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LLT Journal	Vol. 21	Suppl	Pages: 1-110	Yogyakarta June 2018	e-ISSN: 2579-9533 p-ISSN: 1410-7201
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Published by  
English Language Education Study Program  
Sanata Dharma University



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Website Staff	: Ricadonna Alvita
ISSN	: p-ISSN 1410-7201; e-ISSN 2579-9533
Address	: Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan, Universitas Sanata Dharma Mrican, Tromol Pos 29 Yogyakarta – 55002
Phones	: (0274) 513301, 515352, ext. 1220
Fax	: (0274) 562383

**Notes on articles contribution:**

*LLT Journal: A Journal Language and Language Teaching*, to appear twice a year (in April and October) for teachers and students, is published by the English Language Education Study Program, Faculty of Teachers Training and Education, Sanata Dharma University. This journal welcomes articles on language and language teaching written in English.

**Indexed in:**



**OBAMA'S REMARKS ON TRAYVON MARTIN'S DEATH  
SEEN FROM CDA VIEWPOINTS:  
AN EXAMPLE OF AUTHENTIC ACADEMIC WRITING MATERIAL**

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**DOI:** doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2101

Received 20 December 2017; revised 5 Februari 2018; accepted 1 June 2018

**Abstract**

Racism and all its problems like injustice, inequality, discrimination, and so on, have become an interestingly never-ending topic to be discussed along the history. Even in America, a country which is so rich with its fighters of racial discrimination and injustice, this problem still occurs here and there. No matter how hard these heroes speak up their voices, this problem remains unsolved, or, at least, not entirely solved. One event, for example, happened on February 26, 2012 in Sanford, Florida, the United States of America. The victim was a young man named Trayvon Martin; an Afro-American high school student. George Zimmerman shot this seventeen-year-old teenager, which led to death. Zimmerman was a 28-year-old Hispanic American man. At that time, he worked as a watchman coordinator in the neighborhood. Martin temporarily stayed there. Obama, who was then the President of the United States, made a speech on Martin's death. This paper analyzes Barack Obama's speech from Discourse Analysis viewpoints, as well as the ideological and cultural discourse contained in the speech. In the text analysis, some significant aspects are discussed based on my understanding of SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics), that is, the aspects of connections, like mode, tenor, and field. Another central issue to be discussed in this paper is the ideological and cultural aspects of Obama's remarks upon Trayvon Martin's death. This speech can be a very good example of how an argumentative writing appeals so many people and makes them sympathize with the victim of the shooting. Through this paper, I hope that my own understanding of discourse analysis will be deepened, and readers will also gain some new horizon and knowledge of discourse study in general, including the cultural and ideological analysis of the text under study. I also hope that more convincing speeches of the authentic world like this one can benefit students of Academic Writing.

**Keywords:** authentic materials, academic writing, CDA, Obama's speech

**Introduction**

Understanding a text, be it spoken or written, is an important part of discourse analysis. A speech or an oration is considered as spoken discourse, which is delivered in public. In this paper, I chose Barack Obama's spontaneous oration upon the death Trayvon Martin. He was a seventeen-year-old teenager



with African-American blood. Martin was shot by Zimmerman, a Hispanic, which finally led to his death. The main reason behind the selection of this article is because I am particularly interested in Obama's speeches, which, to a great extent, have impressed so many people in and outside his home country. Another reason is because as we know, the US is famous for its great figures of justice and equality for the African-American people, and also for the hard struggle of its heroes. Up to this moment, these heroes still struggle for justice and equality in the land where multi-racial ethnicities and nationalities live. We can name great people who are persistently struggling against racism like Martin Luther King, James Cone, the founder of black Liberation Theology (Fresh Air, 2008), Oprah Winfrey, also Barack and Michele Obama. Those two reasons have inspired me to analyze this article.

Seen from the content, this speech can be a good authentic material for Academic Writing class, in which students can learn about some important academic writing features as well as skills. For example, students can learn about common fallacies that may be found in the speech, like bandwagoning (everybody has the idea that...), appeal to ignorance (lack of evidences), overgeneralization, either-or thinking, hasty generalization, ad-hominem (attacking the opponent's personality instead of the issue), or false analogy (Kemper, et al, 2012). Another way of using this speech is by asking students to know what they are up against, or how to take a stand (Smalley, Ruetten, & Kozyrev, 2012; Dollahite & Haun, 2012). They also can learn about other writing skills, like summarizing, paraphrasing, quoting, or referencing. In short, there are many rich lessons students can get about academic writing skills and knowledge from this speech.

## Theory

This speech was originally delivered by Obama as personal remarks in an unscheduled statement to the media on July 19, 2013 (Cohen, 2013). At that time, President Obama himself came to the podium to address the case of Trayvon Martin. He talked about race problems, and "stand your ground laws" in the speech (Terkel, 2014).

Here is the outline of the speech (Bump, 2013). Altogether, there are 44 paragraphs in the speech.

**Table 1. The Outline of the Speech**

Paragraphs 1-3	Introduction
Paragraphs 4-5	The legal process of the case in general
Paragraphs 6-13	Personal opinions on racial problems
Paragraphs 14-20	African-American community
Paragraphs 21-25	Reflective statements and questions about African-American boys
Paragraphs 26-34	Concrete things that can be done about state laws
Paragraphs 35-42	Hopes on better conditions for African-American boys
Paragraphs 43-44	Closing

Due to the limitation of space, this paper will only cover the issues of connections, like "mode", "tenor" and "field".

Referring to Martin and Rose (2004, pp. 242-243), register analysis in SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) deals with a dimension which involves tenor, mode, and field. Tenor concerns with relationships between interactants; while the one dealing with social activity is called field; and mode is related to the role of language. The table below, cited from Martin and Rose's (2004), will clarify.

**Table 2. Metafunctions**

Metafunction	Content	Notes
Interpersonal	Tenor	Role relationship
Ideational	Field	Social actions
Textual	Mode	Part of language

Details of tenor, mode and field form the text will be discussed below. Tenor, field, and mode together form the register of a text. They may be called register variables as well (Martin & Rose, 2004, pp.243-244). Now I will discuss the variables one by one.

### **Mode**

According to Martin and Rose (2004, p.244), there is one important variable that mode has, that is, "the amount of work that language is doing related to what is going on". Martin and Rose further took an example of Vincent Lingari's speech in which there are exophoric references referring to people, places, and things. They are materially present. The important white men refers to the Whites, us refers to Aborigines, and here refers to this land where the Afro-Americans suffer from discrimination.

The important White men are giving us this land ceremonially, ceremonially they are giving it to us. It belonged to the Whites, but today it is in the hands of us Aborigines all around here.

This kind of text is called context dependent, because we cannot process the participants' identification without any information from the situation. The key resource, which "unties" texts from situations, is the grammatical metaphors. This is due to their power to reconstrue activities as things. Hence, they break the iconic connections between linguistic and material activity. It will further transform social action into abstractions (Martin & Rose, 2004, p.245). Referring to Obama's speech, we can see how mode is used in paragraphs 8-12. I tried to present some intriguing statements from the speech.

You know, when Trayvon Martin was first shot, I said that this could have been my son. Another way of saying that is Trayvon Martin could have been me, 35 years ago.

And when you think about why, in the African-American community at least, there's a lot of pain around what happened here, I think it's important to recognize that the African-American community is looking at this issue through a set of experiences and a -- and a history that -- that doesn't go away. There are very few African-American men in this country who haven't had the experience of being followed when they were shopping in a department store. That includes me.

There are probably very few African-American men who haven't had the experience of walking across the street and hearing the locks click on the doors of cars. That happens to me -- at least before I was a senator. There are very few African-Americans who haven't had the experience of getting on an elevator and a woman clutching her purse nervously and holding her breath until she had a chance to get off. Here we can see how the exophoric references referring to people, places, and things are materially present.

### ***Tenor***

The key variables in tenor are, Martin and Rose claim (2003, p. 248), power and solidarity. They are the “vertical and horizontal dimensions of interpersonal relations”. This “power variable is used to generalize across genres, as far as equalities and inequalities of status are concerned”, as Martin and Rose mention in their book, *Working with Discourse* (2004).

According to Martin and Rose (2004, p. 248), in postcolonial society, it is claimed that there are five dimensions of inequality: generation, gender, ethnicity, capacity, and class. Generation refers to “inequalities” which are related to maturation. Gender refers to “sex and sexuality-based difference”. Ethnicity concerns with “racial, social, and cultural divisions”, while incapacity refers to “disabilities of any kind”. Class refers to “distribution of material resources”, and it becomes the most fundamental dimension, since postcolonial economic order depends on it. Social semiotic coding orientations are manifested through “physical embodiment” and also “semantic style”. The ways they work are culturally specific. In most texts, power and its relation to field must be carefully considered (Martin & Rose, 2004, p.248).

Citing from Poynton (1985), Martin and Rose (2004, p. 248) state that reciprocity of choice is a critical variable in power. “Social subjects of equal status construe equality”. It is done by having access to the same kinds of choices. Subjects with unequal status will take up different kinds of choices.

Solidarity, which is the horizontal dimension of tenor, is used to generalize across genres. There are two principles that Poynton (1995) suggests: proliferation and contraction. Proliferation is the idea that the closer someone is to someone else, the more meanings she/he has to exchange. Sharing feelings is a kind of critical resource for a relationship. Therefore, proliferation is powerful. Contraction refers to the amount of work which is needed to exchange meanings. It also refers to the idea that the better someone knows someone else, the less explicitness is needed. Where there are cultural differences, contracted realization can be particularly excluding (in Martin & Rose, 2004, p.250).

In Obama's speech, solidarity can be seen in paragraph 19, in which Obama calls African-American people as “black folks”. This is partly because Obama is a part of the African-American society, and he did experience things that were discriminating as he told in paragraphs 10-12. Also at the end of the speech, Obama did not address his audience as “ladies and gentlemen”, but, “guys”. This is due to his position and power as the President of the States, and he was addressing this speech to his people. Obama also address Americans as “folks” (para.22).

### ***Field***

The last variable of register is field. It concerns with a set of “activity sequences, which are oriented to some global purpose within institutions, family, community, or society” (Martin & Rose, 2004, p. 252). The sequences, the figures, and the taxonomies of participants together create expectations. This will be the basis for identifying fields. We have to consider expectations about what is going on.

Distinctive sequences, Martin and Rose (2004, pp. 252-253) claim, implicate distinctive events. Events implicate distinct participants, in relations to one another based on the compositions of a certain field. We can then explore different domains in life (differences between every day, technical, and institutional domains), and the apprenticeship. This is important to understand cultural differences related to communication. Field in Obama’s speech can be seen from several domains in life as described in the following table.

**Table 3. Field in Obama’s Speech**

African-American people
~ African-American community (para.9)
~ African-American men (para.10)
~ African-Americans (para. 12)
~ African-American boys (para. 20)
~ Black folks (para. 19)
Trayvon Martin
~ This (para.8)

### ***The Context of Culture and Situation in the United States***

The speech delivered by Obama was a personal response upon the death of an African-American young boy, by a Hispanic-American, George Zimmerman. The event took place on February 26, 2013. The context of situation and culture – which is the continuing problem of racism in the US, is presented below.

As widely known, racial discrimination has been a big issue in the States. This has started since the slavery era. Native Americans, African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Latin-Americans were the ones who suffered most from the heavy burden of legal sanction (Jordan, 2013). On the other hand, European-Americans, especially Anglo-Americans had privilege in terms of literacy, voting rights, citizenship, and some other aspects.

In the mid twentieth century, racial discrimination was banned in a large scale. It then began to be seen as socially unacceptable, and morally inappropriate. However, racism in politics still continues, and this can be reflected in socioeconomic inequality. The form of discrimination is indirect, and “racial stratification” still continues in housing, education, and governance (Jordan, 2013).

### ***Theory Application***

#### ***How the Text is produced as a Social Practice***

This text is full of ideological contents. Obama expressed his deep concern

on the case of the shooting of Martin and also about the challenges faced by African-American people in America in a wider context. This problem is an example of the never-ending problem of racism in America. As widely known, this problem rooted from slave era in the seventeenth century up to the 1960s. It was in the middle of the 20th century when racial segregation was banned. It also began to be considered as “socially and morally unacceptable”. Racism is reflected in socioeconomic inequality “racial stratification” continues and takes place in many aspects of life including housing, education, and government (Jordan, 2013). Seen from the social function, this text - which was originally a spoken speech by the President upon the death of a young African-American boy - is loaded with several significant messages.

First, this text shows Obama’s bravery in bringing up the matters of racial issues, African American discrimination problems to be specific, which have been going on for many centuries. This is a kind of reflection on the on-going racism in America (para 16). He also talked about injustice that often happens to African-American people in the US (para 9, 10-12). He was not afraid that this speech would become an obstacle for winning another election. He had no worries at all, and he was not afraid of losing public sympathy. Instead, he freely and bravely criticized the system of law in Florida, also the state and local government (para. 26-34).

Secondly, besides showing Obama’s bravery, this speech also reveals his intelligence. This is shown by the fact that he was able to make this personal, unscheduled speech. I assumed that Obama had little time to prepare this. Yet, he critically could see the matter of Martin’s shooting from social and judicial points of view, which were quite objective, despite the fact that he was an African-American man himself. Asking his fellow people to move forward and live in unity is another wise and brilliant side of his leadership (para. 35-42).

Thirdly, this text shows Obama’s great ability to empathize for the victims of injustice in America, by identifying Martin as his son and himself. He could brilliantly use language to make public picture this vividly. This can be found in paragraph 8, “You know, when Trayvon Martin was first shot, I said that this could have been my son. Another way of saying that is Trayvon Martin could have been me, 35 years ago.

#### ***What the Text is about***

As mentioned previously, this text, originally a spoken speech by Barack Obama as response of the death of a young African-American boy, Trayvon Martin, talks about racism problems which is still happening in the Uncle Sam’s country up to now. To make the discussion clearer, I presented the background of the shooting and a short biography of Obama below.

As mentioned above, Trayvon Martin was a seventeen-year-old African American teenager who was shot dead on February 26, 2012. He was shot in his temporary residence in Sanford, Florida, by George Zimmerman, a Hispanic. Zimmerman was the neighborhood watch coordinator in that area. Zimmerman shot Martin to death, and Martin did not have any weapon. Police came several minutes after the shooting took place. Zimmerman was arrested but then released after several-hour investigation.

The police chief explained that there was not adequate evidence to refute “Zimmerman’s claim of having acted in self-defense. He further stated that Zimmerman “had a right to defend himself with lethal force” (Robles, 2012). After flows of thousands of protesters, Zimmerman was arrested and investigated. He was finally charged with murder, and the jury acquitted him of “second-degree murder” and “manslaughter charges” on July 13, 2013. This reminds me of a novel by Alan Paton, *Cry, the Beloved Country* (1948). This novel tells a story about a man named Stephen Kumalo. Kumalo was sorrowfully grieving of losing his own son, Absalom who was arrested and then hung to death for murdering Arthur Jarvis, a white man, who ironically was an anti-racism activist in South Africa.

It is told that Absalom killed Jarvis accidentally for self-defense, as he was afraid and shocked to see Jarvis when burgling into Jarvis’ house. No matter how Absalom told the truth to the court about his innocence, he was convicted guilty of murdering Jarvis who was a white man. Jarvis was a kind of dream figure for the oppressed African people; someone who could be a solution for injustice in the land of South Africa. He died paradoxically in the hands of a man he stood for. Paton beautifully wrote about Kumalo’s hopes that someday, freedom will come to South Africa, though he may not experience it, “Kumalo knows that he will die long before peace comes to South Africa, because there is so much fear among the people.” (*Cry, Beloved Country*, Chapter 36).

#### ***Obama’s Short Biography***

Born on August 4, 1961, Barack Obama was a darling son of Barack Obama Sr. and Ann Dunham. Both parents were students at the University of Hawaii. Obama’s father returned to Kenya after leaving for Harvard, and his mother then remarried an Indonesian oil manager. They moved to Jakarta when he was 6. Returning to the States, Obama was brought up by his grandparents. Attending Columbia University did not make Obama happy because of the high racial tension. Then, Obama went to Harvard Law School in 1990. He was elected “the first African-American editor of Harvard Law Review”. He then worked in Chicago on voting-rights legislation, representing the victims of housing and employment discrimination. In the meantime, he began teaching at Chicago Law School. It was when he met Michelle Robinson, and the love story continued to marriage. She became Obama’s fellow attorney. In 2004, he was elected the US Senate as a Democrat. Four years later, he got a chance to run for President. January 2009 was the time when he began his service as the 44<sup>th</sup> President of the US. He was then reelected in November 2012.

#### ***Ideologies Represented in the Text: Discourse, Culture and Ideology***

According to Martin and Rose (2004, p.15), both ideology and power are interrelated. They run through language and culture. They position people within social context where they can have more or less power. Ideology and power can either open wide or make people’s access to resources of meaning smaller. They further state that up to now, the most outstanding example was apartheid in South Africa and its ideological divisions. Racism in the United States is, in my horizon, another interesting example of the issue of ideology and power.

In line with Martin and Rose, Fairclough (1992, p. 23) in his book, *Language and Power*, mentions that “language is one strand of the social”. He states, “All linguistic phenomena are social, but, not all social phenomena are linguistic”. Fairclough states further that discourse involves “social conditions of productions and social conditions of interpretations”. Social condition in this case is inter-related to the three levels of social organization, namely the level of social environment – where discourse occurs, social institution – which constitutes a wider matrix for discourse, and social levels as a whole (1992, p. 25).

Since language is related to social practice, people thus must analyze not only the text or the process of production and interpretation of the language. They must also see more deeply the relationship among the text, processes, and social conditions as well. There are three dimensions of discourse: description, interpretation, and explanation. Description concerns with “formal properties” in the text; while interpretation deals with “text and interaction”. Explanation concerns with “relationship between interaction and social context” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 26).

In a capitalist society, Fairclough (1992) claims, economic production is the place where “social classes start”, and the capitalist’s power largely depends on the ability to control. “Ideological power” is significant to the economic and political power. It is the power to project whether someone’s practices are universal and common sense. The significance exists because it is exercised in discourse (pp. 32-33).

Power relations, Fairclough explains, exist between social groupings in institutions. There are also power relations between men and women, and also between young and old, which have no connection to institutions. In reality, there is no transparent connection between class relations. However, class relations define the nature of society, and have basic influence of the society (p. 34). “Power relations are always relations of struggle”, Fairclough asserts. Social struggle happens between various social groupings. Examples to this are relations between men and women, employers and workers, black and white, young and old, and so on. Class struggle is an important property of social system. It can be more or less intense, and can appear in any social developments. Any kind of power exercise takes place under social struggle (1992, p. 34).

Discourse types and orders vary across cultures. White middle class “gatekeepers” are “likely to constrain discourse types which can be drawn on the dominant cultural groups” (p. 47). Fairclough concludes that discourse is where power is exercised and enacted. There are also power relations behind discourse. In all cases, power is “won, held, and lost in social struggle”. Talking about “power in discourse”, Fairclough claims that discourse is the place where power resides. In terms of “power behind discourse”, discourse is the stake of power. Fairclough adds that it is the control over discourse orders that becomes the powerful mechanism to sustain power (pp. 73-74).

Jorgensen and Phillips (2002, pp.60-64) strengthen the idea of relationship between discourse and social and cultural development in social domains. It is famous as Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Citing from Fairclough and

Wodak, Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) mention five common features of CDA as follows.

The first is about the character of the social and cultural processes and structures. It is partly “linguistic discursive”. It is partly through every day life’s “discursive practices” that social and cultural change take place. The aim of CDA, Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) further state, is “to shed light on the linguistic-discursive dimension of social and cultural phenomena”.

The second feature is discourse is a form of social practice. It constitutes the social world, but it is also constituted by other social practices. In CDA, language-as-discourse is a form of action that people can change the world through. Besides that, as Jorgensen and Philips (2002) claim, it is a form of action, which is socially and historically related with other social aspects.

The next feature is CDA engages in “concrete linguistic textual analysis” of language use in social interaction (Jorgensen & Philips, 2002). Language use should be analyzed in social context. Another feature is discourse functions ideologically. Discursive practices certainly contribute to the creation of unequal power relations between social groups (social groups refer to social classes, men-women relations, ethnic minorities and majority relations). The last feature is that CDA should be understood as critical approach, which is politically committed to social change.

Based on the theories above, I would like to say that this speech of Obama contains some ideological aspects, which are very deep and profound. The ideologies presented here are how racism still continues and becomes unavoidable in American society, which is known to be fighting earnestly against racial discrimination. The second ideology is the President’s efforts to awaken the nation’s awareness of the danger and disadvantages of racism. The last one is the President’s hopes for a better America.

Besides all those values, this speech is also very rich of academic writing features if both students and lecturers dig it deeper. Students can learn how to summarize, how to paraphrase, how to start with what others are saying, how to defend one’s stance, and learn about common fallacies as well.

## **Conclusion**

Analyzing an article is not an easy thing to do. We have to consider so many aspects beside the text itself, like the background of the article, the socio-political conditions at the time of writing. This field has tremendously gained an important place in educational research. This paper is an effort how I tried to see an article from discourse points of view. This has increasingly become an interesting phenomenon and it attracts may interest too.

It is expected that from this study, we gain better and deeper understanding of Discourse Analysis and also our comprehension of the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) gets better. The last is to say that we wish any reader of this paper also can gain something valuable, including lecturers and students of Academic Writing who are in search for authentic materials as model texts in their class.



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## **USING DEBATE ACTIVITIES TO DEVELOP INDONESIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILLS**

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**DOI:** [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2102](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2102)

received 2 October 2017; revised 23 May 2018; accepted 31 May 2018

### **Abstract**

This research explores the use of debate activities which are implemented in an Indonesian high school. The aim of this research was to find out students' perception on the use of debate activities in improving students' speaking skills. The participants of this research were eight students participating in a debate extracurricular club in a public school. It was a descriptive-qualitative research. The data were collected through observations, questionnaires, and interviews. There were three observations in the debate activities. After that, the researchers distributed the questionnaires to the students. Interviews were conducted with eight students. The research result showed that debate activities enriched students' vocabulary, improved students' confidence, and helped students to become better public speakers.

**Keywords:** debate, speaking skills, descriptive-qualitative

### **Introduction**

A new global trend is taking place and people, especially the young generation has to adjust to the new trends. Zarefsky (1996) explains that society undergoes a shift in the economy from "dominance by the manufacture to dominance by information" (p. 5). Consequently, good communication skills play a critical role. The future or at least today, young people face greater competitive pressures in numerous aspects of life, for example, in college, communities, or workplaces, where they are required to have good communication skills. The most obvious example is that today's world obtaining employment is not at all easy, therefore only those who are well-equipped and multi-skilled will be able to remain competitive. Zarefsky (1996) further states that today, employers and career counselors consider communication skills to be important in placing employees in a particular position, and this applies in any field of work (p. 5). Grice and Skinner (1995) explain that the important factors for college graduates in getting a job are oral communication and listening skills. Consequently, the young generation should equip themselves with various skills, including oral communication so that in the future, they will stand out as applicants for a job because of their outstanding communication abilities. It is reaffirmed by Treece (1978) that success in career, no matter in what occupation, position, or organization will rely heavily on the ability to effectively communicate and this is possibly exceeding the necessity of any other skills (p. 4).

Grice and Skinner (1995) say that there are three benefits of studying public speaking. Firstly, public speaking provides personal benefits such as helping people succeed in college, becoming more informed, and gaining self-confidence as well as self-esteem. Secondly, public speaking gives professional advantages such as enhancing the chances to obtain employment and helping people build a successful career. Finally, public speaking provides public benefits by helping people interact with each other so that they can play their roles in the society (p. 2-5). Jerry Seinfeld stated that even though possessing public speaking skills is undoubtedly beneficial, there are a great number of people who feel insecure or even terrified when they have to speak in public (as cited in Grice and Skinner, 1995, p. 35).

Debate can develop students' public speaking skills. It gives students opportunity to expand debating skills, such as English proficiency, logical and critical thinking, public speaking, and ability to formulate, present, and defend arguments (Freely, 1969, p. 30). Since competitive debating aims to convince the judges that a certain team's argument is better, it gives the opportunity to use analytical, critical thinking and public speaking skills which are useful in daily life.

The debate extracurricular has been carried out for some years in some schools in Indonesia. Therefore, the students experienced the debate activities and they have formed a perception of the activities. This research is concerned with the students' perception of the implementation of debate activities in improving speaking skills. The research question is presented as: How do debate activities improve students' speaking skills?

## **Literature Review**

### ***Speaking***

Goh and Burns (2012) state that "speaking is a combinatorial skill" (p. 13). It requires the ability to fulfill the various communicative demands through the efficient use of the spoken language. Second language speaking requires knowledge of the target language as a system of making meaning and an awareness of the contextual demands of speaking. It also calls for the use of various skills of using speech effectively and appropriately, according to the different communicative purposes. Goh and Burns (2012) indicate speaking skills include the ability to use a range of strategies to composite for gaps in knowledge and ineffective speaking skills (p. 67).

