downsides, all respondents tend to minimize their GT use to be only in consulting word level, while six of them in both word and phrase level.

Although all respondents stated that GT cannot handle a longer sentence, and therefore they use it limited to find words, a contradictory finding is discovered in the mediated observation data as there are three respondents (R1, R5, and R7) that use GT in sentence. R1 used GT twice in sentence aspect, while R5 was only once and R7 was three times.

The three respondents use GT in sentence due to finding the proper words in their sentence. It seems that they wanted to check what they had written in their writing task. In writing, the word choice is one of the crucial aspects because it aims to deliver the message to the reader (Starkey, 2004). If they cannot choose the right words in their writing, the readers are unable to understand what they try to convey. Not to mention that vocabulary has a vital role in language skill because it determines the success of the language use (Alqatani, 2015). As a result, this matter seems to burden some of the students when they get a writing assignment. Because of this problem, some students tend to find a shortcut to solve the difficulty. Therefore, the existence of GT helps the students to get the proper words for their writing.

One of the examples is taken from R7's attempt as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Example of GT use in a sentence

R	Input	Output	Before	After	Time
7	kita berangkat dari sekolah	we leave school	we went	we left	26:10

At first, R7 had written *we went*. Then, she moved to GT to check whether the words that she wanted to write have the same meaning with what she intended to write. After checking with GT, the result was different. At the end, she followed the result from GT, which was *we leave*, with a change in the tense becoming *we left*. *Went*, which is a past form of *go* is inaccurate to describe the word *berangkat*

in a sentence of *kita berangkat dari sekolah*. *Berangkat* in that sentence might refer to *depart from the school*. Therefore, *we left school* is more proper than *we went school*.

Spelling

It is also discovered that spelling becomes the second least used in GT. The use of GT in this aspect is only 6 out of 119. This shows that students rarely consult spelling in GT. The reason behind this finding is because the students use *Microsoft Word*, which is a word-processing program, to write their writing assignment. This program has many features that can help students in their writing assignment and one of them is the spelling checker (Nomass, 2013). This feature is reducing the students' error in spelling by telling them which word that is incorrect. It also gives a recommendation for the students when they make a mistake. If there is a red line below the word, it means that the students have made a mistake. The easiest way to correct the mistake is by right-clicking the word to see the recommendation given by the program. If the recommendation does not provide the word that the students want to write, the students have to find another tool that can solve their problem.

O'Neill (2012) found out that Online Translation (OT) gives a good effect in terms of spelling as OT could minimize the error that is related to orthography. Although O'Neill's study focuses on French writing, this effect can be also affected the English for Foreign Language (EFL) writing. During the interview, R8 admitted that she used GT because she was unsure about the spelling of some words, especially with the ones which have a similar sound or spelling. In the writing task, she was unsure between the word *thought* and *through*. That was why she checked those words in GT to make sure which word that is correct. This is in line with Clifford's (2013) study that said if the students use translation tool from the target language, in this case is English, they usually recheck on the word that they have written.

It is said that spelling is one of the crucial aspects of mechanics because spelling gives a credibility to the students' writing (Alred et al., 2009; Hamadouche, 2010). It is believed that making an error in spelling gives a negative impression from the readers (Starkey, 2004). Because of that, students are more careful in their writing so the readers do not judge negatively towards their writing. Not to mention that when grading the students' writing, teachers are likely focusing on the spelling (Hamadouche, 2010). With these in mind, the presence of GT helps the students tackle the problem in spelling that cannot be handled by *Microsoft Word*.

Grammar

Most of the respondents hesitated to use GT in grammar aspect because they believe GT could not handle grammar properly. Bozorgian and Azadmanesh (2015) stated that GT cannot handle the subject-verb agreement because the tool does not know the rule of the agreement. However, it is found out that there is only one respondent that used GT in this aspect.

Table 4. Example of GT use in Grammar

R	Input	Output	Before	After	Time
1	tiga salib	three crosses	three cross	three crosses	18:05

Table 4 indicates there is at least one student that still use GT in consulting grammar. Similar to the use in vocabulary aspect in sentence level, R1 used GT in grammar aspect to check on what she had written in her writing task. In this case, R1 wanted to check the plural form in the phrase of *tiga salib*. Since she was unsure about what she had written, she used GT to help her solve her uncertainty. Moreover, although it is said that GT does not have a grammatical function (Jin & Deifell, 2013), this tool seems to have a grammar capacity to help the students in a particular state, such as in checking the plural form.

Role of Google Translate

It is found out that the respondents use GT as a supporting tool in their language learning. This shows that they do not rely much on GT. Jin and Deifell (2013) stated that GT functions as a complementary tool due to its pitfall, which does not have a grammatical function. All respondents use GT mostly for finding or translating vocabulary. They use this tool frequently from Bahasa Indonesia to English. This means that GT is used as a dictionary since the respondents try to find a certain vocabulary that they do not know in English. This role is similar to the role of MT that Clifford et al. (2013) provided. They stated that MT is perceived as a dictionary because it is a helpful tool to find a vocabulary.

Although GT has some drawbacks, it does not mean that GT gives a negative impact for students. Fredholm (2014) found out that OT does not really affect the students' writing performance. It is neither improving the writing performance nor provide worse results. Even though GT does not affect the writing performance, GT still can assist the students in their language learning, especially in language skill. Clifford et al. (2013) stated that MT is perceived as a helpful tool for finding vocabulary. Moreover, Jaganathan et al. (2014) and Jaganathan and Ling (2015) claimed that GT has an essential role in language learning. Most of the respondents agree that GT is helpful in essay writing. However, there is a limitation from GT in aiding their language learning. The majority of the respondents admitted that GT is helpful if it is dealing with only words. On the contrary, if it is dealing with longer sentences, it is not helpful anymore.

Conclusion

Google Translate (GT) becomes a debatable topic since its emergence in 2006 whether this tool can be applied in the language learning or not. As writing skill is considered difficult skill to be acquired, students tend to use this tool in writing skill. This study provides the information about GT used by the students in EFL essay. It is found out that the students use GT in three different aspects, such as vocabulary, spelling, and grammar. Vocabulary becomes the most used aspect in GT, with word-level becomes the highest one, followed by phrase as the second most used. Sentence becomes the third most used while spelling becomes the fourth. Grammar is the fifth, becoming the least used among the others.

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Bronfen, E. & Kavka, M. (Eds.). (2001). *Feminist consequences: Theory for a new century*. New York: Columbia University Press.

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Helfer, M. E., Keme, R. S., & Drugman, R. D. (1997). *The battered child* (5thed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

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Luban, D. (2000). The ethics of wrongful obedience. In D. L. Rhode (Ed.), *Ethics in practice: Lawyers' roles, responsibilities, and regulation* (pp. 94-120). New York: Oxford University Press.

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