According to Harmer (2002) "If students want to be able to speak fluently in English, they need to be able to pronounce phonemes correctly, use appropriate stress and intonation pattern and speak in connected speech" (p. 343).

Sometimes, the speakers from different first languages have problems with different sounds. In this part, teachers must facilitate the students by showing the right pronunciation through demonstration and explanation.

It is abstruse for students to recognize rising and falling tones patterns. In this part, teachers should give students opportunities to recognize such moods on an audio tract. Then, get the students to imitate the way the mood is articulated. According to Harmer (2002) "fluency is also helped by having students say phrase

and sentences as quickly as possible, starting slowly and then speeding up” (p. 343).

Some important points in public speaking are understanding the topic and ability to develop the content. A speaker must know the topic they talk about, as Grice and Skinner (1995) suggest, “A primary, vital requirement for preparing any speech is to know exactly what to do” (p. 16). A speaker can do kind of a small research to have a deeper understanding of the topic. Nicholls (1999) states that research sources are divided into primary and secondary sources (p. 50). Primary sources are the people with whom the researchers have direct contact, by letter, telephone, or face-to-face. Secondary sources are almost always written, such as books, reports, journals, or newspaper.

After knowing the topic, a speaker can decide the number of main ideas that will be covered. A Speaker should know the audience’s needs and wants so that the speech can attract the audience’s attention. However, a speaker needs to limit the ideas and check to make sure that the ideas are relevant to the main topic. According to Nicholls (1999), a speaker can start by writing an outline to generate the ideas (p. 66). The speaker can use the brainstorming or mind-mapping methods, then the speaker will learn to think in a more creative way and ideas will flow. Nicholls (1999) recommended five steps to develop the speech content.

“First, write a rough draft. Second, refine the draft, adding illustrations and changing words. Third, rewrite the speech into spoken English, shortening sentences and changing words. Fourth, rehearse the speech aloud. Fifth, make alterations in order to fit the time slot” (p. 66).

A speaker cannot deliver a speech which does not have supporting materials. Effective supporting materials help the speaker to prove their statements to the audience. A speaker cannot deliver a speech do not have supporting materials. Grice and Skinner (1995) note that a speaker uses supporting materials to get three purposes: clarity, vividness, and credibility (p. 154). Clarity refers to the accuracy of the messages. The audience should get the right messages. Then, vividness is to help the audience remember the key ideas in the speech, as Grice & Skinner (1995) suggest “Vivid supporting materials are striking, graphic, intense, and memorable” (p. 156). Based on Cambridge dictionary, credibility is the fact that someone can be believed or trusted. In this content, credibility refers to be believability of a speaker and their sources.

### ***Debate***

Freely (1969) points out that debate encourages effective speech composition and delivery (p. 35). Freely (1969) also claims that debate is an ideal arena for students to develop coping mechanisms allowing them to manage their speech anxiety (p. 35). According to Quinn (2005), by joining a debate event, the students will have opportunities to know others and gain insights (p. 23). The students can speak up and argue with others in public through debate.

Debate is well known as arguing ideas between two opposite sides. In school environment, debate is known as one of English competitions is held by many institutions. Debate consists of argument for and against a given proportion. Debate helps students to defend their opinion and express their feeling, so it is a good practice to speak English fluently.

According to Quinn (2005), debating gives the chance to meet new people and new ideas (p. 23). Debate gives opportunities the students to stand up and argue with someone in public. Debate facilitates the students to discuss their ideas and try to defend their opinion to others. Also, debate has interaction role in each practice. That fact shows debate improves students' attitude in public.

Based on definitions above, the researchers summarize that debate is a communicative interaction that involves different perspective and builds critical strong arguments. Debate facilitates the students to enrich their vocabularies through comprehending the issue and how the way they defend their perspectives. Also, students have to speak up their ideas fluently and grammatically correct. Those definitions and facts above proved that debate is a good strategy to improve speaking skills.

Freely (1969) points out that debate composes arguments which are favor and against a particular statement (p. 169). Debates are categorized: substantive and educational debates. Substantive debate is aimed to establish facts, values, or policy and the debaters usually have interesting on the topic. Meanwhile, an educational debate is held to give educational opportunity for students. According to Kennedy (2007), debate is an instructional strategy enhances learning particularly, in areas of mastering in content and active engagement, developing critical thinking skills, oral communication skills, oral communication skills, and empathy (p. 57).

Mastering in content and active engagement means students have to be actively analyzing and discussing the issue in debate session. They cannot passively absorb whole information. They have to re-think their own thinking then share and discuss with their team. Also, debate is a right place to measure students' responsibility of comprehension for individual and teamwork.

Kennedy (2007) points out "developing critical thinking skills means critical thinking skills used in debate are defining the problem, assessing the credibility of sources, identifying and challenging assumptions, recognizing inconsistencies, and prioritizing the relevance" (p. 58).

Developing oral communication skills means debate gives many experiences for students to analyze, deliver, and organize speeches quickly and correctly. Oral communication skills can not get by theory but by practice.

Developing empathy means that even when the debaters have different perspectives on an issue, they still listen each other. Through debate, students are able to learn how to be open-minded to see another perspective. This fact proved that students develop empathy by debate.

Parliamentary debate is a debate system that is used in school debate competitions in Indonesia. The debate extracurricular used Asian parliamentary debate for the training activity. This debate system was conducted by two groups, each group has three people.

The rules for all speakers were as follows:

- The speaker can speak for 7 minutes
- The speaker can accept Points of Information between the 1st and 6th minute
- The speaker can present rebuttals, examples and new analysis

-The speaker can make new arguments (except Whips - Government Whip and Opposition Whip)

The rules for Opposition Reply, Government Reply:

- The speaker can speak for 4 minutes
- The speaker cannot accept Points of Information
- The speaker cannot make new arguments, rebuttals, examples or analysis. He or she must only compare and analyze things that have already been said in the debate.

## Method

The data obtained were presented in the form of a descriptive explanation. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2015), descriptive research explains things the way they are (p. 218). In this study the writers did not have any control over the already existing data. First the writers distributed the questionnaire to debate extracurricular members. The questionnaire was used to obtain necessary information about facts, such as their opinion and thought of a new technique to develop their speaking ability especially the skills related to speaking in a public setting.

This study was conducted in an Indonesian public school. The writers chose debate extracurricular of the school because the debate teams were good and had won many titles from school debate competitions. The participants of this study were members of debate extracurricular club. The research subjects were students participating in the extracurricular debate club because the members had already experienced English debates.

Observation seeks to discover what people think and do by watching them as they express themselves in various situations. Observation used to be popular in educational research because it requires no preparation and no apparatus. There were three observations in the study. First observation observed the instructor and students' condition during the extracurricular activities. Questionnaires were distributed during a meeting. The second and third observations were done to observe the students' improvements. Extensive field notes were made to observe all potentially relevant phenomena (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The writers analyzed the obvious evidence to produce a core description of the experience.

Questionnaire was distributed and interviews were conducted. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part consists of ten close-ended questions. Second part asked students' activities which can improve their English skills. The last part asked them to rate their own English skills. In this study, the interviews were used to obtain further information from the participants in giving the answers in the questionnaire.

## Findings and Discussion

In the first observation, the researchers distributed questionnaires to eight members of extracurricular debate club. The questionnaire contained 10 close-ended questions. The questionnaire helped the researchers to understand the students' perceptions on the use of debate activities in improving their speaking

skills. The questionnaires showed that most students displayed a relatively strong relationship between debate and speaking skills. The results of the questionnaire are presented in the table 1

**Table 1. Students' Perceptions on Debate**

No	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	I join the debate extracurricular because I want to improve my speaking skills.	62.5%	37.5%	0 %	0 %
2.	I join debate extracurricular because I think my English is quite good.	25%	37.5%	37.5%	0 %
3.	The teacher lets me speaking English during debate extracurricular.	50%	50%	0 %	0 %
4.	I am confident to speak English in front of my friends.	0 %	87.5%	12.5%	0 %
5.	I always make outlines before speaking in front of audience.	25%	75%	0 %	0 %
6.	Debate extracurricular helps me to improve my speaking skills.	62.5%	37.5%	0 %	0 %
7.	I have improvements in each meeting of debate extracurricular.	12.5%	75%	12.5%	0 %
8.	The debate extracurricular helps me to know many new English vocabularies.	25%	75%	0 %	0 %
9.	I enjoy the activities in the debate extracurricular.	50%	50%	0 %	0 %
10.	I repeat to learn the material of debate extracurricular at home.	12.5%	50%	37.5%	0 %

The second part of questionnaire indicated students' opinion on activities which can improve their speaking skills. Students had many ways to improve their speaking skills. Therefore, the researchers prepared activities list which students do in their daily life. The activities there were done the most by students in their daily life to improve their speaking skills were listening to music and watching movies or English TV programs. There were a lot of English songs, movies and TV programs. The students easily found those songs and movies from the Internet. Besides, seven out of eight students liked to read English articles in their free time. Nowadays, they could access news from different news portals via their smartphones. The other activity which was done by the students to improve their speaking skills was speaking English with their friends. This activity helped students a lot because they could practice to speak in English. The last activity was chatting with foreigners via social media that were done by three students.



The third part of questionnaire surveyed the quality of students' speaking skills. The researchers asked the students to rate their speaking skills. However, the researchers not only studied the students' speaking skills quality from the questionnaire result, but also from observations. From this part, the researchers found that most of the students, seven out of eight students, rated their speaking skills as good.

The researchers also conducted interviews with each of the eight members of extracurricular debate club. This method was used to understand information from the students better and to understand the speaking level of each student. It was a free interview therefore the researchers could assess students' vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar competence.

The researchers observed the debate extracurricular for three times. The researchers made an observation sheet to help the observation process. The observation sheet contained six statements about the debate activities.

### ***Debate Activities and Public Speaking***

According to Kennedy (2007), debate gives many experiences to students to analyze, deliver, and organize speeches quickly and correctly (p. 43). Five out of eight students checked strongly agree column and three out of eight students checked agree on column in the questionnaire. All of them agreed that debate activities helped them to improve their speaking skills. Besides, the students stated that debate developed the habit for the students to think before speaking. All of the students stated that they made outlines before speaking. In the interviews, students stated that it was impossible to talk in front of the public without an outline. Their statements were in line with Nicholls' (1990) idea that a speaker should start by writing an outline to generate the ideas before speaking in public (p. 66).

Debate also facilitated them to keep abreast with the latest issues. The teacher asked them to read every day. Reading many articles also developed their critical thinking. According to Kennedy (2007) debate develops critical thinking. They could not absorb the information without reaffirming it. The teacher encouraged the students to discern information from the media, such as news websites, television programs, or social media. According to Grice and Skinner (1994), speakers use supporting materials because of three purposes: clarity, vividness, and credibility (p. 154). Students were encouraged to read the news from reliable sources. The students said that trust-worthy information could help them to support their opinion later when they debate. The other reason why they needed to know the world's development was because the topics which were used were parliament topics.

Beside encouraging students to follow the world's development, debate also made the students to study the English materials at home. Five out of eight students studied the debate materials at home. They also read any articles related to the topic, so that they gain new information and perspective about the issue. The students stated that rereading the materials at home were important because they learned the issue better.

All of the members in the extracurricular debate club stated that they made outlines before speaking in public. They wrote their main ideas on their outline to

help them speak. After they wrote the main ideas, they said that they could develop the ideas while speaking.

The debate members developed the four-step sequence proposed by Grice and Skinner (1994) which included signpost, state, support, and summarize. Their main ideas were the signposts. After that they developed their main ideas into statements, so that the audience understand their points. To convince the audience, they supported their statements with some evidence. At the end, they made the summary to conclude their speech.

#### ***Debate Activities and Vocabulary Enrichment***

All of the students agreed that debate activities helped them to enrich English vocabulary items. Two students strongly agree and six agree that their vocabulary increased. Lepper (1988) indicates that “teachers could help students develop their speaking ability by making them aware of the scripts from different situations so that they can predict what they will hear and what they will need to say in response” (p. 13). The debate activities helped students to express their ideas in English more.

In an act of communication, the students are influenced by their environment. It is proved by the members of extracurricular debate club. The students believed that if they talked to each other in English, they could enrich their vocabulary items, fix their pronunciation, and reduce the pauses when talking. They believed that their community supported them to improve their speaking skills. The feedback from their peers and teachers was also valuable to improve their speaking skills. Peer and teacher feedback was always positive so it encouraged the students to further improve their speaking skills.

#### ***Debate Activities and Students' Confidence***

Most research participants stated that debate activities boosted their confidence. One student stated that debate activities did not promote confidence. During the debate activity preparations, the teacher helped students to develop various strategies to deal with different communication situations that they may encounter outside of the classroom.

Speaking is a combinatorial skill (Goh & Burns, 2012). To be able to speak clearly, students should have enough vocabulary, be fluent, and master grammar. They also needed to be able to pronounce phonemes correctly, use appropriate stress and intonation pattern and speak in connected speech (Hammer, 2002). Therefore, the teacher trained the students to improve the above mentioned components. Most students stated that the preparation and debate activities helped them improve their pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. However, there was one student who stated that the activities did not improve his or her pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.

#### ***Conclusion***

Most of the research participants stated that debate activities helped them to become better public speakers, enriched their vocabulary, and boosted their confidence. Debate activities encouraged them to read more information related to the topics of the debate. They also concluded that having more information boosted their confidence. Reading different articles with various topics had also

helped them to build their vocabulary knowledge. Teachers' and peers' feedback has helped them to have better pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary knowledge and skills. This study is limited on observing the students' debate activities. Therefore, the researchers expect that the future researchers will implement and design this teaching technique and observe the results so that any strengths and weaknesses can be identified.

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## **ENHANCING DESCRIPTIVE WRITING ACHIEVEMENT BY APPLYING PROCESS APPROACH THROUGH ENVIRONMENTAL OBSERVATION**

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**DOI:** [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2103](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2103)

received 25 March 2018; revised 9 June 2018; accepted 20 June 2018

### **Abstract**

This study aimed at finding out whether or not: (1) there was a significant difference in descriptive writing achievement after they were taught by using process approach through environmental observation and (2) there was a significant difference in descriptive writing achievement between the students who were taught by using process approach through environmental observation and those who were not. By employing a quasi-experimental design, the sample of this study was 80 students of tenth graders of SMA Negeri 9 Palembang taken by using purposive sampling method. The data were analyzed by using paired sample and independent sample t-test. The result of this study showed that: (1) there was significant improvement in descriptive writing achievement of the experimental group; mean difference of post-test and pre-test was 7.500 and the significance value was 0.000 ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ), and (2) there was significant difference in descriptive writing achievement between the students who were taught by applying process approach through environmental observation and those who were not. The mean difference of the post-test of the experimental group was higher than the control group ( $7.537 > 0.128$ ) and the significance value was 0.000 ( $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ). Therefore, process approach through environmental observation is effective to enhance students' descriptive writing achievement.

**Keywords:** Process Approach, Environmental Observation, Descriptive Writing Achievement

### **Introduction**

English, as one of the compulsory subjects in Junior High School and Senior High School (Depdiknas, 1989), has four skills to be taught which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Among the skills, writing is the most difficult skill to be learned. Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 303) say, "Writing is the most difficult skill for second language learners to master. The difficulty lies not only in generating and organizing ideas but also in translating these ideas into readable text." According to Oshima and Hogue (1999, p. 3), it is not easy to write; it takes study and practice to develop this skill not only for native speakers but also new learners of English. Writing needs a process to produce a product.

Besides, ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) also becomes a great challenge for Indonesian. Many kinds of products and labors from other ASEAN countries will come freely to Indonesia. It means that the competition in finding a job will become more competitive. Martin (as cited in Situmorang, 2015) says that English proficiency is closely related to economic competition. Not only multinational companies but also local companies require spoken and written English as one of the main capabilities. Karmawan (as cited in Supriadi, 2015) also states that English is required in the workplace as communication skill and to support business communication, such as negotiation and report writing. Unfortunately, based on the research of ASEAN Studies Center (as cited in Supriadi, 2015), the quality of Indonesian workers are still inadequate, particularly in terms of English competence.

Furthermore, based on curriculum 2006, the tenth graders of Senior High School are required to be able to write various types of genres such as recount text, narrative text, procedure text, and descriptive text. And the main focus for the second semester of the tenth grade is writing descriptive text. However, the fact shows that tenth grader students' descriptive writing achievements are still far from good. Three of the five studies (Hami (2014); Prastihana (2014); Purnomo (2014); Nurfarhati (2015); and Riyanti (2015)) found by the writer about descriptive text show that students' descriptive writing achievement do not increase too significant.

Although most students have learned English writing from Elementary School up to Senior High School, most of them cannot write well. Based on the data during Teaching Practice Program (PPL) and the data from an interview with the English teacher of tenth graders of SMA Negeri 9 Palembang, it was found that the students have problems in writing. The minimal completeness criterion (KKM) is 70, but their average score of writing skill is 59. Besides, the students also lack interest to write and they intend to copy some passages from the internet to fulfill their assignment. The teachers of the tenth graders is also a problem. She is not very active in the classroom and she only gives the students some exercise with a little explanation in every meeting. Therefore, creative strategies to make teaching writing more effective and interested were entailed

Based on the statement above, teachers have to be able to organize teaching-learning activity. Teachers have to use fun method, technique, or strategy to attract the students' attention and make them able to write. Teachers also have to apply an approach that can control the learning process to prevent fraud.

Process Approach, which was developed by Flower and Hayes in 1981, was used in this study to prevent the fraud and to improve students' writing orderly and grammatically. This technique focused on the process of writing, not only the product. Hopefully, the teachers could monitor the performance of their students. The implementation of process approach had been proven in many previous studies. For example, the research conducted by Bayat (2014) from Akdeniz University in Turkey showed that process approach affected the participants' academic writing is a success. Zhou (2015) from China West Normal University also found that this technique has a positive influence on non-English major's writing ability and is effective in improving their writing ability.

When the teacher taught by using the process approach, the environmental observation also was used to revive the learning vigor of students. This strategy is important in order to make the learning process alive. A research using environmental observation strategy was ever undertaken by Harmenita and Tiarina (2013) from FBS Negeri Padang University. The study showed that this strategy can increase the students' attention and motivation during classroom writing activity. More importantly, Paragraph Writing course had been implemented by applying environmental observation strategy. The students were observing many kinds of aspects such as person, place, and other things. It also showed that this strategy was successfully improving students' writing achievement.

Based on the explanation above, the problems of this study were formulated in questions below:

- a. Was there any significant difference in descriptive writing achievement of the tenth graders of SMA Negeri 9 Palembang after they were taught by using process approach through environmental observation?"
- b. Was there any significant difference in descriptive writing achievement of the tenth graders of SMA Negeri 9 Palembang who were taught by using process approach through environmental observation and those who were not?

Writing is the medium to express the ideas, opinion, and thought to inform other people. Brannan (2009, p. 10) states, "Writing is a creative process. It is an intellectual exercise that results a symbolic product, be it a book, story, play report, essay, memo, letter, or paragraph." According to Hogue (2003, p. 255), "Writing is a process of creating, organizing, and polishing". Webster (1999) states that writing as a way of discovering ideas as well as a way of expressing them. In other words, writing is the creative process of communicating the ideas, thought, or feeling on the written form. Obviously, the purpose of writing is to inform and communicate other people about the writers' ideas.

A descriptive paragraph is a part of factual genres. Its social function is to describe a particular person, place or thing (Wardiman & Artono, 2008, p. 122). Hammound (2010, p. 121) also says that the primary purpose of the descriptive text is to describe a person, place, or thing in such way that the picture is formed in the readers' mind.

The process approach is an approach developed by Flower and Hayes in 1981. Process approach emphasizes the writing process, not the final product. In the end, learners surely need to and require to complete their products, yet the writing process itself is stressed more (Onozawa, 2010, p. 154). Tribble (1996, p. 160) also states that a process approach is an approach which focuses on the creativity of the individual writer, and which pays attention to the development of the good writing practices rather than the product. Sun and Feng (2009: 155) in their research concluded that It is concluded that teaching writing by applying the process approach could achieve an optimal teaching effect.

Word "environment" is commonly used describing "natural environment". The environment includes all elements, factors, and conditions that have some impacts for a human. In addition, the environment is the condition in a place that effects the behavior and development of somebody or something (Hornby, 2010,

p. 492). Then, observation is the act of watching somebody or something carefully for a period of time, especially to learn something (Hornby, 2010, p. 1013). Lake (2009) says that observation is a method of collecting data in which the situation, the relevant fact, action, and behavior are recorded. Therefore, Harmenita and Tiarina (2013, p. 32) state that environmental observation is an observation technique which involves observing a behavior as it occurs in the natural environment.

Tribble (1996, p. 9) proposes a typical four states model of process approach: pre-writing, composing/drafting, revising, and editing. And environmental observation takes place in the pre-writing stage.

Step 1: Pre-writing (Generating Idea/ Observing through Environmental Observation)

First, the students will be given knowledge about descriptive text and environmental observation. Then, they will be given a theme to describe. They will have some times to generate idea by observing the thing or place that they will describe. While observing, the students have to take note of it to help them formulate the paragraph afterward.

Step 2: Composing/drafting

The second step is the time for the students to write their description of the note without worrying too much about spelling and grammar. What is important in this step is that the writer keeps on their writing and let their ideas flow.

Step 3: Revising

In this step, the students will be asked to work in pairs. They will be correcting their work each other. The components that have to revise such as order, meaning, spelling, grammar, and punctuation. To help the students revise the paragraph, the writer provides guidance, as shown below:

Descriptive writing rubric for students:

1. What is the topic of the text?
2. Does the topic of the text reflect the title?
3. What do you think about your friend's paragraph? Explain your reason!
4. Is the arrangement of the text suitable for the generic structure?
5. Give opinion about your friend's first paragraph (identification)?
6. Give opinion about your friend's description?
7. Is there miss-spelling, wrong grammar, and punctuation in your friend's paragraph?

(Source: adapted from Oshima & Hogue, 1999)

Step 4: Editing

In the last step, the students rewrite the part of the paragraph which has already revised by their friend.

The most difficult step in this study was revising. It was because the students did not have a great foundation in grammar and punctuation.

## Method

This study used quasi-experimental design. Tuckman (1978, p. 136) says, "Quasi-experimental design is partly---but not fully---true experimental designs;

they control some but not all of the sources of internal invalidity." This design consisted of two groups which were the control group and experimental group. The population of this study was 320 tenth grade students at SMA Negeri 9 Palembang, and the sample of this study was 80 tenth grade students. Each group had 40 students. The technique of selecting the sample was purposive sampling by having X.D as the experimental group and X.E as the control group because they were taught by the same English teacher and they had the same English level.

In this study, only the experimental group was given the treatment while the control group was not given any treatment. During the treatment, the experimental group was taught by applying process approach through environmental observation for 20 meeting including pretest and posttest.

To collect the data, both experimental group and control group were assigned a writing test. The students were assigned the test twice as pretest and posttest. The pretest was administered before the writer started the experimental study. Meanwhile, the posttest was administered after the end of writing experimental teaching.

The test was constructed based on content validity that was consulted to two experts. Creswell (2012, p. 618) states, "Content validity is the extent to which the questions on the instrument and the scores from these questions are representative of all the possible questions that a researcher could ask about the content or skills." To know the test is appropriate or not, the curriculum, syllabus, and students' textbook used by the tenth graders of SMA Negeri 9 Palembang were checked their appropriateness. Next, two expert judgments were needed. The test item was constructed based on the table of test specifications so that the writing test had a high degree of content-related evidence of validity.

To check the reliability of the test, two raters were employed to give scores of student's writing test based on the suitable rubric. The result of students' writing was correlated using Pearson Product Moment and calculation was run by SPSS 22 version. It was found that the result of the reliability of the writing test was 0.606. As the result, the test was considered medium or sufficient correlation since the reliability coefficient was between 0.40 – 0.70.

After assuring the validity and reliability, paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test were used for analyzing the data. Paired sample t-test was used to analyze the data obtained from pretest and posttest of the experimental group. Meanwhile, independent sample t-test was used to analyze the data obtained from the control group and experimental group.

After running the paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test analyses, the significance level (in the two-tailed test) was found.

## **Findings and Discussion**

### ***Score Distribution Based on Five Categories***

The result of students' descriptive achievement was distributed based on five categories: Very Good, Good, Enough, Low, and Failed. The score interval was between 0-100. Table 1 presents the results of pretest and posttest of the experimental group.



**Table 1: The Score Distribution of the Experimental Group**

Score Interval	Category	Pretest		Posttest	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
80-100	Very good	0	0%	12	30%
70-79	Good	0	0%	17	42.5%
60-69	Enough	4	10%	8	20%
41-59	Low	18	45%	3	7.5%
0-40	Failed	18	45 %	0	0%
<b>Total</b>		<b>40</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100%</b>

As shown in Table 1, based on the result of pre-test most of the students were categorized in low and failed level. There were 18 students (45%) in low level and 18 students (45%) were in failed level. Meanwhile, the rest of the students were in the enough and no student was in good and very good level. After they got exposed to the treatment, 12 students (30%) were in the very good level, 17 students (42.5%) were in the good level, eight students (20%) were in enough level, three students (7.5%) were in low level and no student was in failed level. By comparing the mean scores of pre-test (44) and post-test (74), it can be said that there was a significant improvement in their descriptive writing achievement. The results of pre-test and post-test of control group can be seen in Table 2.

**Table 2: The Score Distribution of the Control Group**

Score Interval	Category	Pretest		Posttest	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
80-100	Very good	0	0%	0	0%
70-79	Good	1	2.5%	0	0%
60-69	Enough	4	10%	4	10%
41-59	Low	23	57.5%	23	57.5%
0-40	Failed	12	30%	13	32.5%
<b>Total</b>		<b>40</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100%</b>

Based on table 2, most of the students (N=40) were in the low category. There were 12 students (30%) who were in failed category, 23 students (57.5%) who were in low category, and four students (10%) who were in enough category, one student (2.5%) were in good category, and no student (0%) was in very good category. The lowest score was 25, the highest score was 75, and the mean score was 47. In contrast with the experimental group students, the students in the control group were not exposed to the treatment. After doing the posttest, there was no improvement in the control group. The lowest score in the posttest was 29, the highest score was 69 and the mean score was 487. Most of the students also were in the low category. There were 13 students (32.5%) in the failed category,

23 students (57.5%) were in low category, four students (10%) were in enough category and no student (0%) was in the good and very good category.

#### ***Normality and Homogeneity of the Data***

Before doing the t-test, the normality of the data was checked by using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Based on the results, the significance (2-tailed) of pretest and posttest of the experimental group were 0.200 and 0.200, while the significance (2-tailed) of pretest and posttest of the control group were 0.190 and 0.200. Since all of the significance values were higher than 0.05, it can be concluded that the data were normally distributed. The normality of the data of experimental and control group can be seen in table 3.

**Table 3: The Results of Normality Test**

Group	Pretest				Posttest			
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sig.	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Mean	Std. Dev.	Sig.	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z
Exp. Group	10.463	2.619	.200	0.093	18.063	2.501	.200	0.106
Control Group	11.238	2.766	.190	0.116	11.163	2.542	.200	0.101

Homogeneity test was done in order to find out whether the sample groups from the population had the similar variance. The Levene's test was used to examine the homogeneity of the sample groups. The data are homogeneous if the significance value is higher than 0.05. The significance value of pretest and posttest in the experimental group was 0.459, it means the data in the experimental group was not homogenous, and the significance value of pretest and posttest in control group was 0.000 which is mean the data in control group was not homogenous. The significance value of posttest data in experimental and control group was 0.012, it means the data was not homogenous. Azwar (2010, p.4) describes, "The assumption of homogeneity of variance can be ignored without a large risk as long as we have the same number (N) in each sample." The homogeneity of the data of experimental and control group can be seen in table 4.

**Table 4: Homogeneity of the Data of Experimental and Control Group**

Group	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig
Pretest and posttest in exp. group	1.012	9	23	0.459
Pretest and posttest in con. group	5.469	13	23	0.000
Posttest in exp. and con. groups	2.932	13	23	0.012

***The Result of Paired Sample T-test***

After checking the normality and homogeneity of the data, the t-test can be applied. In this study, the writer used paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test. The result of paired sample t-test can be seen in table 5.

**Table 5: The Results of Paired Sample T-test of Experimental and Control Group**

Group	Test	Mean	Mean Difference	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig.
Exp	Pretest	10.463	7.600	2.619	0.414	18.214	39	0.000
	Posttest	18.063		2.501	0.395			
Control	Pretest	11.238	0.075	2.766	0.437	0.252	39	0.802
	Posttest	11.163		2.542	0.402			

Based on the result of paired sample t-test (Table 5), the mean difference score of the experimental group was 7.600, while the control group was 0.075. Because the significant values for the experimental group (0.000) were lower than 0.005, it means that the mean difference was significant. However, the significant value for the control group (0.802) was higher than 0.05, the mean difference between pre-test and post-test of the control group was not significant.

***The Result of Independent sample t-test***

To see the difference between pre-test and post-test score of both experimental and control group, independent sample t-test was done. The result of independent sample t-test of post-test of both groups is presented in Table 6.

**Table 6: The Result of Independent Sample T-test of Posttest of Experimental and Control Group**

Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)	t	df	Mean Difference
Experimental	18.063	2.5018	0.3956	0.000	12.233	78	6.9000
Control	11.163	2.5429	0.4021				

Based on the table above, the mean score of the posttest in the experimental group was higher than the mean score of the posttest in the control group (18.063 > 11.163). Since the p-value (sig. (2-tailed)) was less than 0.05 (0.000 < 0.05), it can be concluded that there was a significant difference in the post-test between the experimental and control group.

Based on the finding of this study, some interpretations are drawn. The findings show that (1) there is a significant difference in descriptive writing achievement of the experimental group before and after they were given the

treatment, and (2) there is a significant difference in descriptive writing achievement between the experimental group and the control group.

The first finding showed that the experimental group performance was better in posttest after they were treated by applying process approach through environmental observation for 18 times. It can be seen from the mean score of the posttest (18.063) was higher than the mean score of the pretest (10.463) with the mean difference of 7.600. Then, it was found that the *t*-obtained (18.214) was higher than *t*-table (2.021). In another word, there was an significant difference in descriptive writing achievement of the experimental group before and after they were taught by applying process approach through environmental observation.

According to the findings above, it could be assumed that the improvement was caused by the strategy applied. Process approach through environmental observation facilitates the students generating the ideas and focusing on language errors to improve their grammatical accuracy and writing fluency. It also helped the teacher to prevent the fraud that usually made by the students. For example, when the writer taught the students using environmental observation in pre-writing, the students keep in touch with the real object they should describe which helps them generating ideas how to describe it as real as they see. It is relevant to the statement of Harmenita and Tiarina (2013, p. 32) which describes that if students observe their environment, they will be more easily describing it because it is familiar from them. In composing phase of the process approach, the students had to describe the person, the place, and the thing they saw in front of their eyes, so they could not cheat by a look at the internet. It means this approach could help the teacher prevent the fraud because they focused on the students' writing process. Tribble (1996, p. 160) states that a process approach is an approach which focuses on the process, not only the product.

In revising phase of the process approach, the students were very passionate finding their pair error and discussing it together as discovered by Sun and Feng (2009: 155) that an optimal teaching effect was resulted by the teaching writing with the process approach.

This stage should be able to help them to improve their writing skill grammatically and well organized. As Zhou (2015, p. 90-91) states that in writing process students can freely discuss their writing with their peers or teacher and get feedback which focused on content, grammar, and organization from them so the students can learn how to write. Unfortunately, the students do not have a strong basis of grammar and punctuation. So, this aspect could not improve significantly.

For the control group, there was no significant difference in descriptive writing achievement. It can be seen from the mean score of the posttest (11.163) was lower than the mean score of the pretest (11.238) with the mean difference of 0.075 and *t*-obtained was lower than *t*-table ( $0.252 < 2.021$ ). It happened because they did not learn about the descriptive test as intensive as the control group, and their willingness and vigor to study were less than experimental group.

The second finding confirmed that there was a significant difference in descriptive writing achievement between experimental and control groups. The control group was only given pretest and posttest with the usual teaching conducted by the teacher. However, during the teaching and learning activity, the

students also learned about descriptive text. Mostly, the teacher gave them an explanation of the generic structure of the descriptive. They were barely exposed to create a text. Brannan (2009, p. 10) explains that writing is a creative process and intellectual exercise which produce a product such as a paragraph, essay, or story. And Hogue (2003, p. 255) also states that writing is composing, arranging, and polishing. It means when people learn about writing, they have to produce something. Because the students were only asked to answer questions related to the text and were insisted to know which was the identification and description, their writing achievement did not improve significantly.

From the explanation above, the experimental group performed better than a control group. It could be concluded that the students who received the treatment have significant improvement in descriptive writing achievement. Therefore, it can be stated that process approach through environmental observation was effective to increase descriptive writing achievement of the experimental group. Hence, using process approach through environmental observation is considered effective in teaching descriptive writing to the tenth graders of SMA Negeri 9 Palembang.

### Conclusion

Based on the previous chapter, enhancing descriptive writing achievement by applying process approach through environmental observation was effective. The data showed that the score of the students in the experimental group was significantly improved after treatment. The statistical analysis of paired sample t-test showed that there was a significant difference in descriptive writing achievement before and after they were taught by using process approach through environmental observation. It was also proved by the independent sample t-test that there was a significant difference in mean score between students' pretest and posttest both in the experimental and control group. The mean score of posttest in the experimental group was higher than the mean score of posttest in control group. It means that process approach through environmental observation was effective to improve students' descriptive writing achievement. Unfortunately, process approach through environmental observation only helped the student in generating ideas and improving writing organization knowledge but it did not help the students in correcting grammar and punctuation errors. Therefore, to implement the approach, teachers have to more focus on the grammar and so do the punctuation.

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## **STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON THE USE OF VIDEO TO ASSESS PERFORMANCES IN PUBLIC SPEAKING CLASS**

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**DOI:** doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2104

received 23 May 2018; revised 1 June 2018; accepted 10 June 2018

### **Abstract**

This paper attempts to recognize the use of video as teaching and learning aid related to students' perception. As survey research, it focuses on finding the students' perception on the use of video to assess students' performances in Public Speaking class. In addition to that, this paper presents the discussion about the implication of the students' perception on the use of video to assess their public speaking performances. It is found that the students have good or positive perception and the use of video is beneficial to identify their strengths and weaknesses in public speaking performance. Therefore, the students are encouraged to perform better in public speaking. It implies that video is an appropriate teaching and learning aid for Public Speaking students and the lecturers themselves have contributed well in assisting the students in the activities using video in Public Speaking class.

**Keywords:** perception, video, assessment, performance, public speaking

### **Introduction**

In the English Language Education Study Program, technology has been integrated into the teaching and learning process, especially in Public Speaking class. Having technology in Public Speaking class makes the teaching and learning process become more interesting. The technology used in Public Speaking class namely video. Video offers real situation (McKinnon, 2000). The students may observe it as an audiovisual stimulus for language production and practice. In Public Speaking class, the video used is varied such as students' public speaking performances, the characteristics of a good public speaker, and how to handle the audiences. The study focuses on the use of video which contains the students' public speaking performances. Since in Public Speaking class, this kind of video is used to assess the students' performances.

Perception is important to be recognized since it can influence students in learning. In addition, perception is one of factors which influences one's success in learning language (Kleinke, 1978). In this study, perception takes part in how the students may get either encouraged or discouraged in learning public speaking using video. Thus, the writer may obtain whether the use of video in Public Speaking class is effective and helpful for the students or not.



From the background above, the research problems are formulated as follows:

1. How is the video used to assess the students' performances in Public Speaking class?
2. What is the students' perception on the use of video to assess their performances in Public Speaking class?
3. What is the implication of the research findings?

## **Literature Review**

This section elaborates theories on perception, video, speaking assessment, performance, and public speaking.

### ***Perception***

Perception in this study refers to the students' subjective experience through their own observation and how they see reality. According to Altman, Valenzi and Hodgetts (1985), perception is the way stimuli are selected and grouped by a person in such a way that the stimuli can be meaningfully interpreted. As proposed by Kleinke (1978), perception can influence students' success in learning language. Therefore, there is relation between perception and learning which happens among the students of Public Speaking class. When the students understand the things they perceive, they will be able to learn the materials given successfully. If the students have positive perception, it leads them to be successful in learning. Being successful in learning leads them to have interest in learning and develop their skills. On the contrary, if the students have bad perception, it leads them to fail in learning.

### ***Video***

Hyun-suk, Sub, and Jin-il (2000) stated that video is a technology of electronically capturing, recording, processing, storing, transmitting, and reconstructing a sequence of still images representing scenes in motion. It means that video provides sound and motion pictures. In this research, video is a teaching and learning tool for both lecturer and students to assess, observe, and practice. Video is most widely used to introduce and stimulate interest in a topic and to give information of a topic discussed. According to Macknight (1981) as cited by McGovern (1983), video is commonly introduced to give a lift to methodology in terms of interest and motivation, to extend the range of teaching techniques. As a teaching and learning media, video also brings motivation to the students so that the students are able to understand and enjoy the real things (Sherman, 2003). According to Zuber-Skerrit (1984), the use of video in higher education is to improve learning, teaching, interaction, personal behavior, and communication.

### ***Speaking Assessment***

Speaking assessment requires particular features of speech, for instance pronunciation, accuracy, gesture, fluency, eye contact, and body language (Luoma, 2004). Speaking assessment in this study can be done by both lecturer and the students in the Public Speaking class. The ways of speaking assessment can be conducted either by face-to-face interaction, or through technology such as audio and video. However, this research discusses the speaking assessment in the Public Speaking class through video recording or videotape which is done by both

lecturer and the students of Public Speaking class. In assessing speaking skills, there are some components needed to make criteria for the assessment. Brown (2004) states that there are microskills and macroskills of oral production which the assessor might select one or several to be the objective(s) of an assessment task. The microskills refer to producing smaller chunks of language such as phonemes, morphemes, words, cohesive, collocations, phrasal units, and the macroskills refer to the larger elements such as fluency, discourse, style, nonverbal communication, function, and strategic options. There are several common categories used to assess oral proficiency of students' performances in public speaking which have been taken and adapted from some sources. The categories such as accuracy, diction or vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, pronunciation, gesture, facial expression, eye contact, and body language.

### ***Performance***

Performance, as defined by Luoma (2004), means oral presentation where the speakers are able to convey the message to the audiences. Performance in the context of this study is closely related to public speaking, which means there will always be performance done in the Public Speaking class. Performances in public speaking in this study include the attitude and elements of speaking skills such as gesture, ways of standing, body language, tone, eye contact, content of speech, pronunciation, fluency, accuracy, etc. The oral presentation or the speaking performance includes the ways of delivering the speech, appearance, voice, and the attitude and elements of speaking skills. In the Public Speaking class, the students learn to deliver the speech in front of the class. The ways of delivering the speech which include the attitude and elements of speaking skills are the things which are assessed. For instance, as public speakers students' visual aids should be effectively utilized to enhance audience understanding, become attention getters, the speech content should be delivered successfully, the speech transitions flow smoothly from one part to the next with minimal pause, students use their eye contact to all audience members, have natural gesture and body movements, the voice is loud and clear with minimal filler words, and are able to conclude the speech well.

### ***Public Speaking***

According to Lucas (1995), public speaking is one of communication skills which has purposes to persuade, inform, and even entertain in front of many people. In this study, public speaking refers to a course which has a goal to assist students to be able to speak in public for any occasion and apply the knowledge of public speaking theories. Public Speaking class (KPE 232) as one of compulsory courses taught in the English Language Education Study Program, brings the definition from Lucas (1995). Public Speaking (KPE 232) is designed to introduce students to underlying principles of speaking in public and to provide opportunities and hands-on experiences to the students in developing various types of speaking skills (Universitas Sanata Dharma, 2007). The Public Speaking class is a training ground where the students develop skills that will serve them throughout life. In the Public Speaking class, the lecturer videotapes the students when they deliver their speeches in front of class. It is expected that from having the videotape of public speaking performance, the students find their own

strengths and weaknesses from their public speaking performance and are able to fix the performance to be better. To gain better performance in public speaking, the students are also asked to videotape themselves giving speech and submit the videotape to the lecturer as the students' final test in the Public Speaking class. The students' performances are essential to determine whether the students are successfully considered as good public speakers or not.

### Method

The study employed mixed-methods, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009). Two instruments were employed in this study, namely questionnaire and interview. The research was held in the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University Yogyakarta. It was conducted on November to December 2013.

The research subjects were two Public Speaking lecturers and the students of Public Speaking class. There were 70 students of Public Speaking class. The researcher obtained more relevant and sufficient information to get maximum insight and understanding by having the research participants who had experienced the use of video to assess students' public speaking performances.

### Findings and Discussion

The data were gathered by using questionnaire and interview. From the results obtained, the writer tried to summarize and answer the three research questions.

#### *The Use of Video to Assess the Students in Public Speaking Class*

The questionnaire results of the process of teaching and learning in Public Speaking class are presented as follow:

No.	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	In Public Speaking class, I learn to deliver speeches in front of the class.	(55) 78.5%	(13) 18.57%	(0) 0%	(2) 2.85%
2	In Public Speaking class, my lecturer provides some videos to watch.	(37) 52.85%	(31) 44.28%	(0) 0%	(2) 2.85%
3	In Public Speaking class, I learn about many topics given through video.	(13) 18.57%	(46) 65.71%	(11) 15.71%	(0) 0%
4	In Public Speaking class, I analyse the video given.	(19) 27.14%	(40) 57.14%	(11) 15.71%	(0) 0%
5.	In Public Speaking class, the students and the lecturer are communicative.	(44) 62.85%	(23) 32.85%	(1) 1.42%	(2) 2.85%
6.	In Public Speaking class, the students and the	(42) 60%	(26) 37.14%	(0) 0%	(2) 2.85%

No.	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7.	lecturer are cooperative. The facilities such as projector screen, sound system, videotape, and laptop support the use of video in Public Speaking class.	(37) 52.85%	(30) 42.85%	(2) 2.85%	(1) 1.42%
8.	My Public Speaking lecturer videotapes each student's performance in public speaking.	(24) 34.28%	(15) 21.42%	(25) 35.71%	(6) 8.57%
9.	My Public Speaking lecturer videotapes some of students' performances in public speaking.	(9) 12.85%	(9) 12.85%	(43) 61.42%	(9) 12.85%
10.	I and my classmates watch the video recording of our performances in class.	(18) 25.71%	(27) 38.57%	(22) 31.42%	(4) 5.71%
11.	I and my classmates analyse the video recording of our performances in peers.	(13) 18.57%	(37) 52.85%	(18) 25.71%	(2) 2.85%
12.	I and my classmates evaluate our performance of public speaking after watching the video recording.	(19) 27.14%	(36) 51.42%	(14) 20%	(1) 14.2%
13.	I am asked to videotape my own performance of public speaking.	(20) 28.57%	(24) 34.28%	(20) 28.57%	(6) 8.57%
14.	I am asked to watch my own performance of public speaking.	(30) 42.85%	(31) 44.28%	(5) 7.14%	(4) 5.71%
15.	I give comments on my own performance of public speaking.	(34) 48.57%	(30) 42.85%	(4) 5.71%	(2) 2.85%
16.	My Public Speaking lecturer gives comments on my public speaking performance in my video recording.	(23) 32.85%	(21) 30%	(25) 35.71%	(1) 1.42%
17.	I find my weaknesses in public speaking through the video recording of my performance.	(43) 61.42%	(23) 32.85%	(3) 4.28%	(1) 1.42%
18.	I find my strengths in public speaking through the video recording of my	(28) 40%	(34) 48.57%	(7) 10%	(1) 1.42%

No.	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
19.	performance. I overcome my weaknesses in my public speaking for my next performance of public speaking.	(23) 32.85%	(40) 57.14%	(6) 8.57%	(1) 1.42%
20.	I feel more encouraged to be a better public speaker after evaluating my video recording.	(26) 37.14%	(39) 55.71%	(4) 5.71%	(1) 1.42%
21.	I feel confident in doing public speaking after evaluating my video recording.	(18) 25.71%	(41) 58.57%	(10) 14.28%	(1) 1.42%
22.	I feel highly motivated in doing public speaking after evaluating my video recording.	(19) 27.14%	(39) 55.71%	(11) 15.71%	(1) 1.42%
23.	Analysing my own performance in public speaking improves my public speaking skills.	(22) 31.42%	(44) 62.85%	(4) 5.71%	(1) 1.42%
24.	Evaluating my own performance in public speaking improves my public speaking skills.	(28) 40%	(37) 52.85%	(4) 5.71%	(1) 1.42%
25.	I notice my own progress in public speaking compared to my previous performance.	(25) 35.71%	(39) 55.71%	(5) 7.14%	(1) 1.42%
26.	I feel comfortable to watch my own performance of public speaking through video recording.	(13) 18.57%	(28) 40%	(26) 37.14%	(3) 4.28%
27.	I feel comfortable to evaluate my own performance of public speaking through video recording.	(12) 17.14%	(42) 60%	(15) 21.42%	(1) 1.42%
28.	I become a better speaker in presenting any projects in other subjects.	(10) 14.28%	(44) 62.85%	(15) 21.42%	(1) 1.42%
29.	Video is an appropriate teaching and learning aid for student assessment.	(29) 41.42%	(34) 48.57%	(6) 8.57%	(1) 1.42%

Table 4.1 shows that the process of teaching and learning in the Public Speaking class went well. The students learned to deliver speeches in Public Speaking class as proposed by Lucas (1995) that public speaking aimed to persuade, inform, and entertain people through their speeches. Then, the lecturer

provided the video and other facilities to support the use of video to Public Speaking students. The students were accommodated to learn topics of public speaking through video and try to analyze the video given to make them understand the lesson more. It referred to McKinnon' (2000) and McGovern' (1983) theories on video that video was one of teaching and learning aids which offered interesting and real situation. Both students and lecturer were also communicative and cooperative in Public Speaking class. Thus, the goal of Public Speaking class itself was achieved. The students of Public Speaking class were assisted to be able to speak in public and apply the knowledge of public speaking theories. As suggested by Luoma (2004) that speaking performance was the production of speakers' oral and appearance to convey the message to the audience. In addition, Public Speaking course (KPE 232) was designed to introduce students to underlying principles of speaking in public and to provide opportunities and experiences to students in developing various types of speaking skills. Hence, the process of teaching and learning in Public Speaking class resulted in the students' independency in learning language.

In addition, Table 4.2. shows the results on the use of video for assessing students in public speaking as proposed by Luoma (2004) that speaking assessment could be done not only by face-to-face interaction but also through technology such as video. The result showed that the lecturers were able to accommodate the students in Public Speaking class. The lecturers provided the facilities needed in the Public Speaking class such as laptop, video, video camera, and sound system. Moreover, the Public Speaking lecturers implemented the activities using video effectively. Besides providing video related to the public speaking topics or materials, the students' public speaking performances were being videotaped by the lecturer as well. Then, the instruction given to the students was clear enough to be understood. The students watched and analyzed the video of their public speaking performance in class. The students also evaluated their performances after watching the video. Next, the students were also asked to videotape their own public speaking performances. This was a very meaningful task that the students might practice their speech as many as they wanted since the students were also asked to watch their own performance through their video to assess their performance. The students analyzed their performances and gave comments for themselves. The students considered the task and self-assessment as helpful ways to improve their public speaking skills. It showed that the students had good perception as Altman et al. (1985) proposed that clarity and familiarity of the stimuli, needs, knowledge, and past experience enabled people to interpret and perceive the information they received. In addition, the students did not do the instruction only to accomplish the task from the lecturer, but also to explore their creativity in learning language. Having video in Public Speaking class, the students became independent learners and might be more creative in learning language, especially in Public Speaking. As defined by McGovern (1983) that video was considered helpful to develop students' skills and comprehension in gaining a more complete idea of language in action in the complete situation. Thus, the use of video in Public Speaking class gave benefits for the students.

### ***The Students' Perception on the Use of Video in Public Speaking***

The students' perception on the use of video to assess students' performance in public speaking is revealed through the results of the questionnaire and interviews. The researcher found that the students had good perception on the use of video to assess students' public speaking performances. It proved the theory of perception from Forgas (1966) and Altman et al. (1985) that perception referred to the students' subjective experiences, needs, and interest, and how the students saw reality in their environment, which in this context was in Public Speaking class. This findings are shown from the results of questionnaires and interviews. The students were able to find their own weaknesses and strengths by watching their own video recording of public speaking performance. It shows that the students had willingness to learn their own characteristics as public speakers. According to Harmer (2007), English public speakers needed more than the ability of speaking fluently and had to have the ability to deliver a speech. In this study, the students succeeded in becoming good English public speakers. Then, the students did try to overcome their weaknesses in public speaking, avoided or decreased the frequency of their weaknesses, and learned to improve their strengths when delivering speech in public. Based on Table 4.3, the use of video to assess students' performances in Public Speaking class was effective and beneficial for the students. The lecturer gave sufficient contribution to the use of video to assess students' performance in public speaking. The activities in Public Speaking class enabled the students to be independent and more creative.

### ***The Implication***

The implications of the students' perception on the use of video to assess students' performances can be derived from the results and discussion above. The students of Public Speaking class had good or positive perception. The students' positive perception led them to have successful learning process as it was related each other (Kleinke, 1978). The students with successful learning indicated that they were interested to have the activities with video in the Public Speaking class. These students could develop their skills in public speaking. In other words the students' skills improved.

The findings implied that the use of video and the activity which required students to videotape, watch, and analyze their own performances were successful and appropriate to be applied in the Public Speaking class. As suggested by McKinnon (2000) and McGovern (1983) that video offered an interesting activity and real situation, so that it was appropriate as teaching and learning media. Thus, the use of video enabled the students to improve learning, interaction, personal behavior, communication, and their ability of related subject (Zuber-Skerrit, 1984).

Basically, the activities in Public Speaking class, especially which use video, require the students to be independent learners. It is believed that the students' self-improvement is mostly determined by their own ability to assess themselves. By watching and assessing their own public speaking performances, they can learn about their own performances more deeply. The activity of self-performance or self-taped recording leads the students to a better understanding

about things that they need to improve. Then, the assessment is done as an autonomous style as well.

The results of this study mentioned that the students had good perception. It could not be separated from the roles and participation of the lecturers in applying the activities using video in Public Speaking class to the students. It implied that the contribution of the lecturers was effective and meaningful to make the students had positive perception and improvement in their public speaking performances. The students were able to follow the activities in Public Speaking class which emphasizing in assessing their public speaking performances using video because the students had already experienced it with the lecturers. As suggested by Altman et al. (1985) that clarity and familiarity of the stimuli, needs, knowledge, and past experience enabled students to interpret and perceive the information they received. Since at the beginning, the lecturers introduced the use of video to accommodate the students in public speaking by providing the video related to public speaking topics and videotaping the students when they were delivering the speech in class. As proposed by Forgas (1966) that perception referred to students' subjective experience through their own observation, therefore the activities in Public Speaking class led the students to have positive perception on the use of video in the Public Speaking class.

In addition, the activity of assessing students' performances through video was appropriate since assessing speaking performance could be done through video as suggested by Luoma (2004). This kind of activity triggered the students to explore their creativity when they were asked to videotape their own performances. Moreover, in the subsequent activities they analyzed and evaluated their own performance by watching their own performances through video. Therefore, the students are able to learn about their own performances more deeply and improve their performances since they rely on themselves as to how their performance meets or fails to meet a certain level of achievement.

## **Conclusion**

The study revealed that the students of Public Speaking class had positive perception on the use of video to assess their performances in public speaking. as the findings showed, the video used in Public Speaking class enhanced the students' independency and creativity in learning, developed the students' public speaking skills, improved the students' public speaking performance, and it helped create a meaningful interaction between the students and lecturers in Public Speaking class.

The contribution of the lecturers is effective and beneficial to make the students have positive perception and improvement in their public speaking performances. The students are able to follow the activities in Public Speaking class, which emphasizing their public speaking performances using video, because the students have already experienced it with the lecturers from the beginning of the class. It implies that the students' self-improvement is public speaking is mostly determined by their ability to assess their own performances. By watching and assessing their own performances, they can learn about themselves more deeply.



The results of the research are hopefully beneficial for Public Speaking lecturers that the use of video in Public Speaking class is important and meaningful. It also creates a positive teaching and learning atmosphere in Public Speaking class.

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## **SWEAR WORDS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING-TEACHING**

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DOI: [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2105](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2105)

received 28 March 2018; revised 2 May 2018; accepted 30 May 2018

### **Abstract**

This study attempts to explore the frequency of use of swear words and their implication for English language learning-teaching. Swear words or expletives are usually considered negative or rude to be used even in the United States or United Kingdom as English-speaking countries. In English language learning-teaching, swear words become part of linguistic studies and socio-cultural knowledge for teachers and students. This study aims to resolve two questions, namely first, what swear words have the highest frequency based on COCA and second, what implications of the frequency of swear words are for learners and teachers of English. Data were collected from a survey conducted using Facebook, which is a social medium used widely in both the United States and Indonesia for more than 13 years, and were retrieved from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), more precisely the frequency of swear words. The results of this study are expected to give knowledge on English language learning-teaching in a cultural context.

Keywords: expletive, swear word, profanity, English language learning-teaching

### **Introduction**

English profanities or swear words have been long considered as offensive language in English speaking countries, such as the United States and United Kingdom. The profanities are considered taboo and inappropriate to be spoken out during television live performances or formal broadcasts. Swearing words or the profanities are considered inappropriate and offensive since some of the profanities refer to genitals and intercourse. In the United States, the Federal Communications Commissions (FCC) manages and administers the broadcastings and has been strictly supervising aired programs.

This study brings the profanities used by the United States' Facebook users and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) to discover the frequency of the profanities used. Facebook as a social media account is widely used by both the United States and Indonesia. The Facebook survey conducted by Chris Kirk from Slate website had resulted in the orders of profanities used in Facebook during the year 2013. For the comparison, the frequency of English profanities spoken by the American would be collected from COCA.

In Indonesia, as a country which teaches English as the international language, the profanities are sometimes put aside from the language teaching. It is

assumed that the English teachers also consider the profanities as bad languages which would not be significant for the English language teaching and brings negative impacts on the students' speech and behavior. However, as a part of language and culture teaching, the knowledge about English profanities more or less would enrich students' knowledge about how to use proper language.

This study also aims to answer two research questions. First, what swear words or profanities are used the most frequently based on COCA? Second, what are the implications of the frequency of swear words for English language learning-teaching?

There are about 90 profanities in English which are considered inappropriate to be spoken out even in a daily conversation. In the United States' recorded programs, the performers who used profanities would be censored with beep-sounds. The English profanities commonly refer to genitals and intercourse activities (for example, dick, cock, and pussy) which cause these profanities are banned during the television performances of live shows, even in formal occasions. The profanities are in its synonyms with the swear words, curse words, or the F-words (consists only of four alphabets).

Dewaele (2004) says that "some swearwords and taboo words (S-T words) are the verbal equivalent of nitroglycerine". In daily conversations, if speakers use swear words in an appropriate way, it is likely that they may cause embarrassment to (non)native speakers of the target language, English. Based on Dewaele's argument, it is assumed that Indonesian English teachers also consider less-important to teach, even a glimpse, of the English profanities. Bad languages would bring bad impacts on the students' speaking skills. However, the researcher believes that there are Indonesian English speakers, albeit the numbers could be at the least, use profanities in their daily conversation, both online or offline. Cultural knowledge on the language being studied becomes inevitable, including the profanities (Matthew, 2013, p. 38). Interestingly, some swear words are also used as infixes; in this case, the term 'infix' may refer to "a free morpheme or an independent word which is inserted into or attached inside a word, as in *abso-bloodylutely*, *guaran-damn-tee* and *fan-fucking-tastic*" (Bram, 2011, p. 25).

"Swearing is influenced by pragmatic (contextual) variables, such as the conversational topic, the speaker-listener relationship, including gender, occupation, and status, and the social-physical setting of the communication ..." (Jay & Janscewitz, 2008, p. 272). Profanities are the forms of spontaneous reaction people would utter when they experience emotional events or seeing, watching, hearing, and listening to unusual events. Some people could hold-up swearing or barely swearing, but other people may freely swear words as their feelings' reactions.

Dewaele (2004) reiterates that "the study of S-T words among multilinguals is located at the intersection of and contributes to research in bilingualism, psychology, pragmatics, second language learning and emotions". Jay and Janschewitz (2008, p. 269) state that "judgments of rudeness are not only determined by the propositional content of swear words but by a sense of what is appropriate in a particular situation". It may concluded that fluent speakers of English can also use swear words appropriately. A survey conducted by Kirk

(2013) about the swear words used online via Facebook had resulted in different categories of age-groups, genders, countries, and personal preferences.

Offensiveness also becomes unavoidable impact of swearing words (Goddard, 2015: pp. 2-3; Stone, McMillan & Hazelton, 2015). On virtual chat or conversation such as Facebook, the profanities would tend to create misunderstanding and offensiveness to the opponents. Virtual conversation on Facebook tends to be distorted in meanings due to lack of facial expressions and tone of voice which in direct conversation would be clearer for other people.

## Method

This descriptive, qualitative study used Kirk's survey on the Facebook users in the United States during the year 2013. Kirk's survey results had indicated the profanities used by different genders, regions, age-groups, and countries (as the comparison for the profanities used in other English-speaking countries). To discover the frequency used by written or spoken users (offline users), the researcher uses the Corpus of Contemporary American English data base. The COCA data base was updated until December 2017 which would give up-to-date results of occurrences of swear words.

## Findings and Discussion

The data were obtained from Kirk's survey on Facebook during the year 2013. The survey resulted in the order of profanities mostly used by the American during the year 2013. There are twenty profanities out of nineties profanities resulted as the most frequently used profanities on Facebook. As a comparison, the researchers used COCA to collect the frequencies of swear words. For the additional frequency of occurrence is the United Kingdom data. The frequency of profanities based on the Facebook survey and COCA are displayed as follows:

**Table 1: Frequency of Profanities Used by Online Users**

No.	US Profanities	UK profanities	US Occurrence (COCA)
1.	shit	fuck	15684
2.	fuck	shit	10186
3.	damn	bloody	17418
4.	bitch	piss	5937
5.	crap	bitch	3961
6.	piss	crap	1774
7.	dick	cock	17284
8.	darn	cunt	1902
9.	cock	damn	1396
10.	pussy	dick	1172
11.	asshole	bastard	2192
12.	fag	bugger	338
13.	bastard	fag	3836
14.	slut	pussy	762
15.	douche	bollocks	137
16.	bloody	slut	10742
17.	cunt	arsehole	350
18.	bugger	darn	314
19.	bollocks	asshole	90
20.	arsehole	douche	24

Based on COCA's frequency of the profanities, the order of the most frequent profanities could be shown as follows:

**Table 2: The frequency of profanities according to COCA**

No	Profanity	Occurrence
1.	damn	17418
2.	dick	17284
3.	shit	15684
4.	bloody	10742
5.	fuck	10186
6.	bitch	5937
7.	crap	3961
8.	bastard	3836
9.	asshole	2192
10.	darn	1902
11.	piss	1774
12.	cock	1396
13.	pussy	1172
14.	slut	762
15.	cunt	350
16.	fag	338
17.	bugger	314
18.	douche	137
19.	bollocks	90
20.	arsehole	24

As shown in Table 2, the words *damn*, *dick*, *shit*, *bloody*, and *fuck* were the five most frequent profanities used by the offline users based on COCA, ranging from 10,000 times up to 17,418 times. The word *bitch* is on the sixth, which appeared about 5,937 times. The other profanities, ranging from 3,961 times up to 32,000 times, were *asshole*, *bastard*, and *crap*. The profanities, such as *darn*, *piss*, *cock*, *pussy*, *slut*, *cunt*, *fag*, *bugger*, *douche*, *bollocks*, and *arsehole* were considered less frequent, ranging from 1,000 times down to only 24 times. In both the United States and United Kingdom, the words *fuck* and *shit* seemed to be the most popular (top two) profane words used on Facebook (Table 1). This finding had answered the first research question about the profanities' frequency of occurrence based on COCA.

The word *bloody* surprisingly has a high frequency of occurrence (10,742 times) for the word *bloody* is popularly used by the British rather than the American. In Chris Kirk's another survey results (the profanities used according to the countries), the word *bloody* was in the least occurrence in the United States and Canada (placed in the sixteenth and fifteenth), while in the United Kingdom, the word *bloody* placed in the third most frequent profanity. For Corpus of Contemporary American English refers to American-English language, it is quite surprising to obtain the frequency of occurrence for the word *bloody*.

Then, the researcher also assumed that the six-most frequent profanities according to COCA, namely *damn*, *dick*, *shit*, *bloody*, *fuck*, and *bitch* were largely used (both online and offline) due to its one-syllable pronunciation. As the profanities have its relationship with the speaker's emotional reaction (Jay &

Janscewitz, 2008) at the time of speaking or seeing things around them, one-syllable profanities are considered instant, spontaneous and easy to pronounce in the unpredictable or surprising events. On the Facebook account conversation, it is easier and faster to type one-syllable expletives to react or to respond others' uploaded status, photos, or videos. As the additional comparison, the top ten profanities occurrence in the United Kingdom also placed the one-syllable words (Table 1). These one-syllable profanities also well-known with the term *F-word*; consists of only four alphabets.

The word *damn* is considered easy to pronounce profane word and when it is referred to Bahasa Indonesia, the meaning is quite acceptable for daily uttered profane word. In Bahasa Indonesia, the word *damn* means “sial/sialan” and does not refer to any human genital or intercourse activities. The researcher assumed that in the United States' online or virtual conversation, using the profane word *damn* is considered quite polite since it has the neutral meaning. It is different with the word *dick* which refers to male genital and *shit*, which refers to human's feces. The word *fuck* refers to sexual intercourse activities while the word *bitch*, which means a female dog, sounds harassing to women when it is spoken by both a male and female to other females, especially in distorted media, such as Facebook (Herring & Kapidzic, 2015: p. 1, Guvendir (2015, p. 2).

Note that the word *fuck* could be used for cultural knowledge in English language teaching. The word *fuck* does not stand alone for its history in the battle of Hastings, in the mid-century of England. Cechova (2006) says that the history of Hastings battle which designed today's United Kingdom. The word *fuck* stands for Fornication Under the Consent of the King. It would be wise for Indonesian English teachers for teaching such a history for the better knowledge would prevent Indonesian students from carelessly adopting the profanities.

Other profanities with one-syllable pronunciation, such as *crap*, *darn*, *piss*, *cock*, *slut*, *cunt*, and *fag* may not be familiar for the American daily or virtual speaking. The two-syllable pronunciation profanities, such as *bastard*, *asshole*, *pussy*, *bugger*, *douche*, *bollocks*, and *arsehole* might have been used in direct conversation (offline). The two-syllable profanities are sometimes combined with nouns or other adjectives to comment on certain emotional events experienced by the speaker.

**Table 3: Examples of two-syllable profanities with nouns/adjectives**

No.	Two-syllable Profanities	Combination	Sentence examples
1.	bastard	tricky + bastard (adj.)	Marlon Brando is such a <i>tricky bastard</i> .
2.	pussy	pussy + boy (n.)	Adrian is a <i>pussy boy</i> .
3.	bugger	an old + bugger (adj.)	I do not want to see that <i>old bugger</i> here anymore.
4.	douche	douche + bag (n.)	Don't be like a <i>douche bag</i> !
5.	bollocks	cranky + bollocks (adj.)	Mr. Snowman has been acting like a <i>cranky bollocks</i> !
6.	arsehole	fat (adj.) + arsehole	What is that <i>fat arsehole</i> doing here?

Other profanities that could be seen through the American movies, such as *mother-fucker*, *dick-head*, *scum-bag*, and *son of a bitch*, seemed to be less used on Facebook due to its three or four-syllable pronunciation and impracticality to be

typed fast on virtual chat. Personal preferences also play important roles in the choice of profanities used by Americans.

Then, this cultural knowledge about English would be beneficial for Indonesian students because when they engage in a conversation, they would be able to choose proper language. English teachers in Indonesia also need to enrich their teaching with cultural knowledge related to the profanities because today's students have more access to foreign cultures and life style. The English profanities have the cultural background in which teacher and students must be aware of when it is used in direct or indirect conversation. By having sufficient knowledge on the language, people would be best placing them in any occasion.

### Conclusion

Learning a foreign language also learns its cultures, whether positive or negative. The English language also brings its cultures which need to be studied by learners, including Indonesians, to improve their English proficiency and better understand the cultural aspects of the target language. This study is expected to be beneficial for English teachers in Indonesia and see the profanities from the positive perspectives. Teaching language, including its rude or impolite vocabulary/lexical items would never mean giving negative influences to the students. Today's students could open access to any source which contain profanities. When English language learning-teaching already enriches students with sufficient knowledge on how to use the language, the researchers are convinced that it could be an extra advantage for better English language learning-teaching.

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**LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES  
IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM  
IN INDONESIAN HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXT**

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**DOI:** [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2106](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2106)

Received 8 February 2018; revised 2 March 2018; accepted 4 April 2018

**Abstract**

Indonesian university students are not well-familiar with language learning strategies (LLS) as they are dependent on their lecturers. This condition also gets worse because the students still have low level of proficiency although they have already been learning English for multiple years. There have been many researches on students' LLS related to the four language skills and gender but there is a high need of studying the students' LLS regarding their age in the Indonesian higher education context. This research aimed at investigating students' language learning strategies related to their ages and providing some steps to make teaching program more effective by considering students' LLS and their age as well. This research utilized descriptive survey research design. The participants were 122 English Department students at one of public universities in Borneo Island, Indonesia. The instrument was SILL questionnaire. All the collected data were analyzed statistically. The findings show that students mostly used metacognitive ( $M=3.857$ ), cognitive ( $M=3.707$ ), and compensation strategies ( $M=3.563$ ). The students' different age led them to select and implement different strategies. Some steps to optimize students' learning strategies are through inserting LLS instruction in the curriculum of teaching program, implementing certain models of strategy instruction, and developing lecturers' awareness of designing instruction at which one of the methods that can be employed is eclectic methods. Considering all findings, it can be concluded that although indirect strategies get higher means of preference from the participants but they do not only focus on using indirect strategies. They combine those with direct strategies. Further, to make students more successful on their learning, the institution including lecturers and the academic community should take part in the effort of teaching learning strategies. This provides future research area that emphasizes on designing LLS instruction regarding students' age and level of their education.

**Keywords:** learning strategy, university students, age

**Introduction**

In conducting teaching-learning process, the power of lecturers and students must be equal. They share materials to be constructed and result in the form of knowledge (Freire, 1970). However, the knowledge construction between

lecturers and students would not run well as long as the lecturers who make an effort solely to engage the students in learning process. Thus, students are also needed to be actively engaged through making use of some strategies in learning the materials taught by the lecturers. On the contrary, in Indonesian context, mainly for EFL program, students are not well familiar with learning strategies and dependent on their lecturers (Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, and Ramadhiyanti, 2013). In fact, they should play their important role in obtaining and sharing the information regarding the effective teaching-learning process. One of the challenges they have is they do not recognize their learning strategies, even make use of appropriate learning strategies to have sufficient proficiency. The root of that challenge is because they are not taught formally about learning strategies. Thus, although Indonesian students have already been learning English subject for multiple years, they have low level of proficiency (Lie, 2007; Marcellino, 2008; Imperiani, 2012, Larson, 2014; Oktaviyanti, 2017).

There are many studies and researches having been focused on the Language Learning Strategies (LLS) such as Lengkanawati (1997) who focused on the use of learning strategies being done by groups of students, Umamah (2008) then Novitasari (2009) and Mistar and Umamah (2014) who focused on the research on students' learning strategies for speaking skills, Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, and Ramadhiyanti (2013) who focused on studying students' learning strategies as they learn English mainly for reading skill, Setiyadi, Sukirlan, and Mahpul (2016) who focused on students' learning strategies for the four skills in English, and last Oktaviyanti (2017) who focused on students' learning strategies and teachers' characteristics. Considering many earlier researches focus on students' learning strategies and gender, it is found that there has been no research which emphasizes on the relation between LLS and age. Therefore, this research examines those two variables -students' LLS and age-, how they are related each other in LLS preference.

LLS has been defined by many theorists. The first definition puts forward by Rubin (1981). She states that LLS is "the techniques or devices that a learner may use to acquire language". Further, Oxford (1990) defines that LLS is "specific method/technique employed by individual learners to facilitate their comprehension, retention, retrieval, and application of information in second or foreign language". Then, according to Brown (2000), strategies is "specific methods of approaching problems or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned design for controlling and manipulating certain informations". Next, it is stated as well that LLS is "a conscious mental activity that contains a goal or intention, an action to reach this goal, and a learning activity" (Cohen, 2007). From these four theorists then learning strategies is utilized consciously in order to help students acquire the second or foreign language they are learning about. Then, the age of students is considered as one of the factors that influence the selection or choice of learning strategies they use when learning language. It is stated that the more mature students, the more various learning strategies they use (Devlin, 1996).

This research aims at investigating the students' LLS in learning English viewed from the available demographic information particularly their ages in an

EFL teaching program in the Indonesian higher education context and providing some steps to make teaching program more effective by considering students' LLS and their age.

Regarding the purpose of the research mentioned previously, the research questions are addressed as the followings:

1. What are the students' language learning strategies in learning English as their foreign language during EFL teaching program in the Indonesian higher education context?
2. What are learning strategies frequently used by university students regarding their ages?
3. How do lecturers cope with students' various language learning strategies especially with large class setting which is commonly found in the Indonesian higher education context?

This research focuses solely on the investigation of students' language learning strategies related to the students' ages. Hence, this research practically benefits lecturer of the higher education institution to identify their students' learning strategies and determine various learning tasks and activities, select and implement the appropriate teaching methods and models of LLS instruction based on students' learning strategies preference. To sum up, the result of research can portray the students' learning strategies, their strategies based on their ages, and the steps to make the teaching program more effective and efficient in the Indonesian higher education context.

Previously, there are definitions and explanation related to LLS and age. However, to be specific, the operational definition of the Language Learning Strategies (LLS) in this study refers to the conscious methods, techniques, activity, or devices that a student utilize from preparation, process, and evaluation of their learning so they can acquire language and achieve the learning goals altogether. The students' LLS covers memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Moreover, age is not only specifically related to period of time someone has lived but it also connects with the length of his or her time to study English language (Oxford, 1990; Devlin, 1996). The students' age is identified into several range; they are "under 20 years old", "21-22 years old", "22-23 years old", "24-25 years old", and "26-27 years old". These two operational definitions are used continuously in the latter discussion of this article.

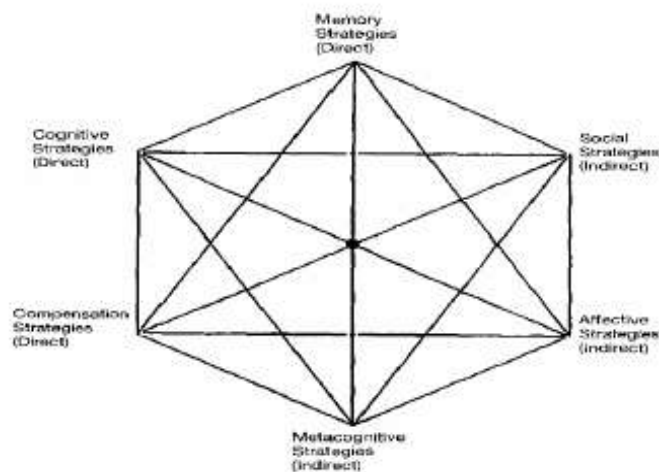
## **Literature Review**

Undeniably, each student has their own learning strategies. However, students will get difficult to be independent on their learning if they do not recognize, plan, manage, and evaluate their learning process. Kumaravadivelu (2006) states that students experience more meaningful and practical learning if they know how to learn. It means that if the students recognize the way to learn materials provided by the lecturer then they are going to have different experience. Positively, they consider the learning contents to be challenging and meaningful for them. Moreover, the students are well-planned to "monitor their learning success" and improve their "learning potentials" (Kumaravadivelu,

2006). To keep the ideal condition as mentioned earlier is not an easy thing to do because lecturers have to be role model in introducing the new strategy and certainly make more efforts on giving chances for students to have “multiple practices” in order to develop their language learning autonomy (Chamot, 2008).

Related to the effort of recognizing students’ learning strategies, there are four major classification successfully constructed by Rubin (1981), O’Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987), and Oxford (1990). Rubin (1981) focuses on two processes which contribute directly and indirectly to learning. Meanwhile, O’Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987) highlight the three types of learning strategies. They are metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies. Then, Oxford (1990) classifies the strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are the “strategies involving mental process and directly influencing the target language” and indirect strategies are “those supporting and managing language” but not directly concerning the target language (Oxford, 1990). In addition, the direct strategies cover memory, cognitive, and compensation whereas the indirect one emphasizes on metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

Generally, Oxford’s classification covers all learning strategies constructed by the previous theories. Moreover, the figure 1 shows that the six strategies are correlated each other and contribute the learning both directly and indirectly. Therefore, Oxford classification and her theory about learning strategies are widely accepted to be used in most researches.



**Figure 1. Inter-relationships between direct and indirect strategies (Oxford, 1990)**

Several researches about the learning strategies that is related to students’ age have been conducted and reported. The studies which are closely relevant to the present work are Oxford (1990), Devlin (1996), and Lee and Oxford (2008). Three of them reported about the students’ age, the period of studying second or foreign language, and the learning strategies they use. Mostly, the mature age utilize metacognitive strategies rather than any other strategies (Devlin, 1996; Lee & Oxford, 2008), while the students with different age use different strategies to learn language (Oxford, 1990).

In accordance with the literature review and previous relevant research reports, the researcher carries out the research about university students' preference on learning strategies which is associated to their age and the years they have already spent for studying the language.

### Method

This research emphasized on the kinds of language learning strategies used by the university students and the kinds of language learning strategies used by the university students regarding their age as well. Thus, in order to answer the research questions, the researcher made use of descriptive survey research design. It was adapted from the research design by Lodico et al (2010). The steps were identifying a research topic, reviewing the literature, developing research questions, determining the questionnaire being used, selecting participants, administering the survey, analyzing and interpreting the survey results, and having final research result.

The participants being involved in this study were the students of English Department from one of public universities in Borneo Island, Indonesia. They were the first, third, fifth, and seventh semester students. There were 127 out of 320 students who responded the online questionnaire. It was due to the multiple responses sent by same participants and number of students who were not active/taking leave of absence and other students who did not send their response as being informed, the researcher recalculated the exact numbers of participants and found there were 122 students whose information would be used in this research.

The data in this research were collected by employing a questionnaire. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire (Oxford, 1990) was used to investigate students' learning strategies. In total the SILL questionnaire has 50 items and each subcategory consists of cognitive, memory, metacognitive, compensation, affective and social strategies. The fifty items uses Likert scale at which there are five points that represent certain response. Point 1 is "never or almost never true of me", point 2 is "usually not true of me", point 3 is "somewhat true of me", point 4 is "usually true of me", and point 5 is "always or almost always true of me". Further, the researcher asked the participants to give the needed demographic information such as names, age, gender, and the semester they were taking when responding the questionnaire. Additionally, for the age, the researcher used range starting from "under 20 years old", "21-22 years old", "22-23 years old", "24-25 years old", and "26-27 years old" in order to make the classification easily done. Considering the use of questionnaire, the researcher analyzed the instrument's validity and reliability as well. It was found that all items were valid since the  $r_o > r_t$  or the  $r_o$  of each item was higher than .178 ( $n = 122$ ). Moreover, the reliability gained .94. Therefore, the items were valid and reliable.

Next, in this research, there were two independent variables to focus on namely students' learning strategies and age. As being stated earlier, this research investigated the students' language learning strategies and kinds of language learning strategies used by the university students regarding their age.

For collecting the data, the researcher administered the questionnaire and made it available in the online version. It was to make the students flexible in answering and submitting the questionnaire. The questionnaire had been posted since October 30<sup>th</sup>, 2017. The students were given two weeks for accessing and filling out the questionnaire. The form itself had to be filled out at one-time access so the students could not leave the form before all required items were chosen. The collected data then were downloaded in the excel format to be used for further analysis.

All the entry data were analyzed statistically. To answer the first and second question, descriptive statistics was utilized in order to find for the means, standard deviation, and the rank for each learning strategy being chosen by the participants. The results of mean score for each item then were categorized into high use (usually used (3.5-4.4) & always or almost used (4.5-5.0)), medium use (sometimes used (2.5-3.4)), and low use (generally not used (1.5-2.4) & never or almost never used (1.0-1.4)) (Oxford, 1990). In providing the answer for the last question, the researcher reflected on the result of two previous findings and found the theories or research result that support the researcher's viewpoint.

### Findings and Discussion

There are two sections being highlighted in this part. They are findings and discussion. The findings focus on the demographic information, the overall descriptive statistics of all items available in the questionnaire, the frequency of each item, the frequency of strategies regarding students' age. Later, the finding results are discussed in detail in order to answer the research questions.

**Table 1. The participants of research based on their semester**

Semester	F*	M**	Total
1 <sup>st</sup> semester	5	3	8
3 <sup>rd</sup> semester	32	11	43
5 <sup>th</sup> semester	27	11	38
7 <sup>th</sup> semester	23	10	33
Total	87	35	Σ = 122

\* = Female, \*\* = Male

Table 1 shows that majority of the participants were female (71.31% out of 122 students) and male (28.69% out of 122 students). This is due to the imbalance gender distribution of the students in English Department. Out of 122 participants, 35.25% were from the third semester students, 31.15% were from the fifth semester students, 27.05% were from the seventh semester students and the rest 6.55% were from the first semester students.

**Table 2. The participants of research based on their age**

Age	F*	M**	Total
Under 20 years	26	9	35
20-21 years	55	17	72
22-23 years	6	7	13
24-25 years	1	1	2
26-25 years	0	0	0
Total			$\Sigma = 122$

\* = Female, \*\* = Male

Table 2 shows the age distribution of participants. Out of 122 participants, 28.68% were students with the age of under 20 years old, 59.02% were students with the age between 20-21 years old, 10.66% were students with the age between 22-22 years old and the rest 1.64% were students with the age between 24-25 years old. Thus, the dominant age of participants was the age between 20-21 years old (59.02%).

**Table 3. The descriptive statistics of all items**

Item.	Statement	Mean	SD
Memory			
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	3.72	0.76
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	3.76	0.91
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.	3.68	1.04
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.30	1.03
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	3.07	1.17
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.	2.53	1.14
7	I physically act out new English words.	3.23	1.00
8	I review English lessons often.	3.28	0.86
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	3.26	1.04
Cognitive			
10	I say or write new English words several times.	3.61	1.03
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.90	0.96
12	I practice the sounds of English.	3.98	0.89
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	3.64	0.88
14	I start conversations in English.	3.34	1.01
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	3.96	1.05
16	I read for pleasure in English.	3.43	0.92
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	3.14	1.04
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3.46	0.97
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.41	0.97
20	I try to find patterns in English.	3.31	0.95
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.52	0.94
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.	3.63	1.03
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	3.19	1.05

Item.	Statement	Mean	SD
Compensation			
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3.48	1.04
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.94	1.01
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	3.60	1.00
27	I read English without looking up every new word.	3.09	1.02
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3.44	1.00
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	3.80	0.88
Metacognitive			
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	3.88	0.91
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	3.99	0.96
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	4.33	0.78
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	4.28	0.78
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	3.27	0.96
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.	3.86	0.89
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	3.55	0.95
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	3.50	0.98
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	4.02	0.92
Affective			
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	3.93	0.99
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.95	0.89
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	3.22	1.23
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	3.54	0.96
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	2.71	1.26
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	3.32	1.20
Social			
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	4.23	0.81
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	3.61	1.31
47	I practice English with other students.	3.92	1.01
48	I ask for help from English speakers.	3.47	1.11
49	I ask questions in English.	3.37	0.88
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	3.62	1.05

Table 3 shows the overall descriptive statistics of participants' response. The learning strategies mostly chosen is metacognitive, mean = 4.33 and the least one is memory, mean = 2.53.

**Table 4. The frequency of language learning of memory strategies**

Item	Statement	Mean	SD	Strategy
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	3.72	0.76	High
2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	3.76	0.91	High
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image of the word to help remember the word.	3.68	1.04	High
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental	3.30	1.03	Medium



	picture of a situation in which the word might be used.			
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	3.07	1.17	Medium
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.	2.53	1.14	Medium
7	I physically act out new English words.	3.23	1.00	Medium
8	I review English lessons often.	3.28	0.86	Medium
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their exact location.	3.26	1.04	Medium

Table 4 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the memory strategies they used. The item number 2 gains 3.76 or as the mostly utilized strategy. They like to use new English lexical items into the form of syntax in order to help them remember what words they have already learned.

**Table 5. The frequency of language learning of cognitive strategies**

Item	Statement	Mean	SD	Strategy
10	I say or write new English words several times.	3.61	1.03	High
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.90	0.96	High
12	I practice the sounds of English.	3.98	0.89	High
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	3.64	0.88	High
14	I start conversations in English.	3.34	1.01	Medium
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	3.96	1.05	High
16	I read for pleasure in English.	3.43	0.92	Medium
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	3.14	1.04	Medium
18	I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3.46	0.97	Medium
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.41	0.97	Medium
20	I try to find patterns in English.	3.31	0.95	Medium
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.52	0.94	High
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.	3.63	1.03	High
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	3.19	1.05	Medium

Table 5 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the cognitive strategies they used. The item number twelve gains 3.98 or as the mostly chosen strategy. Students prefer to practice their English whether it involves the practice during the teaching learning process or any kinds of activities they do outside the classroom.

**Table 6. The frequency of language learning of compensation strategies**

Item	Statement	Mean	SD	Strategy
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3.48	1.04	Medium
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.94	1.01	High
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	3.60	1.00	High
27	I read English without looking up every new word.	3.09	1.02	Medium
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3.44	1.00	Medium
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	3.80	0.88	High

Table 6 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the compensation strategies they used. The item number 25 gains 3.94. Students do not only focus on their speaking but simultaneously, they also make use of gestures at the time they cannot forget or do not know what lexical items they should produce during conversation.

**Table 7. The frequency of language learning of metacognitive strategies**

Item	Statement	Mean	SD	Strategy
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	3.88	0.91	High
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	3.99	0.96	High
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	4.33	0.78	High
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	4.28	0.78	High
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	3.27	0.96	Medium
35	I look for people I can talk to in English.	3.86	0.89	High
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	3.55	0.95	High
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	3.50	0.98	High
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	4.02	0.92	High

Table 7 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the metacognitive strategies they used. The item number 31 gains 3.99. Students know that they make a mistake and use that kind of experience in order to do betterment for their English language.

**Table 8. The frequency of language learning of affective strategies**

Item	Statement	Mean	SD	Strategy
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	3.93	0.99	High
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.95	0.89	High
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	3.22	1.23	Medium
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	3.54	0.96	High
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	2.71	1.26	Medium
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	3.32	1.20	Medium

Table 8 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the affective strategies they used. The item number 40 gains 3.95. To be frankly, most students put their high effort on keep saying something although they get worried about making mistake.

**Table 9. The frequency of language learning of social strategies**

Item	Statement	Mean	SD	Strategy
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	4.23	0.81	High
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	3.61	1.31	High
47	I practice English with other students.	3.92	1.01	High
48	I ask for help from English speakers.	3.47	1.11	Medium

49	I ask questions in English.	3.37	0.88	Medium
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	3.62	1.05	High

Table 9 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the social strategies they used. The item number 47 gains 3.92. For the social strategies, students mostly practice their English with other students. It is closely connected with the frequent affective strategy they use at which they keep struggling to speak although the mistakes are commonly done.

**Table 10. The frequency of language learning used by university students**

Strategies	Mean	SD	Strategy Use	Rank
Memory	3.319	0.998	Medium	6
Cognitive	3.542	0.981	High	4
Compensation	3.563	0.998	High	3
Metacognitive	3.857	0.909	High	1
Affective	3.447	1.094	Medium	5
Social	3.707	1.034	High	2

Table 10 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding the overall strategies they used. The frequent strategy is metacognitive which gains 3.857. Meanwhile, the least strategy is memory and it reaches the mean of 3.319.

**Table 11. The frequency of language learning used by university students' age**

Age	N	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
< 20	35	3.36190	3.67551	3.51904	3.86349	3.57619	3.85238
Rank		6	3	5	1	4	2
20-21	72	3.31018	3.47321	3.63194	3.86728	3.42592	3.68981
Rank		6	4	3	1	5	2
22-23	13	3.37606	3.67032	3.43589	3.95726	3.35897	3.55128
Rank		5	2	4	1	6	3
24-25	2	2.83333	3.28571	3.25	3.33333	3.08333	3.41666
Rank		6	3	4	2	5	1
$\Sigma = 122$							

Table 11 shows the frequency of participants' response regarding students' age. The strategies are various from one range to another range of age.

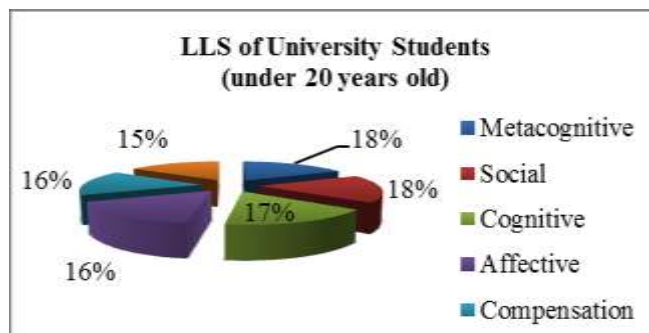


Figure 2. LLS of students with the age of under 20 years old

Figure 2 shows that metacognitive is the most frequent strategy used by the students who are categorized as students with the age of under 20 years. The orders of frequent strategies used, then, are social, cognitive, affective, compensation, and memory.

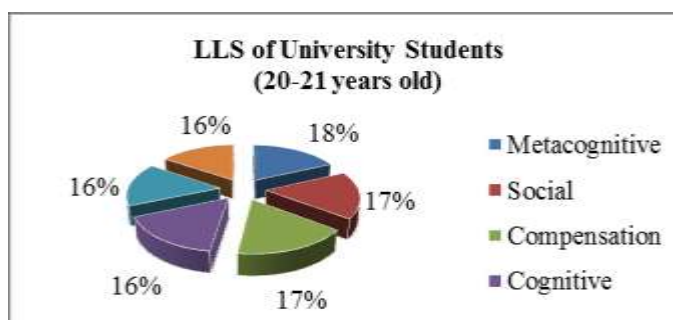


Figure 3. LLS of students with the age between 20-21 years old

Figure 3 shows that metacognitive is the most frequent strategy used by the students as well. Frequently, the 20-21 years old students also make use of the other strategies such as social, compensation, cognitive, affective, and memory.

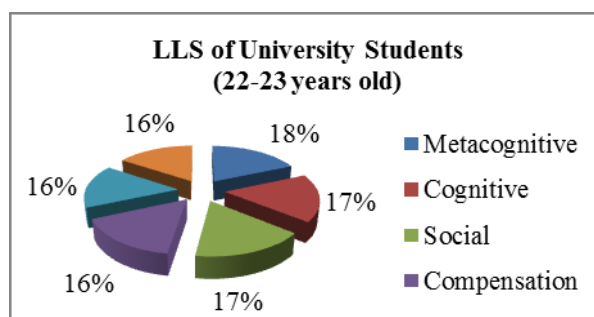


Figure 4. LLS of students with the age between 22-23 years old

Figure 4 shows that students with the range of age between 22-23 years old apply metacognitive as their language learning strategy. Moreover, they have cognitive, social, compensation, memory, and affective.

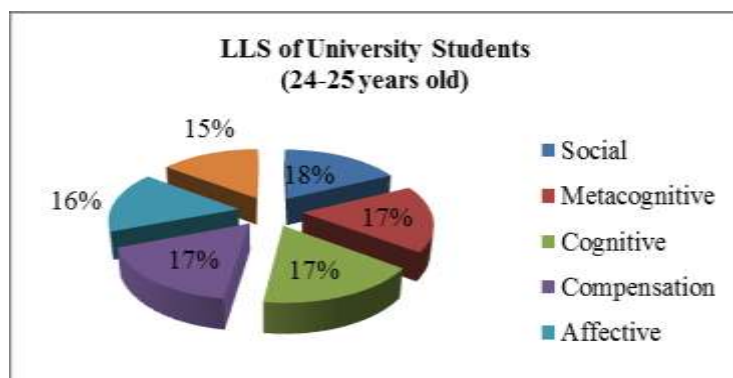


Figure 5. LLS of students with the age between 24-25 years old

Figure 5 shows different strategy as the frequent one to be used. It is social strategy. Then, the other strategies such as metacognitive, cognitive, compensation, affective, and memory are in the next order. This following point focuses on the discussion of three available research questions. All discussion is presented briefly based on the findings previously described.

### 2.1 The students' LLS in learning English

Regarding the given responses, the university students, who take English education as their major, use dissimilar learning strategies frequently. They utilize all six strategies simultaneously. However, the most frequent learning strategies is metacognitive. Thus, they can determine what learning plan they are going to have and evaluate it together as they are also university students who have already had many learning experiences in making use of certain strategies to get better achievement. This finding is in line with the previous research findings of Oh (1992), Sheorey (1999), and Salahshour, et al. (2013) at which students make use of metacognitive strategy to have fixed preparation, control, and evaluation for their own stage of learning language (Graham, 1997; Zare, 2012). On the contrary, it proves that O'Malley, et al. (1985) report about Asian students' learning strategy is memory strategy cannot be fully accepted because Indonesian students, including as part of Asian context, utilize metacognitive strategy more frequently.

The next preferred strategy used by the participants is social strategy. Related to their level of education, social strategy is very common because substantially they have to converse and cooperate very often during teaching learning process inside or outside the classroom. For this kind of strategy, students are purposely to create more interaction with other people so they can enhance their proficiency in English (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011) or enrich their vocabulary (Alhaysony, 2012). In short, social strategy is taken into account as one of strategies for learning English. Moreover, the university students think that through practicing their language skills with other people, their language skills can be improved continuously.

Another strategy used by the participants is compensation strategy. They utilize this strategy because it allows them to guess the meaning of texts they are reading about or dialogues they are having with, make use of gestures to help

them deliver the message to their partners in conversation, or make up new words if they do not know the correct words to utter. The previous explanation directly refers to Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, and Ramadhiyanti (2013) research result that compensation strategy is one of the frequent strategies used by college students.

As shown earlier in findings, it can be stated that students use a combination of indirect and direct learning strategies namely metacognitive, social, and compensation strategies. Thus, it conforms Oxford (1990) report that indirect and direct strategies are interrelated each other since students generally combine them in the process of learning language.

## ***2.2 The frequent learning strategies basrd on ages***

To answer the question about the frequent learning strategies used by university students regarding their ages, the explanation starts from the younger age to the older ones. The students with the age of under 20 years old, the age of between 20-21 years old, and the age of between 22-23 years old belong to the groups of university students who make use of metacognitive strategy frequently because they can plan, control, and evaluate their learning process. Briefly, this strategy is considered to empower students to have more opportunities in planning the whole process of their language learning. Unlike the earlier mentioned group, the students with the age of between 24-25 years old prefer using social strategy. They employ this strategy because they learn English through asking frequently on every occasion they get difficult with the words which should be used, practicing the language regularly, and learning the culture of English speakers continuously.

Additionally, due to the data, there are some interesting points about the frequent strategies used by the university students. The first point is the similarity of learning strategies but different position. As being known, the students with the age of under 20 years old, those with the age between 22-23 years old and those with the age between 24-25 years old have same strategies to learn English. Nevertheless, they share dissimilar position for social and cognitive strategies at which for the first group of age put social and cognitive as the second and third frequent strategies whereas the second group of age put cognitive as the second strategy followed by social strategy. Differently, the third group of age put social as the most frequent learning strategy and rank metacognitive and cognitive strategies in the latter positions. On the other hand, the students with the age between 20-21 years old use compensation as one of the strategies since the other two strategies (metacognitive and social) are also utilized by the other groups of age.

Hence, it can be stated that students from different groups of age share similar use of learning strategies at which they likely combine indirect and direct strategies and utilize them interchangeably regarding the task or specific skills they are concerning about. There is no trend of mono strategy (direct strategies or indirect strategies repetitively) as they have already been learning English for multiple years. However, their different kinds of strategies mainly for some strategies show that they utilize them in purpose. Additionally, the reasons that underline students' preference can be researched for further confirmation. As matter of fact, students especially those whose age are in the early of 19 up to 25

years can strengthen the previous discussion that the use of combined indirect and direct strategies and its practices which are done interchangeably.

### ***2.3 Lecturers' strategies and students' various language learning strategies***

Learning strategies is very important for students. It can improve their autonomy as learners. Moreover, it benefits university students because the generation, who will lead the future of one nation, they have to be independent not only in obtaining information but also in managing information they've got. As part of Asian and world community, Indonesian university students should prepare, manage or control and evaluate their learning process. Thus, learning strategies is one of crucial things to recognize, use and improve in order to reach high achievement theoretically and practically (in all four language skills). To have those ideal conditions, lecturers should play their roles effectively in the process of developing students' awareness and improving the learning strategies they have already been using. Considering the need of teaching learning strategies, followings are several stages that can be implemented to help students aware of and utilize their own strategies optimally to learn English.

First, lecturers and the academic community at the department can discuss and evaluate their instruction right before and after the teaching program runs for a semester. It is very important since it can provide the information about students' progress. Moreover, through these kinds of activity, the lecturers and the community can consider about inserting LLS instruction in the curriculum (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985; Brown, 2000; Yang, 2002; Cesur, 2011; Gerami & Baighlou, 2011), considering the course overview, course content, instructional methods, and evaluation data (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985), and implementing it for teaching-learning process inside or outside the classroom. It is fruitful as Indonesian students are dependent on their lecturers (Aunurrahman, Kurniawati, & Ramadhiyanti, 2013). Therefore, after they are taught about LLS then it is expected that they become independent and more responsible for selecting appropriate strategies related to the set of their learning goals. More importantly, Brown (2000) states that teaching LLS can enable students to develop autonomy and self-regulation and they result in students' language proficiency.

Second, the stage for implementing LLS instruction is through the usage of certain models. Chamot (2008) states that there are three models such as Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI), Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), and the model proposed by Grenfell and Harris. The SSBI model (Cohen, 1998) put the lecturers as the helpers of their students to learn new strategies regarding their learning styles. Hence, this model emphasizes on effective lecturers' role. On the contrary, lecturers and students have equality in playing their roles using the CALLA model during the teaching-learning process (Chamot, 2005). Meanwhile, the Grenfell and Harris model (Grenfell & Harris, 1999) asks students to be more independent as they have wide chance to make identification and determination on their own learning strategies. Certainly, all those models are applicable. However, related to the university students' needs, the CALLA model is feasible because it conforms the purpose of making them more autonomous and self-regulated (Brown, 2000). Another consideration is that Indonesian class size is large so if the students are taught well using the CALLA

model then the students do not have to be directed all the time. In fact, they can do evaluation and self-reflection simultaneously.

Third, lecturers are required to have awareness in designing their instruction (Hakan, 2015). It is quite necessary because it affects students' improvement not only their proficiency but also their preference on learning style so the meaningful and practical learning is created. Related to the idea of instructional design, lecturers can consider about using eclectic methods (Weinstein & Underwood, 1985). This method is applicable because in designing methods, there are two things have to be taken into account namely students' competency and proficiency (Sadiqah, 2015). Further, lecturers should be aware that there is no single method which works effectively for all members of learning group (Li, 2012). Therefore, if the lecturers are aware of their students' proficiency and understand what learning strategies they use for language class they enroll then lecturers get easier in order to determine the methods they use during teaching-learning process. The key, then, is on recognizing the students' needs and learning strategies, setting the learning goals together, developing suitable materials, formulating the available methods to be applicable for all, giving treatment to the students, and evaluating the teaching program.

Overall, students and lecturers should create cooperation and collaboration in teaching-learning process since the learning does not belong to the students themselves. Lecturers have to expand their understanding on students' uniqueness mainly for their learning strategies. Being aware is not enough, hence lecturers must learn, select, and create their own instructional methods and use particular models to teach language and language learning strategies simultaneously. In short, lecturers must be creative as it implicates on their students' motivation, self-esteem, and learning success (Richards, 2013). The more support lecturers have to help students apply their strategies in learning, the more successful Indonesian university students in achieving their English proficiency.

## Conclusion

As this article has outlined, the most frequent learning strategies used by the university students are metacognitive, social, and compensation strategies. Hence, they prefer direct strategies to the indirect ones. However, it cannot be considered to be totally direct because they still combine it with the indirect strategies. Moreover, students with particular age utilize different strategies. The more mature them, the more various and frequent certain strategies they use. They must have purpose when selecting or making use of those strategies.

In order to familiarize learning strategies among the university students in Indonesia, the lecturers and the academic community in the department can make some efforts as follows: 1) inserting teaching language learning strategies in the curriculum by putting high consideration on course overview, course content, instructional methods, and evaluation data, then ask the students to implement their strategies not only for teaching-learning process inside but also outside the classroom; 2) implementing LLS instruction through the usage of certain models such as SSBI, CALLA, and the model proposed by Grenfell and Harris; and 3) developing lecturers' awareness in designing instruction that meets students'



needs and one of the methods to be taken into account is eclectic method. Overall, the conclusion of this research leads to future research area which emphasizes on designing LLS instruction regarding students' age and level of their education.

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## **INDONESIAN STUDENTS' LANGUAGE ATTITUDES TOWARDS INDONESIAN AND ENGLISH THROUGH EDUCATION AND WORKING FRAME**

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**DOI:** [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2107](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2107)

received 2 March 2018; revised 15 May 2018; accepted 31 May 2018

### **Abstract**

This research aimed to explore language attitudes of Indonesian EFL learners towards English and Indonesian and studied the relationship of language attitudes in terms of educational background and study programs. A total of 256 Indonesian participants, randomly selected from five universities (two public, three private), answered a two-part questionnaire (Language Background Questionnaire and General Language Attitudes Survey). The analyses of the data expose that the participants alleged to the positive attitudes towards English as they were stimulated to learn the language, and appreciated their English skill as a means to attain better study or work opportunities, meanwhile in view of their native language-Indonesian superior to English. As a result, the study infers that the participants had a positive attitude of Indonesian identity with a positive reception of the importance of the English language. English is significant not only as an international language but also considered as an important language along with Indonesian language in education and profession. This study is a part of a major research project written by a team of researchers from Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta Indonesia. The first article investigated relationship the students' language attitudes, gender and socio-economic status (Paradewari&Mbato, 2018). The second article looks into language attitudes and language orientation (Kharismawan & Mbato, in press). A similarity will be found across the three articles in terms of data on students' language attitudes.

**Keywords:** language learning, language attitudes, educational background

### **Introduction**

English has grown to be a global language and functioned as lingua franca in many parts of the world and in various walks of life. English becomes an important language in formal settings as well as in education and workplace (Tollefson, 1991; Kam, 2002; Kachru, 2006; Crystal, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2014; Pennycook, 2017). As English has become a significant component in education and work, there is an increasing need to learn English. English is considered as a fundamental language to have for non-English study programs including in the Indonesian context where English is learnt as Foreign Language (EFL) rather than as a second language.

According to Holmes (2017, p. 9) the role of language in a variety of social contexts, considering to the users of language and identifies with its uses in the social setting and purpose of the communication. Holmes additionally clarified that Indonesian is a notable case of a language which started as a language of the commercial-centre, yet which ventured into all spaces, and is presently the national language of Indonesia (Holmes, 2017, p. 72). In multilingual nations, the regime frequently proclaims a specific dialect to be the national dialect for political reasons. The presentation might be a stage during the time spent stating the nationhood of a recently autonomous or set up country, for example, as on account of Swahili in Tanzania, Hebrew in Israel, Malay in Malaysia and Indonesian in Indonesia. Moreover, Holmes clarified that where this national language cannot provide all the interior and outside elements of government business, notwithstanding, it has then been important to distinguish at least one or more official languages (p. 103).

Accordingly, knowing about Indonesian adults' attitudes towards English and their first language is critical in understanding their thoughts regarding their identity and in embracing suitable language policies in education in the future. For this reason, this study plans to depict the language attitudes towards English and Indonesian among university students. Dörnyei (1990, p. 67) asserted that attitudes and motivations frequently collaborate with each other and assume a vital part in language learning. Moreover, Liu (2009, p. 104) affirmed that uplifting attitudes towards a language regularly prompt higher inspiration to learn and higher capability in the language. Richards (1998, p. 308) argued, "students' attitudes towards their language learning and their teacher can significantly influence their passion to learn and their classroom cooperation; their dispositions towards the language itself can shape their purposes behind learning and the techniques they utilize." Furthermore, Mukhuba (2005, p. 275) asserted that students, their parents, and teachers perceive English as the instructive language around the world, which may clarify why English was more positively regarded in the school setting.

In Indonesia, the government did not select the language of the political and social elite, e.g. the Javanese vernacular, as the national language. Rather they standardized and institutionalized an assortment of Malay which was generally utilized as a part of Indonesia in national language. In addition, Holmes depicted that since Javanese has a complex semantically checked neighbourliness system in light of assessments of relative status, this was a conspicuously sensible decision. Undoubtedly, the productive spread of Indonesian owes a great plan to how it is a great degree accommodating unprejudiced semantic choice all things considered (2017, p. 107). Lamb (2004, p. 15) argues that if students are found to relate to familiar Indonesian users of English, at that point Indonesian models of English should supplement local speaker models. It is hypothesized that adjustments in people's inspiration to take in the language may in this way be somewhat disclosed by reference to on-going procedures of recognizable proof. As further expounded by Mukhuba (2005, p. 270), a cluster in a people as a rule separates itself by its language and its social standards and qualities are transmitted through language.

Gardner and Lambert (1959) were the first authors to show a critical connection amongst inspiration and uplifting attitudes towards the language and its speakers. Independently from the refinement that alludes to language learning motivation, the researchers additionally need to show a qualification with respect to educational necessities and language use. While students may have outer or inner thought processes in taking in a language, they can likewise have diverse purposes behind utilizing the language. Multilingual people are equipped for inclining toward the language and changing the language to their needs. Based on this undertaking, this study aimed to investigate Indonesian university students' attitudes towards English and Indonesian.

This study focused on the relationship between educational backgrounds, profession and language attitudes of Indonesian adults and is replicated from Sicam and Lucas' (2016) study on the language attitudes of adolescent Filipino bilingual learners towards English and Filipino. Sicam and Lucas (2016, p. 12) reported that language attitudes among different groups – age, gender, and SES. The intention of this replication study was to explore language attitudes of Indonesian EFL learners towards English and Indonesian and studied the relationship of language attitudes in terms of educational background and study programs.

There are three questions postulated in this study:

1. Is there a significant relationship between the learners' language attitudes and university origins?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the learners' language attitudes and university majors?
3. Is there a significant relationship between the learners' language attitudes and profession variables?

Based on those research questions, the researchers formulated the following six null hypotheses:

1. Language attitudes based on Private and Public University
  - a. H0a: There is no significant difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian.
  - b. H1a: There is a significant difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian.
2. Language attitudes based on Majors Background
  - a. H0b: There is no significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian among university majors.
  - b. H1b: There is a significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian among university majors.
3. Language attitudes based on workplaces
  - a. H0c: There is no significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian in workplaces.
  - b. H1c: There is a significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian in workplaces.

## **Literature Review**

### ***Relations among Language Attitudes, Education Background, and Profession***

Language attitude investigation in multilingual and multicultural community is a popular study for researchers to investigate. Based on Dégi (2012), speakers use their primary language to express their social character and utilize another language just as an instrument to convey and to understand each other. Contemplating this hypothesis, Hoffman (2000, p. 3) argues that the expanding interest for English as an international, prestigious language ought not be dealt with as a risk to multilingual diversity, however it ought to be considered as an improvement towards an alleged "multilingualism with English".

Moreover, Dörnyei (2005) assumed about self-idea of students, i.e. the 'perfect' self and the 'should' self. The 'perfect' self and the 'should' self-involve the etymological self-idea and was considered by Dörnyei as expressly related. The 'perfect' self addresses the (language) student's desires and needs that s/he might want to achieve in the near the future for his/her individual change and pleasure. This kind of motivational establishment is significantly subordinate on the student's perspectives towards the target language and its native speakers. The 'should' self is related with instrumental motivation in writing. Lamb (2011) additionally expresses that among the typical instrumental motivations are better compensation, better occupation, and, some outside learning inspirations, for example, those associated with linguistic prestige – state language, and universal language. Reddy (2016, p. 181) contends that English is fundamental for landing a decent position and better compensations. Apart from the distinction that refers to language learning motivation, the researchers also need to indicate a distinction regarding linguistic needs and language use. While learners might have external or internal motives for learning a language, they can also have different reasons for using the language. Multilingual persons are capable of preferring a language and changing the language to suit their needs.

### ***Framing Indonesia' language attitudes***

Indonesia is the place where for more than 700 indigenous vernacular and dialects are spoken. The national language in Indonesia is Indonesian, which is known as Bahasa Indonesia. Indonesian is utilized for every official reason such as in media, educations and administrative systems, and as a means of communication among Indonesians coming from different language backgrounds. English has been a popular language since 1966 beginning in the New Regime order. Numerous Indonesian Elites began to inspire opportunities using of English in international business (Dewi, 2016). According to Sheddon (2003, p. 175), this condition was because English was for high society, those who could obtain a great instruction and travel abroad, the capacity to talk English carried high prestige like the capacity to talk Dutch at colonial time.

As Martin (2017, October 28) argues that the concept of Indonesian-ness relies heavily on the use of Indonesian as a national language. In her writing, Martin elaborates that Indonesians talking other languages may discover this issue to being addressed on their patriotism. The language inclination for many Indonesians is a space to influence a connection among language use, identity and nationalism. She additionally points of interest that Indonesian these days

continues to develop their official language. The government supports the service of standard Indonesian or “the good and proper” of Indonesian through the Bureau of Language Development and Maintenance and the education and culture ministry. As expressed by Silvestein (1996, p. 290), the process of standardization effects on the individuals extra linguistic properties and attitudes. Subsequently, it becomes vital to see how the standardization process and the institutional ideology create effects on Indonesian people’s attitude toward the use of Indonesian and English.

Indonesian university students have varied beliefs and attitudes about English language learning. Inside and outside components may influence their perception about a language and thus their whole EFL learning. Language attitude is one significant factor which may affect language learning. Language attitude may be related to a learner’s SES, age, and gender, and educational backgrounds. These factors have not been investigated together in a language attitude study, particularly in Indonesian educational context. In spite of the fact that, these factors are accepted to be critical in the advancement of various language attitudes among students, their connection with language attitude is still unnoticed

## Method

As a replication study of Sicam and Lucas (2016), this study was a descriptive study which used quantitative approach. This study employed a survey questionnaire method using two questionnaires about language attitude: Language Background Questionnaire and General Language Attitudes Survey. The researchers utilized the Google Form to distribute the questionnaire. This study also looked into the relationship between the variables using t-test and Anova analyses.

## Participants

A total of 256 Indonesian ELF learners participated in the survey. The participants were randomly selected from five universities (two public, three private) in Yogyakarta. These three universities are the three biggest universities in Yogyakarta. The students are from different origin, tribes and ethnicity. On average, the respondents’ ages are between 16 – 25 years.

**Table 1. Demographic background of the surveyed participants**

Component	Category	%
Gender	Male	29.2
	Female	70.8
Education background	Undergraduate (S1)	84.5
	Graduate (S2)	9.7
	Others	5.8
Current activities	University students	68.1
	Private company employee	13.7
	Teachers	13.1
	Civil servant	5.1
Age (years old)	16 – 20	80.5
	21 – 25	11.5
	26 – 30	3
	31 – 35	3
	36 – 40	2



### ***Instruments***

The first section of the survey was a Language Background Questionnaire adapted from Baker (1992) with minor modifications on language labels (i.e. 'Filipino' to 'Indonesian') to suit the present study. The Language Background Questionnaire seeks information on the respondents' age, sex, language use, and exposure.

The second section of the survey was a modified questionnaire used by Sicam and Lucas (2016). This section survey is about the language attitudes, through which respondents were presented with twenty-six statements.

The researchers used Indonesian language in the questionnaire to avoid misconception when the participants filled the questionnaire. The participants were instructed to respond to the items on a 5-point Likert Scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree).

### ***Procedures***

As mentioned above, this study was a replication and an elaboration of Sicam and Lucas' study (2016) and was conducted in 5 (five) steps, namely:

1. Adapting and customizing the questionnaire based on the Indonesian setting.
2. Forming the instrument into Google Forms.
3. Distributing the questionnaire through e-mails, messages, social media, and friends.
4. Grouping the data based on the education background and profession using Microsoft Excel.
5. Transferring and computing the data using SPSS version 23.

### ***Findings and Discussion***

In this section, the researchers discussed the results of this study. It is divided into three parts in accordance with the research questions. The first part focused on the correlation between learners' language attitude towards Indonesian and English in terms of university origins. The second part focused on relationship between the learners' language attitudes and university majors. The third part focused on the relationship between the learners' language attitudes and profession variables.

#### ***Indonesians' Language Attitude towards Indonesian and English in terms of University Origin, Educational Majors and Profession***

In this section, the researchers described the participants' university origin, education background and current profession as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4. Detailed Demographic background of the surveyed participants**

<b>Component</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>%</b>
University Origin	Private University (199 respondents)	77.7
	Public University (57 respondents)	22.3
Education Majors	Education/Teaching (110 respondents)	42.9
	Economics/Accounting (71 respondents)	27.7

Component	Category	%
Profession	Engineering (28 respondents)	10.9
	Social Politics (27 respondents)	10.5
	Health/Medical (15 respondents)	5.8
	Other (5 respondents)	2.2
	Student (168 respondents)	65.6
	Company Employee (33 respondents)	13.0
	Educator (29 respondents)	11.3
	Civil Servant (12 respondents)	4.7
	Freelancer (7 respondents)	2.7
	Other (7 respondents)	2.7

In order to avoid extraneous variables due to variances in courses as well as experience in higher education, this research was conducted by focusing on university students in Yogyakarta. A total of 256 (two hundred fifty six) students across Yogyakarta took part in this study. The participants were all Indonesian.

#### ***English is seen as a prominent language in Education***

With the intention of finding out the differences in language attitudes, the researchers used T-test and Anova calculation using SPSS 23. In this case, language attitudes towards English and Indonesian is seen through *Language attitudes based on Private and Public University* (see Table 5, 6.1, and 6.2), *Language attitudes based on Majors Background* (see Table 7, 8.1, and 8.2), *Language attitudes based on the workplace* (see Table 9, 10.1, and 10.2).

#### **Language attitudes based on Public and Private University**

This section discusses the language attitudes based on the university origin of the participants. The participants' origins were from five universities (two public, three private) in Yogyakarta. Furthermore, based on twenty three (23) items about language attitude, there were five (5) statements which gain influential high ratings. Among those five statements, three statements referred to the positive attitudes towards English and Indonesia. The detailed attitudes based on the participants' university origins are shown in Table 5.

**Table 5. High Rating Statements of Participants' Perspectives**

No.	Statement	Public Univ. Mean	Private Univ. Mean	Overall Mean	Overall SD
1.	Speaking in English and Indonesian helps someone to get a job.	4.16	4.30	4.27	0.91
2.	When an Indonesian citizen attends an international conference, he feels confident of being able to access the facility with the	3.96	4.21	4.16	0.89

No.	Statement	Public Univ. Mean	Private Univ. Mean	Overall Mean	Overall SD
3.	use of English rather than Indonesian. To be an effective government official, one must be proficient in Bahasa Indonesia and English.	3.86	4.18	4.11	0.92
4.	Studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work.	3.81	4.10	4.04	0.93
5.	Development and progress can be better achieved through the use of English.	3.72	4.12	4.03	0.98

In Table 5, it could be seen that there is a similarity of attitudes between students from state and private universities with private university having slightly higher attitudes mean than public university in all statement. For example, the participants strongly agree with the statement that *English and Indonesia language can help them to get a job* by having the highest overall mean of 4.27 (Number 1). This statement of the importance of English and Indonesian is showed by the participants from Public and Private University with the highest mean of 4.16 and 4.30 respectively. The second highest statement rating relates to *the importance English as international language that is used globally*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.16 (Number 2). The constancy of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 3.96 of Public University participants and overall mean of 4.21 of Private University participants.

The third is highest statement rating is related to *the Indonesian and English proficiency in formal sectors*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.11 (Number 3). The consistency of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 3.86 of Public University participants and mean of 4.18 of Private University participants. Following is the fourth highest statement rating, which describes *the significance of studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.04 (Number 4). The consistency of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 3.81 of Public University participants and mean of 4.10 of Private University participants. The fifth highest statement rating defines that *attainment can be better achieved through the use of English* (Number 5). In this statement the overall mean is 4.03. The consistency of the fifth highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 3.72 of Public University participants and mean of 4.12 of Private University participants.

As shown from the explanation above, the tendency of language attitudes based on university origin refers to the importance of English in higher education. Moreover, from the average of means, the participants' perspectives from Private Universities tend to have higher attitudes towards the participants' perspectives from Public Universities. It is understood that Indonesian learners considered English as significant skill in education. It was supported by Reddy (2016) mentioning, "English assumes an essential part in our regular day to day existence; there is incredible utility of English in present day world." (p. 181).

To see the overall language attitudes based on the university origin, the next explanation is to explain the difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian as presented in Table 6.1. and Table 6.2.

Table 6.1. Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Language_Attitudes	Public University	23	3.668	.44583	.09296
		3			
	Private University	23	3.483	.45272	.09440
		0			

For homogeneity test, from *Levene's Test for Equality of variances* obtained  $F = .018$  with  $p = 0.895$ . The homogeneity test rule is that when  $p < 0.050$  means the data does not meet the prerequisite homogeneity or comes from different populations. If  $p > 0.050$  means the data satisfies the homogeneity or originates from the same population. Based on the rule, it can be concluded that the data variable of Language Attitudes come from the same population or they are homogeneous data since the obtained  $p = 0.895 > 0.050$  which can be concluded that the data satisfies the homogeneity or originates from the same population.

From Table 6.1., it can be seen that in the Public University, the result of the participants' perspective in language attitudes with 23 numbers of questions has the mean (average) of 3.3363. While the Private University's result, of participants' perspectives in language attitudes, has an average of 3.4830 with 23 numbers of questions.

Table 6.2. Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
Language_Attitudes		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Language_Attitudes	Equal variances assumed	.018	.895	1.398	44	.169	.18522	.13249	-.08179	.45223
	Equal variances not assumed			1.398	43.990	.169	.18522	.13249	-.08180	.45223

For Independent samples t-test,  $t = 1.398$  with  $p = .169$  (because the homogeneous data is seen in *Equal Variances Assumed*). The rule for Independent samples t-test is that if  $p < 0.050$  it means there is a significant difference between the comparable groups; if  $p > 0.050$  it means there is no significant difference between the groups being compared. Based on Table 6.2, it can be concluded there is no significant difference of participants' perspectives in language attitudes between the Public University and Private University since  $p = .169$ . Participants'

perspectives in language attitudes of Public University had a higher tendency (Mean = 3.6683) compared to participants' perspectives in language attitudes of Private University (Mean = 3.4830). Based on this result, the researchers accepted null hypothesis (H0a) and rejected the alternative hypothesis (H1a). This result indicated that there was no significant difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesia.

#### Language attitudes based on University Major

From the responses given by the participants, the first point that can be captured related to the attitudes of the participants towards English and Indonesian is the importance of English. In this section, the focus is the attitudes of Indonesian towards English and Indonesian described through their university major as shown in Table 7.

**Table 7. High Rating Statements Participants' Perspectives based on Education Major**

No.	Statement	Education Mean	Accounting/Economic Mean	Engineering Mean	Social Political Mean	Health/Med. Mean	Other Mean	Overall Mean	Overall SD
1.	Speaking in English and Indonesian helps someone to get a job.	4.25	4.11	4.39	4.21	4.67	4.20	4.27	0.91
2.	When an Indonesian citizen attends an international conference, he feels confident of being able to access the facility with the use of English rather than Indonesian.	4.25	3.89	4.18	4.15	4.33	4.20	4.16	0.89
3.	To be an effective government official, one must be proficient in Bahasa Indonesia and English.	4.07	3.80	4.39	4.06	4.53	4.40	4.11	0.92
4.	Studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work.	4.04	3.70	4.21	3.99	4.53	4.00	4.04	0.93
5.	Development and progress can be better achieved through the use of English.	3.95	3.82	4.14	4.04	4.27	4.00	4.03	0.98

Table 7 shows that it could be seen that there is different attitudes among students based on university majors. For example, the participants strongly agree with the statement that *English and Indonesian language can help them to get a job* by having the highest overall mean of 4.27 (Number 1). This statement of the importance of English and Indonesian is showed by the participants from Health/Medical Major which is showed by the highest mean of 4.67. The lowest mean was from Accounting/Economic Major with mean of 4.11. As the second

highest statement rating relates to *the importance English as international language that is used globally*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.16 (Number 2). The second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.33 of Health/medical education background participants and mean of 3.89 of Accounting/Economic Major participants.

The third highest statement rating recounted to *the Indonesian and English proficiency in formal sectors*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.11 (Number 3). The consistency of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.53 of Health/Medical Major participants and mean of 3.80 of Accounting/Economic Major participants. Following is the fourth highest statement rating describes *the significance of studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.04 (Number 4). The second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.53 of Health/Medical Major participants and mean of 3.70 of Accounting/Economic Major participants. The fifth highest statement rating defines that *attainment can be better achieved through the use of English*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.03 (Number 5). The consistency of the fifth highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.27 of Health/Medical Major and mean of 3.82 of Accounting/Economic Major participants.

Based on this data, the tendency of language attitudes based on Majors shows that the participants from Health/Medical Major had the highest tendency of language attitudes towards English and Indonesian. Moreover, from the average of means, the participants' perspectives from Accounting/Economic Major tend to have the lowest attitudes towards English and Indonesian.

To see the overall language attitudes based on the Education Major, the next explanation is to explain the difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesia as presented in Table 8.1. and 8.2.

Table 8.1. Test of Homogeneity of Variances in Education Majors

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.170	5	132	.061

For homogeneity test, in Table 8.1., from *Levene's Test for Equality of variances* obtained  $F = 2.170$  with  $p = .061$ . The homogeneity test rule is when  $p < 0.050$  means the data does not meet the prerequisite homogeneity or comes from different populations, if  $p > 0.050$  means the data satisfies the homogeneity or originating from the same population. Based on the rule means data variable of Language Attitudes variables not come from the same population or they are heterogeneous data since the obtained  $p = p = .061 > 0.050$  which can be concluded that the data do not come from the same population or they are heterogeneous data.

Table 8.2. ANOVA of Language Attitudes based on Education Major

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.920	5	.184	.670	.647
Within Groups	36.246	132	.275		
Total	37.166	137			

The rule for the F test is if  $p < 0.05$  means there is a difference that the dependent variable is significant among the groups, if  $p \geq 0.05$  means there is no difference of the dependent variable on the groups being analyzed. From the Anova table 8.2., the result obtained  $F = .670$ , with  $p = .647$ . So, based on the rule, it can be concluded there is a no significant difference of participants' perspectives based on different Education Majors in language attitudes. Consequently, the researchers accepted null hypothesis ( $H_0b$ ) and rejected the alternative hypothesis ( $H_1b$ ). This result indicated that there was no significant difference on the participants' perspectives based on Education Majors in language attitudes towards English and Indonesia.

#### Language attitudes based on Profession

The researchers also focus on language attitudes based profession. In this section, the focus is the attitudes of participants towards English and Indonesian described through their profession as shown in Table 9.

Table 9. High Rating Statements Participants' Perspectives based on Profession

No.	Statement	Student Mean	Company Employee Mean	Educator Mean	Civil Servant Mean	Freelancer Mean	Others Mean	Overall Mean	Overall SD
1.	Speaking in English and Indonesian helps someone to get a job.	4.22	4.33	4.41	4.33	3.86	4.71	4.27	0.91
2.	When an Indonesian citizen attends an international conference, he feels confident of being able to access the facility with the use of English rather than Indonesian.	4.08	4.27	4.34	4.33	4.14	4.43	4.16	0.89
3.	To be an effective government official, one must be proficient in	4.16	4.09	4.07	4.00	3.57	3.86	4.11	0.92

	Bahasa Indonesia and English.								
4.	Studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work.	4.07	3.97	4.03	3.67	3.86	4.29	4.04	0.93
5.	Development and progress can be better achieved through the use of English.	4.02	3.85	4.45	3.92	3.29	4.29	4.03	0.98

Table 9 shows that it could be seen that there is different attitudes among students based on profession. For example, the participants strongly agree with the statement that *English and Indonesia language can help them to get a job* by having the highest overall mean of 4.27 (*Number 1*). This statement of the importance of English and Indonesian is consistent showed by the participants whose professions are students which obtained the highest mean of 4.71. The lowest mean was from the participants, whose professions are Freelancers, which is showed mean of 3.86.

As the second highest statement rating relates to *the importance English as international language that is used globally*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.16 (*Number 2*). The consistency of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.43 of the participants whose professions are in the Other profession (such as veterinarian, full time mother and not working) and the lowest mean was mean of 4.08 of the participants whose professions are Students.

The third highest statement rating recounted to *the Indonesian and English proficiency in formal sectors*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.11 (*Number 3*). The consistency of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.16 of the participants whose professions are Students and the lowest mean was mean of 3.57 of from the participants, whose professions are Freelancers.

Following is the fourth highest statement rating describes *the significance of studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.04 (*Number 4*). The consistency of the second highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.29 of the participants, whose professions are from other profession, and the lowest mean was mean of 3.67 of the participants, whose professions are civil servants.

The fifth highest statement rating defines that *attainment can be better achieved through the use of English*. In this statement the overall mean is 4.03 (*Number 5*). The consistency of the fifth highest statement rating is also shown from mean of 4.45 of the participants whose professions are Educators and the



lowest mean was mean of 3.29 of the participants, whose professions are Freelancers.

Based on this data, the tendency of language attitudes based on Majors shows that there was a variety of the language attitudes in English and Indonesian. Moreover, the researchers concluded that the participants whose professions as Other Professions, that is not described in the table, agree about the importance of English as their perception to be in the highest Mean of the first, second and fourth statements of *English and Indonesia language can help them to get a job* ( $M = 4.71$ ), *the importance English as international language that is used globally* and *the Indonesian* ( $M = 4.43$ ) and *the significance of studying Indonesian and English helps someone to get promoted in their work* ( $M = 4.29$ ).

Somehow, the participants whose professions as Freelancers argue about the importance of English as their perception to be in the lowest Mean of the first and third statements of *English and Indonesia language can help them to get a job* ( $M = 3.86$ ) and *the Indonesian and English proficiency in formal sectors* ( $M = 3.57$ ), and *attainment can be better achieved through the use of English* ( $M = 3.29$ ).

To see the overall language attitudes based on Profession, the next explanation is about the difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian as presented in Table 10.1. and Table 10.2.

Table 10.1. Test of Homogeneity of Variances in Professions

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.496	5	132	.034

Table 10.1 presents homogeneity test from *Levene's Test for Equality of variances* which obtained  $F = 2.496$  with  $p = .034$ . The homogeneity test rule states that when  $p < 0.050$  it means the data does not meet the prerequisite homogeneity or comes from different populations; if  $p > 0.050$  it means the data satisfies the homogeneity or originates from the same population. Based on this rule, data variable of Language Attitudes in Profession variables do not meet the prerequisite homogeneity or comes from different populations.

Table 10.2. ANOVA of Language Attitudes based on Professions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.348	5	.670	2.196	.058
Within Groups	40.244	132	.305		
Total	43.592	137			

The rule for the F test is that if  $p < 0.05$  it means there is a difference, that is, the dependent variable is significant among the groups; if  $p \geq 0.05$  it means

there is no difference of the dependent variable on the groups being analyzed. From the Anova table 10.2, the result obtained  $F = 2.670$ , with  $p = .058$ . So, based on the rule, it can be concluded there is a no significant difference of participants' perspectives based on professions in language attitudes. Consequently, the researchers accepted null hypothesis (H0c) and rejected the alternative hypothesis (H1c). This result indicated that there was no significant difference on the participants' perspectives based on Profession in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian.

As this study aim to investigate the language attitudes toward English and Indonesian, it intended to find out the general perspectives about language attitudes towards English and Indonesian and relationship between the learners' language attitudes towards university origin, educational background and profession variables.

The results showed that the participants values both English and Indonesian as important languages for them. This result is aligned with the previous studies (Reddy, 2016; Marcellino, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2014; Ke&Cahyani; 2014; Lauder, 2010; Kacru, 2006; Kam, 2002), that is English language is essential by reason of its international use. This result demonstrates the assent of English is widely used not only as an international language but also considered as an important language along with Indonesian.

From the first research question about the relationship of language attitudes based on Private and Public University, the null hypothesis (H0a) which states that *there is no significant difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian* is accepted. Furthermore, the alternative hypothesis (H1a) which states that *there is a significant difference between private university and public university in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian* is rejected.

From the second research question about the relationship of language attitudes based on Majors Background, the null hypothesis (H0b) which states that *there is no significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian among university majors* is accepted. Furthermore, the alternative hypothesis (H1b) which states that *there is a significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian among university majors* is rejected.

From the third research question about the relationship of language attitudes based on workplaces, the null hypothesis (H0c) which states *there is no significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian in workplaces* is accepted. Furthermore, the alternative hypothesis (H1c) which states that *there is a significant difference in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian in workplaces* is rejected.

As described above, from the 3 (three) sections about the *relationship between the learners' language attitudes towards university origin, university majors and profession variables* indicated that all of the null hypothesis of H0a, H0b, and H0c were all accepted it means that there were no significant differences on the participants' perspectives based university origin (H0a), educational background (H0b) and profession variables (H0c). As there was no significant difference on the participants' perspectives in language attitudes towards

university origins, university majors and profession variables, these results supported the previous studies regarding the widespread importance of English in university studies (Reddy, 2016; Smith, 2015; Marcellino, 2015; Ke & Cahyani, 2014; Larson, 2014; Lamb & Budiyo, 2013; Renandya, 2004), in business and in getting a job (Reddy, 2016; Siregar, 2010).

These results clearly supported our hypothesis that there were no significant differences on the participants' perspectives in language attitudes towards English and Indonesian based on university origins, university majors and profession variables. It meant that Indonesian EFL learners held positive attitudes towards English as they were enthused to learn the language, and esteemed their English ability as a way to acquire better study or work opportunities, meanwhile in view of their native language – Indonesian was superior to English. As a result, this study infers that the participants had a prudence of Indonesian identity with an appreciation of the value of the English language.

### **Conclusion**

Overall, Indonesians' language attitudes toward English and Indonesian are shaped by their education and working background. In this research, it is found that the belief system toward the importance of English is affected by their education and profession. English is seen as a prominent language related to the education and work needs. Furthermore, English language is getting more boundless through the improvement of technology innovation, which makes English turns into a significant language. That English is viewed as a prestigious language is highly identified to the history of English in Indonesia which was the restricted access in the past made English less accessible for every person. In spite of the fact that the circumstance has effectively changed today i.e., English is currently available for most people. The ideology about English as prestigious language to learn remains. Another reason why the participants viewed English as important language is because they relate English with intellectuality.

In conclusion, the importance English was shown by the findings of this research. Moreover, the attitude of Indonesian was seen positively in the area of education and working areas which see English as a language which must be mastered. In short, Indonesians' attitudes toward the employment of English and Indonesian language based on education background and profession may be connected to linguistic prestige – an international language and a national language.

Regardless of the positive results discussed formerly, we understood that there were few limitations in this study. Primary, it was difficult to attain the equivalent number of students from the five universities. Having an equivalent number of participants from each university students may have made the finding of the language attitudes based on university origins to have stronger implication. The next limitation was that the researchers could not conduct interviews to support the finding and result of this study. Even with its limitation, the researchers believe that this study can be a suitable reference for researchers who are keen on studying Indonesian language attitudes toward English essentially in the EFL/ELF learning contexts. In addition, the researchers expect that the results

of this study can propel both educators and learners' concern about the significance of English in education and the workplace.

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## **ANALYZING THE VALUES AND EFFECTS OF POWERPOINT PRESENTATIONS**

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**DOI:** doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2108

Received 16 January 2018; revised 5 March 2018; accepted 19 May 2018

### **Abstract**

PowerPoint Presentation (PPtP) is now quite common in many aspects of life, not only at schools (Yilmazel-Sahin, 2007). It facilitates events in various ways owing to its practicality (Craig & Armenic, 2006). In classes, it provides advantages for both students and teachers, but it may be problematic as well (Davies et al., 2009; Oommen; Taylor, 2012). Therefore, Howard & Conway (1985) recommended verifying if students' viewpoints may maximize its contribution for class empowerment. This study focused on how students appreciated the values of PPP and how it affected lecturers. It involved 90 students responding to a questionnaire asking their standpoint about the use of PPP including commentary and suggestion. Results revealed that in general, participants out looked positively towards PPP and its impact to teachers. It aided students and teacher in the learning-teaching process, although it was occasionally blamed as not engaging or even boring.

**Keywords:** value, effect, PowerPoint Presentation

### **Introduction**

Technology advancement has a large impact on us making many sectors of our life become easier. PowerPoint is one of the technologies widely used anywhere, from public to private aspects such as in court rooms, daycare centers, churches, even in personal ceremonies and parties (Yilmazel-Sahin, 2007). Thomas (2014) put forward that during the last decade, Microsoft estimated around 30 million PowerPoint presentations made by world-wide business professionals daily.

Especially in educational field, PowerPoint presentation (hereafter, PPtP) is a significant instrument to utilize in the learning-teaching process (Seasew et al., 2015). According to Craig and Armenic (2006), students enjoy attending classes with PPtP because it is interestingly lucid, practical, and readily available. Along with it, Shyamlee and Phil (2012) state that PPtP triggers students' visual and sometimes audio senses when displayed through a projector from a screen of a computer in classes (Bartsch & Cobern, 2003). Oommen (2012) adds that the presentation aids teachers to organize their teaching delivery more efficiently so that students gain better understanding. Therefore, it is challenging that making use of PPtP would be beneficial for both teachers and students (Ahmad, 2012) in learning English (Abdellatif, 2015 & Anh, 2011) to activate the four language

skills (Schcolnik & Kol, 1999). It is because PPtP facilitates the learning processes to be more engaging with clearer and more structured instruction in manageable time (Susskind, 2004; Craig & Amernic, 2006; Oommen, 2012; Thomas, 2014) and not just to keep the students occupied (Szabo & Hastings, 2000; Shyamlee & Phil, 2012). It may facilitate the class with games, practices and drills (Fisher, 2003), to review the materials, and to present students' projects (Yilmazel-Sahin, 2007 & Oommen, 2012).

Regardless of the advantageous contribution PPtP shares in education, there were weaknesses as it needs time in the preparation. Taylor (2012) adds that oversimplification might happen when covering huge materials. This may manipulate students' understanding (Khoury & Mattar, 2012) making the students passive and avoid taking part in class (Davies et al., 2009), moreover, when the teacher is too busy with the materials and the tool, ignoring the students (Taylor, 2012). Despite its positive and negative points, students' standpoint about the use of PowerPoint presentations in classes is meaningful (King, 2010) in establishing significant development in the learning process (Struyven et al. , 2005) to reflect and evaluate teaching performance (Howard & Conway 1985).

There were studies done conforming Daniel's idea that perception towards PowerPoint presentation was devastatingly positive. Students favoured teachers employing PowerPoint presentation. Frey and Birnbaum (2002) in their examination regarding students' points of view about values of PPt used by their lecturers demonstrated that students considered PPtP aided them in learning, and assisted lectures be more structured. This was supported by investigations made by Davies et al. (2009), Anh (2011), & Oommen (2012). Nevertheless, Sewasew (2015)'s research comparing PowerPoint presentation to traditional lecture concerning the students' attitude to the understandability and the effectiveness of the materials found that students like traditional teaching better. It was because the students thought that traditional way highlighted more on the learning process. The investigator deduced that there might be disruption of technology in studying. Therefore, there should be good judgment in making use of it in classes.

This research investigated the values, and effects of PowerPoint presentations from the students' general viewpoints, handout availability, effect on classroom behavior, and the design. Further, it also examined the effects of PPtP on teachers' presentation skills, and teaching prowess. It would be beneficial for those who are involved in ELT since it provides insights about using PowerPoint presentations in grammar classes. According to Corbeil (2007), the nature of grammar courses is theory-based, and there have been an increasing number of grammar teachers making use of PowerPoint presentation to put emphasis on grammatical rules.

## **Method**

Ninety students participated in this analysis. They were to give responses to a questionnaire yielding in quantitative and qualitative data. The instrument was adapted from the ideas of Frey and Birbaum (2002), and Davies et al. (2009). Some were modified by simplifying and paraphrasing. It was grouped into three sections: first 12 closed-ended questions were related to students' view in general,

availability of hand-outs, effect on students' attendance, and the design of PPtP. Other twelve points enquired students' opinion on how PPtP facilitated teachers' presentation skills, and teaching prowess. The first and second parts were analyzed in percentage after being sorted out into three: 'neutral', 'agree', and 'disagree'. Meanwhile, the third one consisted of three open ended questions requesting students what they liked and disliked along with their suggestions, resulting in lists of comments and suggestions developed into some qualitative classifications. The illustrations of the analysis outcome are in the following tables.

### Findings and Discussion

The first table demonstrates the students' general viewpoints. This is similar to Craig and Amernic's (2006) findings stating that students liked their classes with PPtP. Students agreed that PPtP made the lessons organized. Consequently, it was easier for them to follow the lessons (Frey & Birnbaum, 2002). The presence of PPtP in classes aided them to get the emphasis of the lessons holding their attention, yielding in positive attitude. It can be deduced that the students found advantageous experience from learning with PPT in their grammar courses.

**Table 1. Value of PPtP: General Viewpoint**

No.	Statements	Percentage (%)		
		Disagree	Neutral	Agree
6	PowerPoint presentations make the lesson organized.	0.00	20.00	80.00
10	PowerPoint presentations help to emphasize key points.	0.00	21.11	78.89
11	I have a positive attitude towards PowerPoint presentations.	1.11	23.33	75.56
1	PowerPoint presentations hold my attention.	7.77	25.55	66.88

Next is the students' opinion on handout availability, which was found beneficial in helping them to learn for examinations and facilitating for taking better notes. The finding is corresponding to Craig and Amernic's (2006) statement that students liked joining classes using PowerPoint presentation with handout. Yet, several students responded neutrally and negatively about it, which somehow could be inferred that using PPtP and handout in class should not be done too often.

**Table 2. Value of PPtP: Handouts Availability**

No.	Statements	Percentage (%)		
		Disagree	Neutral	Agree
2	Handouts printed from PowerPoint presentations help me study for course exams.	3.33	17.77	78.90
4	PowerPoint handouts facilitate me to take better notes.	5.55	20.00	74.45



Dealing with the students' attendance in classes, more than half felt motivated when PPtP was utilized. However, only half of them admitted that they were interested in PowerPoint presentation; more than one third gave neutral responses; whereas a small number felt bored with it. When the teachers distributed handouts beforehand, it no longer had big influence on students' attendance. Students might think that handout could be a reason to skip classes. Even so, it may possibly be said that the use of PowerPoint presentations in class was still impactful if not so frequently used; as what Clark (cited in Sewasew et al., 2015) affirmed that the comforts of technology like PPtP tended to fade away. It is as well interesting to note that less than half of the students got involved in classroom discussion when PPtP was used. The other students might think that there was no difference whether it was used or not. Additional assumption was these students were the typical "watch and listen" students as labeled by Sewasew et al. (2015) referring to those who simply watched what the teachers demonstrated on the slides.

**Table 3. Value of PPtP: Effect on Classroom Behavior or Students' Attendance**

No.	Statements	Percentage (%)		
		Disagree	Neutral	Agree
9	I am less motivated to attend classes with PowerPoint presentations.	60.00	30.00	10.00
5	PowerPoint presentations make me feel bored.	50.00	36.66	13.34
12	I am less likely to attend classes when PowerPoint handouts are shared beforehand.	47.78	38.88	13.34
7	PowerPoint presentations allow me to get involved in classroom discussion.	8.88	44.44	46.68

The following result of analysis is regarding PPtP design. Most students had the same opinion that bullet points assisted them, no one disagreed. This was corresponding to Oommen's (2012) declaration that bullet points aided students recognize the main ideas, and directed them what to focus on. Besides, the visual images of PowerPoint presentations helped them (Daniels, 1999) recall the contents during exams. To sum up, both bullet points and visuals facilitated the students to understand the materials easily.

**Table 4 Value of PPtP Design**

No.	Statements	Percentage (%)		
		Disagree	Neutral	Agree
3	Bullet points in PowerPoint presentations help me identify the main ideas.	0.00	18.88	81.12
8	Visual images in PowerPoint lectures help me recall content during exams.	5.55	23.33	71.12

How PowerPoint presentations affected teacher's presentation skills and teaching prowess is presented in the subsequent tables. It is remarkable to find that no one disagreed, meaning that most participants agreed, to the ideas that PowerPoint presentations assisted the lecturers of Structure classes to be organized in delivering the materials, and in emphasizing important points. Majority of them also acknowledged the fact that PPtP supported teachers in using examples and illustrations to clarify complex materials, as well as presenting the lessons clearly and understandably as they simplified complex materials. It confirmed the results of researches employed by Frey & Birnbaum (2002), and Oommen (2012). Furthermore, students thought that teachers spent time efficiently which conformed to Davies et al.'s (2009) study. Dealing with the teacher's confidence in presenting the materials, more than two third of the subjects showed their agreement. This is in accordance with Yilmazel-Sahin (2007) arguing PPtP enabled the teachers to teach confidently as they possessed guidance on the slides. Nonetheless, material coverage occupied the lowest position. These might be that the materials were too overwhelming to cover. This is matched to Miltenoff's (as cited in Oommen, 2012) argument. Even so, generally, from the students' view, teachers showed good presentation skills.

**Table 5. PPtP Effects on Teacher's Presentation Skills**

Table 3.11a Effects on Teacher's Presentation Skills				
No.	Statements	Percentage (%)		
		Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>PowerPoint Presentations helped the lecturers ...</i>				
3	be organized in delivering the materials.	0.00	8.88	91.12
1	emphasize important points.	0.00	13.33	86.67
11	use examples or illustrations to clarify complex materials.	1.11	13.33	85.56
7	simplify the complex materials so it is easier to understand.	2.22	14.44	83.34
12	present the information in a clear and understandable manner.	0.00	18.88	81.12
5	spend time efficiently.	2.22	25.55	72.23
6	look confident when presenting materials.	3.33	27.77	68.90
9	cover a lot of materials in one session.	8.88	30.00	61.12

Concerning with teaching prowess, most students agreed that PPtP helped the lecturers prepare. The teachers were also viewed as knowledgeable since they could explain the materials without reading the slides too much, and stimulate students to think beyond points by asking questions related to the slides. Those were in line with Davies et al.'s (2009) consideration.

**Table 6 PPtP Effects on Teaching Prowess**

Table 6.11: Effects on Teaching Process				
No.	Statements	Percentage (%)		
		Disagree	Neutral	Agree
<i>PowerPoint Presentations helped the lecturers ...</i>				
2	be prepared to start a lesson.	0.00	12.22	87.78
4	explain something without reading too much from the materials.	1.11	20.00	78.89
10	stimulate students' ideas based on what is on the slide.	3.33	25.55	71.12
8	keep throwing questions which are related to the slides.	4.44	38.88	56.68

The result of the analysis about what the students liked about PowerPoint presentations in grammar classes supported studies utilized by Frey and Birnbaum (2002), Craig and Amernic (2006), Yilmazel-Sahin (2007), as well as Oommen (2012). Students considered PPtP less boring and helped them understand the lessons. It aided clarify and emphasize the materials. With bullet points and visuals, it offered a simpler way to learn complex materials as it was easier to read and grab comprehensively. On the other hand, some felt bored and sleepy. A possible intriguing reason was that other courses used PowerPoint presentations as well causing it overused and started to make them fed up. It conformed to Clark's (as cited in Sewasew et al., 2015) argument that the ease of having PPtP in class reduced with time. Those uninterested students might also assume that with PPtP, they did not need to listen to the teacher (Khoury & Mattar, 2012). The handout provided was perceived valuable to review since it summarized the lessons providing an effective learning environment and enabled the students to participate in the process. The findings on what students liked about PPtP matched to Frey and Birnbaum's (2002) study.

Subsequently is what students did not like about PowerPoint presentations. Some gave no suggestions because they actually appreciated the teachers' preparation. Visually, they disliked PPtP with plain design, small fonts, too many words or sentences, no underline, no different color, and few illustrations in it. It was believed that any emphases or illustrations (bold, italic, underline, pictures, charts, schemes, etc.) might assist the acquisition of the lessons (Oommen, 2012), so teachers should be able to create PPtP consisting clear, effective, and efficient messages to make students understand the lessons better. This suggestion matched Corbeil's (2007) claim that those emphases made the grammatical rules more noticeable. Students also expected to see a more interesting and interactive PPtP design by adding animations to highlight certain ideas since PPtP is visual.

The next interesting point was that sometimes the lecturers tended to read the slides resulting in less eye contact and was assumed as being too busy with their materials; so there was lack of engagement in the discussion. It was pointed out by Sewasew et al. (2015) that teachers were too focused on finishing the

materials and unconsciously ignored students' involvement. However, recommendation is offered to the lecturers to avoid redundant explanations by simplifying the materials in the form of points for the idea of PPtP is 'points with power'. Even though, putting more attention to the material coverage, not leaving behind the less important ones, is also important. Furthermore, 'guided-note' handout may be useful to minimize oversimplification. Neef, McCord, and Ferreri (as cited in Yilmazel-Sahin, 2007) suggested to provide blank spaces to encourage students take notes making the learning process become more alive and meaningful.

### **Conclusion**

According to Ozaslan and Maden (2013), PowerPoint presentation utility in English Language Teaching is increasing since it is obviously useful. Therefore, it cannot be denied that everyone, including teachers and students, feels the advantages of having PPtP in classes, as what the analysis found. On the whole, students felt that PowerPoint presentations helped them learn through organized lessons, emphasis on key points, and attention keeping. In addition, inserting bullet points and illustrations assisted students acquire and understand the lessons. Whereas, handouts aided them review the materials and facilitate note taking. Nevertheless, the presence of PPtP did no longer affect some students' motivation to attend classes as learning with PPtP started to become boring for them, and did not really give them chance to partake in classroom discussion.

Regarding how PowerPoint presentations affected teachers' presentation skills, students commonly thought that their teachers showed good presentation skills when they taught using PPtP with good material organization, clear presentation, important point emphases, illustration usage, complex material simplification, and efficient time spent; confidence, and material coverage. Students also thought that their teachers were prepared, and able to explain without referring back to the slides, to stimulate students' idea, and to keep throwing questions while teaching. PowerPoint presentation and the presenters are inseparable. Restating Daniels' (1999) statement, students' responses towards this issue was overwhelmingly positive. In spite of the boredom it sometimes caused, in line with the students' responses to the questionnaire, the teachers' ways in delivering the materials using it matters more.

Students expected lectures teaching with PPtP to put more attention to the display such as plain design and the packed content. They looked forward to seeing something simpler and more interactive. Though it is not easy for teachers to include all important things in a simple way as oversimplification might occur, teachers might try to present it through illustrations and implement Corbeil's (2007) idea about creating PPtP in grammar classes i.e. by using bold, underline, italic, different color or font, and so forth. Teachers should also check students' understanding instead of being too busy in delivering the materials. As it had been found that the use of PPT has become slightly boring, teachers should not overuse it; English teachers can also in time teach in traditional ways to make the lessons more varied (Shyamlee & Phil, 2012; Taylor, 2012).

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## **ENGLISH TEACHERS' MOTIVATION AND CHALLENGES IN VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL IN YOGYAKARTA**

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**DOI:** [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2109](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2109)

received 16 April 2018; revised 21 May 2018; accepted 4 June 2018

### **Abstract**

This study examines English teachers' voices regarding the teacher professional development (TPD) experiences in state vocational high school in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The voices include their motivation and perceived challenges of professional development efforts. The study is a qualitative research employing questionnaire and interviews to gather the data from ten English teachers in state vocational high school. The findings unravel some intrinsic motivations of English teachers and the challenges and needs perceived in doing TPD related to their time management, namely problems related to teaching schedule and time to look after the family. Most teachers also need more training to practice their ICT skills and performance. The suggestions for further studies are also discussed.

**Keywords:** teacher professional development, vocational high school, challenges

### **Introduction**

Teacher professional development, including that of English teachers, as a compulsory factor for teachers' continuous improvement in educational field has been supported by a large number of education practitioners (Banks & Mayes, 2012; Tanang & Abu, 2014; Tondeur, Forkosh-Baruch, Prestridge, Albion, & Edirisinghe, 2016). The effort to enhance TPD is required by English Teachers especially in Indonesia particularly because English has become a preferred language of communication in the fields of technology, science, communication, trade and education (Senior, 2006). In education field, the need of English in Indonesia has increased when English becomes one of the compulsory subjects in schools and it is examined as one of the subjects in National Examinations as the requirement to graduate from a school. Seeing how important English is to be taught in a school, the Indonesian Government has prepared teachers to be professional in teaching through the Indonesia's Law, No. 14/ 2005, Verse 1. This law regulates teachers as they are to have academic qualification at least bachelor degree, certificate of educator, good physic and spiritual health, abilities to achieve the national education purpose, and master four teaching competencies, namely pedagogy, professionalism, social, and personality. Owing to the Law above, the government provides certification programs to enhance TPD in Indonesia. Certification programs are available as tangible supports by the government to value teacher professionalism.

Recently, TPD has gained its significant roles in Vocational High schools in Indonesia because the incumbent Indonesian President is focusing on the growth of vocational high schools. The president prioritizes vocational high school because Indonesia will have a great number of productive age people in the world in 2020 (Widodo, 2017). The president prepares Vocational High School students so that they can manage Indonesian natural resources and technology. Regarding the president's program, TPD in vocational high school is urgent, particularly for English teachers, as English is the lingua franca of the globalisation age. TPD for English teachers is desirable and crucial in English Language Teaching context throughout the world (Yuwono, 2008). Due to the importance of TPD for English teachers in vocational high schools, this paper explores the notion and issues of TPD as perceived by vocational senior high school English teachers. This study investigates two research questions as follows: 1) what are the English Teachers' motivations to participate in TPD programs; and 2) what are the teachers' challenges and needs in doing TPD program? These two questions are answered in the discussion section.

### ***Teacher Professional Development***

TPD has been discussed in many literatures and educational field. TPD facilitates teachers to develop their teaching skills. Teachers are supposed to have good competence, teaching performance, actively involved in professional development program, upgrade knowledge and engage the relevant issues, conduct the assignment ethically, and commit in teaching practice (Adnyani, 2015). To improve teachers' teaching, teachers are required to engage in learning opportunity such as workshop, mentoring and training to support their role (Tanang and Abu, 2014). TPD as specific programs can enhance teachers' knowledge and skills of teaching (Hill, 2009). Hill says that TPD has to bring improvements in teacher's knowledge, instruction, and students outcomes. There are many forms of TPD program such as participating educational seminars, writing research or portfolio and going to educational training. Those activities are prepared to improve teachers' skill and knowledge. However, Hill states that TPD cannot be estimated what percentage of it is worthwhile for teachers. Teachers who experience the TPD program can be invited to share their perception and feelings about TPD so that it can measure and evaluate TPD program. Hence, TPD will be useful. Hill invites people to reject professional development that exists only to fulfil state licensure requirements. The government and schools should support proven and highly promising TPD program (Hill, 2009)

The problems in TPD have been discussed by Hammel (2007). Hammel includes an overview of general educational research, many of which studying the role of professional development in school reform and change and the lack of communication between teachers and administrators regarding professional development.

### **Method**

This study employed a qualitative study. The key of qualitative research is that meaning is constructed by individuals in interaction with their world (Merriam, 2002). English teacher's experiences in joining TPD programs are



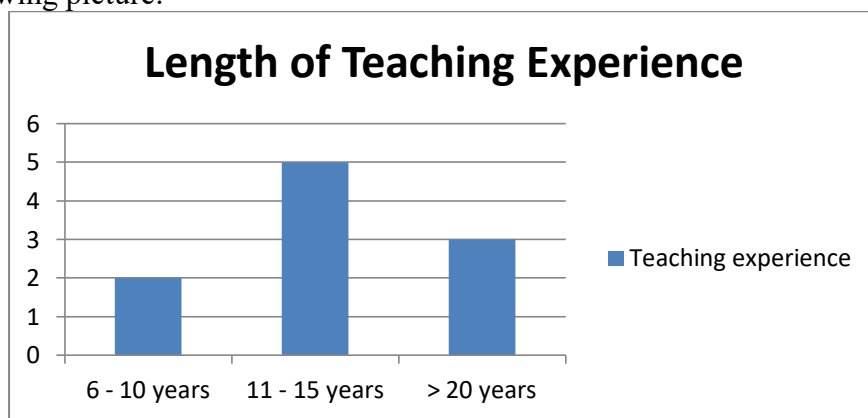
investigated. A qualitative approach was chosen in this study because it could provide a deeper understanding of social phenomena than that would be obtained from purely quantitative data (Silverman, 2005). In this study, the researchers analysed the experience of following TPD based on the data collections that were obtained from multiple source information. The researchers conducted questionnaires and interviews.

### ***Participants***

The participants were 10 English teachers from 3 vocational high schools in Yogyakarta City in Indonesia. The participants were teaching English in a variety of grade levels, including grade X, XI, and XII. They were asked to voluntarily participate in this study after reading and signing the consent form. This consent form detailed what the participants need to do during the research process. The participants were selected in this study because they had experienced TPD programs throughout their careers. All participants referred to in the discussion are put in pseudonyms.

### ***Teaching experiences***

From the participants of this research, it can be concluded that most participants have been teaching English for 11 – 15 years. Five participants of them have teaching experiences from 11 to 15 years. Two participants have been teaching for 6 – 10 years. The other three participants have been teaching for more than 20 years. The distribution of their teaching experiences is shown in the following picture:



**Diagram 1. Length of Teaching Experiences**

### ***Instruments***

The study was based on two main data sources: a questionnaire and interviews. The questionnaire was adapted from The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS). The questionnaire was adapted in the necessity of the condition of educational field in Indonesia. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: (1) three questions on teacher's background including gender, age, and the years of teaching; (2) eight questions of TPD. The interview was conducted to elicit their motivation related to TPD. The interview questions were based on participants' responses toward the questionnaire. This method highlights the advantages of a qualitative research in offering a deeper image (Silverman, 2005).

### ***Procedure***

The permission letter of conducting the study in Yogyakarta, Indonesia was obtained from the government office which deals with research studies for institutions, called KESBANGPOL (Kesatuan Bangsa dan Politik). After getting the permission, the researchers were allowed to initiate the study by distributing questionnaires and conducting interviews in State Vocational High Schools in Yogyakarta City. The English teachers completed the questionnaire of their efforts in TPD program. They were given chances to fill the questionnaire in one month from May to June 2017. After the participants had completed the questionnaires, each teacher participated in the interview section that lasted for 30-50 min. They were interviewed concerning their experiences and standpoints toward TPD, particularly the nature of professionalism as perceived by them.

The data based on the questionnaire was used to acquire basic data and to develop interview question. The result of the interviews were analysed by coding and categorizing the interview data into some themes. The results of the study are presented in the following section.

### **Findings and Discussion**

Based on the results of questionnaire and interview, there are two categories that explained TPD experiences perceived by teachers. The researchers classified the results into the motivation of joining TPD and the challenges of following TPD.

#### ***The motivation of Joining Teacher Professional Development***

There are various motivations in doing TPD program. The participants realized that TPD is important for their improvement in teaching. This is the part of their profession. As Fanny said that, "I searched the knowledge. For me, TPD was not for rank promotion. It was for myself. I have been long interested in TPD. I intrinsically was curious about classroom action research. I tried to implement the knowledge to my class. I was curious about the results. If I saw students' learning improvement, I regard it as a reward already."

Fanny admitted that she was curious with new knowledge and wanted to implement it in the classroom. She also searched for knowledge. However, even if TPD was not for certification, she still wanted to do it. She saw the development as a reward of improving her teaching skill. She was also happy doing classroom action research as her teaching professional development. She said that: "Classroom action research was for promotion for some teachers. Nevertheless, for me, I was happy doing classroom action research because I felt happiness. And it brought positive impacts." TPD that can fulfil the need of teachers brings positive impacts. In the same vein, Georgia has slightly different motivation in doing TPD. Georgia said: "For me, TPD was a calling. For example, when there was a TPD program, we consulted our research papers. I had willingness to finish it. I make the questionnaire for my students. But, I cannot say that I have completed it before I saw my students step up to a higher level."

Georgia explained that teaching for 10 years and doing the same thing and always repeating it could be boring for her. The benefit of being civil servant could be also a challenge because she already felt safe because of the stable

salary, even without doing particular teaching innovations. However, Georgia also admitted that teaching college students presented different challenges. She said that it could be easier teaching college students than that of vocational high school students. She went on to exemplify that in vocational high school she should check daily tests and asked students to do their tasks. Nevertheless, simply asking students to do their task was already difficult. Georgia then said that she also experienced professional fatigue following TPD programs: “I used to be happy participating English Teacher Network, attending workshop, being tested for expanding my knowledge. But now, I am tired maybe because of age factor. I am tired if we should think.”

Georgia exemplified that whenever she got new materials from TPD program, she felt motivated and excited. She thought that those materials could be applied for her students. Nevertheless, when she met the students in the classroom reality, all the motivation and excitement flew away, confused how to apply. From her explanation, Georgia implies that there is substantial knowledge discrepancy between theories she obtained from TPD and the classroom realities.

Apart from the above motivation account of the teachers, in this study, the researchers also found some challenges encountered by English teachers in joining TPD in Indonesia which is discussed in the following section.

### ***The challenges of Following Teacher Professional Development***

The challenges faced by the English teachers for participating in TPD are presented in the table below with the frequency of occurrence of their responses.

No	Code	Frequency
1	Limited time joining TPD due to teaching schedule	10
2	Limited time joining TPD due to family matters	3
3	TPD materials	3
4	Information related TPD	1
5	Motivation	7

The English teachers tend to face their problems in TPD in two factors. The first challenge is inadequate time of following TPD. The participants still get problems how to match their schedules with TPD. The second challenge is TPD materials. The English teacher tries to find what kind of suitable materials and topics for TPD. Hence, TPD can be followed up to gain the best result. The two challenges are elaborated as follows.

### ***Teaching schedule***

The first challenge that English teachers deal with is program timing of TPD. The participants admitted that it was difficult to find the appropriate time to do TPD as they had their teaching schedules in the school. However, TPD program was often held in a timing work. From the results of questionnaire and interview, 10 topics about teaching schedules as challenges emerged. Teachers were demanded to cover her teaching schedules at schools. From the data, timing program of TPD is the biggest obstacle for English teachers. Teachers could not leave the teaching process at schools as sanction would be given to teachers. This

challenge is particularly conveyed by Anne, “Teaching schedules cannot be modified. I will get sanction if I leave my students”.

Although some teachers still keep joining TPD program, they could not entirely focus on the program because they must also think the tasks and materials for the students. As Cynthia expressed, “TPD often collides with my teaching schedule. Therefore, I cannot focus on it”. The participants were often confused and worried how to manage their times between teaching schedules and TPD program. Although the participants had awareness of the importance of TPD programs, they did not want to leave the students because it would consequently multiply their jobs. This is especially admitted by Brigitta: “If we get an instruction to join TPD program, we must give tasks to our students so that they will not be left behind on the learning materials. We need to give detailed instructions as the students sometimes do not understand the materials which they have to do.” With the fact that joining TPD collided with teaching schedule, their chances of meeting their learning community were often limited.

### ***Time to Care for Family***

Besides teaching schedules, family seems to be the second challenge for the participants to do TPD program. Based on the data, there are three topics about family as a burden of TPD appears. The data said that TPD decreases teachers’ family time. There is inadequate time due to family matters. Enny wrote her answer of the challenge of TPD as follows:

“I am a mother in my family. Family needs the presence of a mother. I can only meet my family and my children only in the evening.”

She admitted that it was difficult to manage time between TPD and her role as a mother. She did not want to leave her children. This finding is in line with Yuwono’s study (2010). They argue that female teachers, who are usually expected to look after and care for their families at the same time, may feel hesitant or face dilemma to actively join professional development program or to conduct further learning whenever such program or learning takes their time off their families. Alicia also had the same voice regarding to TPD:

“When the school is finished, we have already been tired and we must take care of our children.”

On the contrary, with the two participants before, Fanny showed her different opinion about the family. She realized that TPD might influence her family time. However, she could see the positive side from it. She admitted that:

“If we talk about family, teachers will certainly do not have time to join TPD programs. I understand that some teachers do not follow TPD program because they will not have family time. Nevertheless, I think it is the consequence of being a teacher. We have already chosen our profession to be a teacher.”

Fanny felt that leaving family for a moment is the consequence of her profession to be a committed teacher. She values this challenge as her part becoming a teacher. By seeing the challenges as consequences, she could join TPD without any burdens.

### Needs for TPD materials

The diagram below shows teachers' needs in TPD. Teacher needs at least eight aspects in TPD Program.

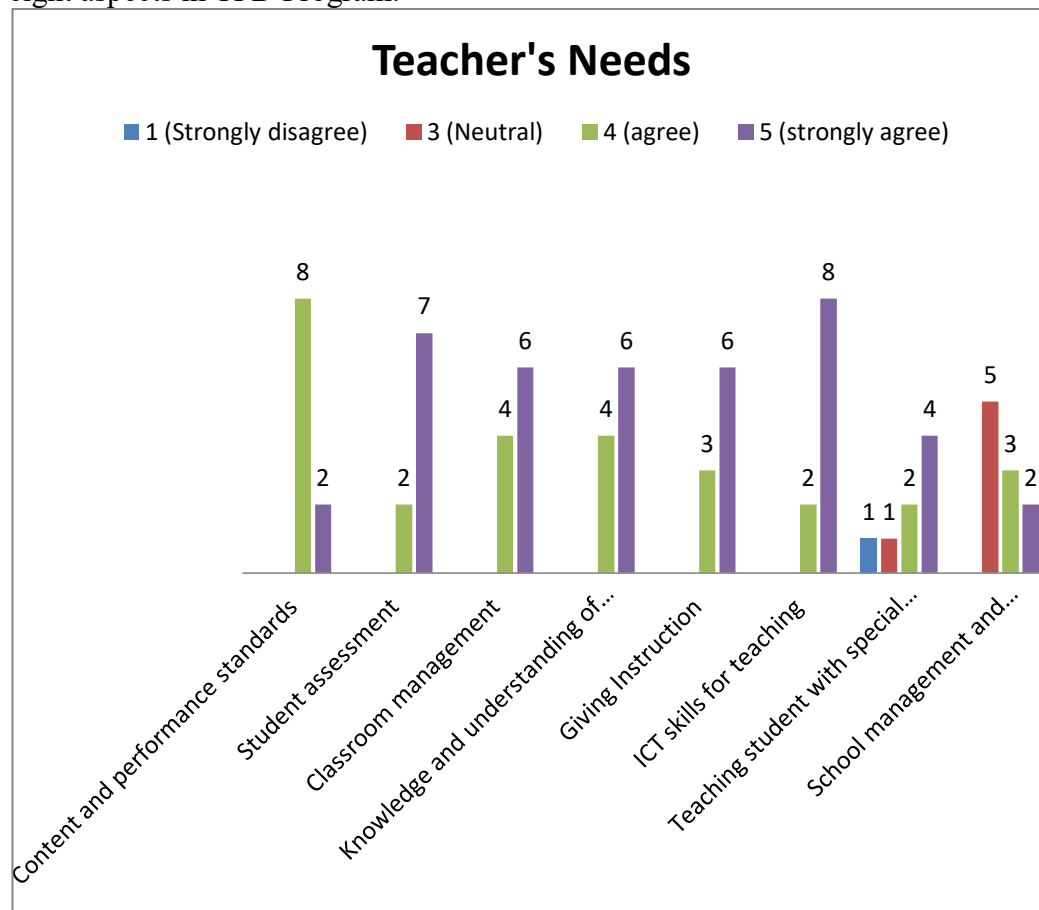


Diagram 2. Teacher's Needs

From the diagram above, it can be seen that content and performance standards and ICT skills for teaching are wanted by most teachers in joining TPD. It is because they usually get the educational policies from the government in TPD program. They just get how to make a lesson plan and it is repeated too frequently in TPD program. Georgia, one of the participants said: "TPD materials covered learning theories and newest policies from the government. I liked learning theories rather than the policies. I was not interested in the policies. What is it for? Sometimes we were too busy in the policies but I felt that the core was the same, the learning material was the same, and we only reshaped the form and the lesson plan."

Georgia said that she was not interested in the policies. However, learning theories are needed for Georgia. Next, ICT skills for teaching are also needed as today every person is connected to technology of information and communication. Therefore, most participants choose to have ICT skills for teaching to improve their professionalism.

## Conclusion

As stated earlier, this study attempts to answer two research questions, namely the motivations of English Teachers to join TPD program and the challenges and the needs of the English teachers in TPD programs. The findings from the participants include five general topics, namely: limited time joining TPD due to teaching schedule, limited time joining TPD due to family matters, TPD materials, information related TPD, and the teachers' motivation.

The teachers expressed in both the questionnaires and interviews that they clearly have intrinsic motivation to drive their actions, for example to conduct classroom action research. The positive learning result from this classroom action research, for example, has already been a precious reward for the participant. However, the teacher often cannot maintain and implement their teaching plans they gained from the TPD programs as the classroom realities often demand different learning strategies.

Related to the TPD challenges, the teachers mention that the commitment to follow the teaching schedule often conflicted with the program schedule of TPD. Besides, when faced with the decision of priority, the teachers are often confused whether they should look after their children and the family or went to TPD programs. The discretion did not look too obvious. However, the decision often resorted from the teacher's critical reflection that teaching is a chosen profession that they have to uphold with some consequences. As for the needs, most teachers require more training to understand the practices of ICT skills as well as teaching performance.

The suggestion related to TPD centres around the follow-up of the program itself. Some teachers in this research expressed that they have difficulty to implement the knowledge obtained from the TPD programs, as well as to maintain their motivations and strategies to implement the TPD programs in the classroom. Therefore, further research direction can locate teachers' challenges to cope with the classroom reality after the teachers complete some TPD programs, and secondly, what kinds of assistances they need to stay motivated in implementing the strategies with regard to the factual classroom situation.

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## PAIRED ORAL TESTS: A LITERATURE REVIEW

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**DOI:** [doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2110](https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2110)

received 2 May 2018; revised 5 June 2018; accepted 12 June 2018

### Abstract

This paper reviews the studies on paired oral tests in the last ten years (2007-2017). Using the search facilities in Iowa State University's library, nine articles from some journals in the field of applied linguistics were chosen based on the inclusion criteria. Those journals are *Language Testing*, *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *Applied Linguistics*, and *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Science*. Three reasons why paired oral tests are better than interview test or individual format test are then discussed. Those are promoting and improving students' interactional competence, creating students' co-constructed discourse, and providing insights for better scale development and rater training. Paired oral tests provide opportunities for students to interact with peers in the tests, enable them to practice and improve their interactional competence. Paired oral tests also enable students to co-construct their discourse, even though there is an issue of grading the scores individually or collaboratively. The last is, more information about students' and raters' perception were gained that helps improve the rating scale and inform rater training. This paper is concluded with the call for more studies on paired oral tests to provide more insights into this complex process of creating co-constructed discourse and how to validly and reliably test both its process and product.

Keywords: pair oral test, interactional competence, co-constructed discourse

### Introduction

This paper intends to review studies conducted on paired oral tests or paired speaking tests in the last ten years (2007– 2017). Paired oral tests are one type of task formats for assessing oral communication where the test takers are paired as equal speakers to have a discussion with each other (Ockey & Li, 2015). A trained rater or raters may or may not participate in the discussions. It is different from group oral tests, where more than two students are involved in the discussions, or individual format tests, where only one students who interacts with a trained rater or an assessor.

In this paper, I would like to argue that pair oral test is more beneficial than oral proficiency interview in terms of promoting and improving students' interactional competence, creating students' co-constructed discourse, and providing insights for better scale development and rater training. To conduct the review, several articles which studied paired oral test in some journals in applied linguistics field were selected. The inclusion criteria for the articles are that these



articles should be published in and after 2007, the topic is paired oral test, and those articles should be empirical research articles.

## **Theory**

Using inclusion criteria above and the key words “paired oral test” and “paired speaking test”, I searched the articles through “Quick Search” facility of the Iowa University library’s online database. Besides using the quick search facility, I also used Article Indexes & Databases and e-Journal facilities to search for the articles. In fact, I also visited the websites of several journals in applied linguistics field and check the titles and the abstract of the articles which were published from the first issue of 2007 until the last issue of 2017. Nine articles were found and then selected from these following journals in applied linguistics fields: *Language Testing*, *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *Applied Linguistics*, and *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Science*. Some of the articles found were not included since they were not empirical research articles. Some of them were also not included since they discuss interview type of tests or group oral tests. In the following sections, I will discuss why paired oral tests are more superior than interview tests or individual format.

## **Theory Application**

### ***Students’ interactional competence***

All the studies reviewed in this paper mentioned that one of the advantages of paired oral test over individual format or interview type of oral test is that test takers perform better in paired oral test. Constructed within a sociocultural theory, Brooks (2009) compared the quantitative and qualitative differences in performance when the same test takers interacted with examiners and when they interacted with their peers in a test of oral proficiency. Her study was guided by these two questions: how does test-taker performance differ depending on whether the interlocutor is a tester or another student, and what are the features of interaction in the individual and paired formats? (p. 346). She claimed that test takers who participated in paired format scored better than when they participated in the individual format (when they interacted with an examiner). Moreover, the qualitative analyses of the interactional discourse elicited during paired oral tests showed that more interaction, negotiation of meaning, and complex output were produced. Test-takers employed more features of interaction (17 features) in paired test, while in the individual format the test takers employed 10 features of interaction. Moreover, from the Conversation Analysis conducted by the researcher, it was found out that the interaction was more asymmetrical in nature, similar to that in an interview. This result supported the findings of previous studies that pair format is better than interview or individual format in terms of students’ performances.

A study conducted by Laborda, Juan, and Bakieva (2015) also yielded similar result. They conducted a study to test the construct of the new Spanish University Entrance Examination (PAU) where an experimental paired oral tests format was conducted with potential participants of PAU. Laborda et al. concluded that co-construction of output resulted from paired oral tests format

supported the development of students' interactional competence and improved individual student's performance. They further claimed that in paired oral tests, test takers tended to support their peers' responses. This might have a significant effect on the students' performances. Moreover, the atmosphere was relaxing since it was their friends they were addressing. The test takers tended to speak better and more so the length of their discourse also increased.

Galaczi (2008) conducted a study that investigated the relationship between the score of interactional competence that the test takers received in their paired oral tests and their pattern of interaction in their co-constructed discourse in paired oral tests. She found out that there were three patterns of interactions in the discourse: collaborative, parallel, and asymmetric. In collaborative interaction, the test takers were mutually and equally engaged in the interaction. It means that they were actively engaged in the co-construction of discourse. The second is parallel interaction, where the students were not mutually nor equally engaged in the interaction. It is like "solo vs. solo" interaction. In the third interaction, asymmetric interaction, one of the participants was dominant, while the other was passive. She also found that there was a significant correlation between the students' score in their interactional competence and their pattern of interactions. Test takers who were mutually and equally engaged, who were actively co-constructing their discourse were proven to have higher scores in their interactional competence than those test takers who had parallel or asymmetric interaction. In another study, May (2009) also showed clearly that paired oral test could elicit features of interactional competence, including conversation management skills, that cannot be captured or even do not exist in interview or individual oral type of test. Those features of interactional competence can be best elicited through tasks involving test takers' interaction.

All these studies then show that paired oral test helps promote and improve test takers' interactional competence. In the following section, I will discuss the next feature of paired oral test that makes it better than individual format test: the creation of students' co-constructed discourse.

### ***The creation of students' co-constructed discourse***

The term interactional competence was first coined by Kramsch (1986) who argued that since the interactional discourse is co-constructed by participants involved in it, the responsibility for that discourse cannot be assigned to just one participant involved in that discourse construction. Or in a paired oral test setting, the score of interactional competence cannot be assigned to just one test taker, but it must be shared equally by all the test takers involved. This paired oral test setting then creates an opportunity as well as a challenge. On one hand, paired oral tests enable the creation of rich and more authentic discourse, which resulted from the process of negotiating meaning and not just information transfer. On the other hand, it raises the issue of validity and fairness. How valid is the score of interactional competence awarded to the test takers? How fair is the score awarded? What if one participant of the paired oral tests was low or weak in terms of their interactional competence or linguistic ability?

Ducasse and Brown (2009) and May (2009) conducted a study about these issues viewed from the raters' perspectives. Ducasse and Brown (2009) reported

the findings of verbal protocols of teacher-raters who observed the paired oral test discourses. These verbal protocols gave insights on what raters were focusing on when rating paired oral examinees. The focus of their study was therefore on the construct of interaction. The findings reveal that the raters observed and identified in the students' co-constructed discourse in paired oral tests three main categories of interactional features: non-verbal interpersonal communication (which has two subcategories: gaze and body language), interactive listening (with two subcategories: supportive listening and comprehension), and interactional management (with also two subcategories: horizontal and vertical management). The definition of the construct of effective interaction between examinees in paired oral tests should therefore take into account these interactional features, since those are what the raters are considering when rating the examinees. Also, those interactional features should be considered in the development of rating scales. The results of their study then provide insights on how to create more valid and fair test scale to assess students' interactional competence depicted through the creation of co-constructed discourse.

A similar study conducted by May (2009) who also argued that since the interaction in a paired oral or speaking test is intrinsically co-constructed in nature, giving shared scores for the test-takers' interactional competence is one way of acknowledging it. Her study showed that it is difficult for raters to assign scores to test takers, especially when their nature of interaction is asymmetrical, where one participant is dominant and the other is passive. She suggested that in order for the paired oral tests to be fair and valid, each test taker still should still receive a separate score for Accuracy, Fluency, and Range (p. 417)

If those two previous studies discussed the students' co-constructed nature of paired oral tests from the raters' perspectives, Bennett (2012), Davis (2009), and Lazaraton and Davis (2008) discussed it from test takers' perspectives. Lazaraton and Davis (2008) argued that test takers bring their language proficiency identity (LPID) to the test tasks, and this identity is fluid. It means the test takers' identity changes, depending on who their interlocutor is. In their study, using the notion of "positioning", they found that the test takers' LPID can manifest in the talk by "do being proficient", "do being interactive", "do being supportive", and "do being assertive". Do being proficient and do being interactive mean that the overall proficiency that the test takers show synergistically and collaboratively positions them as competent English users, therefore they deserve high scores on the paired oral test. Do being supportive and do being assertive take place in a talk involving a more proficient speaker with a weaker one. They also deserve high scores with those identities. Based on the results of their study, Lazaraton and Davis recommended that the test takers should be tested twice with different partners to find out what their true LPID is.

Davis (2009) in his study found that the proficiency level of test takers' interlocutor or partner in a pair oral test has no effect on the test takers' performance. Higher-proficiency test takers were generally not harmed by interacting with a lower-level test taker. However, lower-level student did not greatly benefit from working with a higher-level peer either, at least in terms of score. He also found that in his study, most of the conversations produced

collaborative interaction. This supported Galaczi's (2008) study, that there is a global pattern of interactions in the test takers' co-constructed discourse, namely collaborative interaction (where the test takers are mutually and equally engaged), parallel interaction (where both speakers are equal, initiated and developed topics, but not mutual, which means they are not engaged with each other's ideas), and asymmetric interaction (where one speaker is passive and the other is dominant). Bennett (2012) also found that interlocutor's linguistic ability has little or no influence on the test taker's performance. In fact, based on the post-test questionnaire, the test takers felt satisfied with the pairing.

The last benefit of paired oral tests that I would like to discuss is the insights and understanding of better scale development and rater training gained from studies conducted on paired oral tests.

### ***Insights for scale development and rater training***

Galaczi (2014) conducted a study on interactional competence within varying proficiency levels, in this case CEFR proficiency level. The data of her study were 41 average pairs selected from the 84 video-taped test taker performances on the test taker interaction task at CEFR levels B1 to C2 or four proficiency levels. The term average here refers to test takers who had a mark 3-4 band (from a 1-5 band scale) on the Cambridge English Interactive Communication scale. She employed a mixed-methods approach (Creswell, 2014), combining a contrastive analysis technique and quantitative coding of the data. The research question of her study was "what features of interactional competence in test-taker discourse are salient at different oral proficiency levels?". The results of contrastive analysis showed that several interactional features distinguish proficiency levels. The test takers in the four proficiency levels were engaging in the three key interactional features: topic development, listener support, and turn-taking management. This study then gave insights to the conceptualization of the Interactional Competence construct by providing useful descriptive interactional features which could supplement the already available Interactional Competence scales and descriptors.

Other studies reviewed in this article also argued that their studies will give insights into the development of scale and rater training. May's (2009) study is claimed to provide insights into raters since it investigated raters' perceptions on whether they considered separable the individual contribution to interactional patterns in paired oral tests. May claimed that her study will provide insights into the development of rating scales which can capture the complexities of interactional competence in a paired oral test, and the training of raters to deal with asymmetric interactions. Ducasse and Brown's (2009) study, which collected raters' verbal reports, also reported that, since they were recording what the raters were focusing on when they were rating the co-constructed discourse in paired oral tests, their study will give valuable information concerning interactional features and descriptors which should be taken into consideration when interactional competence rating scales are developed.

## Conclusion

To conclude this paper review, many further studies still need to be conducted to unravel the complexities of interactional competences and co-constructed discourse created by the students in the paired oral tests, and to create paired oral tests which are more construct valid, reliable, authentic, practical, interactive, and impactful (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), as well as to measure the interactional competences and the discourse validly and reliably.

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