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Title
English Relative Clauses: How Students use them

Author
Hermawati Syarif
Universitas Negeri Padang, Indonesia
hermawati_sv@yahoo.com

Abstract
The use of English relative clause is more preferable in written language. It is due to the fact that the writer wants to specify what is being talked. Since the relative clause is embedded to its matrix clause, the tendency to miss the element(s) of the sentence is seen in the students’ writing. The paper discusses the use of English relative clauses by the students of English Department of UNP Padang, West Sumatera, the problems and their causes. The analysis is by drawing the clauses from their matrix elements of complex sentences. As a whole, the results revealed that almost half of the relative clauses used by students are problematic, in which missing be in passive form is the most, followed by fragment sentence, disagreement with their modified nouns, the inappropriate choice of pronoun, and the ignorance of clause reduction and restriction. These problems were mostly caused by students’ lack awareness and learning style in grammar, the interference of cultural internalization of the Indonesian language, students’ lack of competence and insufficiency of exposure that deals with construction of English relative clause.

Key Words: matrix clause, relative clause, restrictive relative clause, non-restrictive relative clause, appositive.

Introduction
The preference of using English relative clause in written language is likely based on the needs of specifying what being expressed. However, in many of writing performances, mostly on the learners’, the use of relative clauses is strange, or even problematic. Since relative clause is embedded to its matrix clause, the tendency to miss the element(s) of the sentence is seen in the students’ writing.
After years of observation and reading students’ write up assignment at the English Department of Universitas Negeri Padang, I noticed that it is exceptionally hard for them to construct a proper complex sentence. By and large, the main cause for this problem is students’ lack of knowledge about grammatical structure needed to construct such sentences. While Weaver (1996) stated that grammar gives students the description of how words are combined into meaningful syntactic structure, which enables them to understand and produce the language described.

However, a study on students’ expository essay which I did in 2013 showed that students’ complex sentences tend to miss some important elements of the complex sentence resulting in sentences which are grammatically flawed. In worse cases, students’ sentences were hard to be comprehended to the extent of being unintelligible. The study also revealed that relative clause was the most difficult grammar target for students to master shedding some lights to why student’s complex sentences are riddled with problems. Surprisingly, this problem did not only afflict students at undergraduate level but also those studying at graduate level. This phenomenon is quite alarming considering their years of studying English grammar and proper academic writing. For those reasons, I did another study on students’ use of English relative clauses, the problems and their causes at English Department UNP Padang, West Sumatera.

**Theoretical Review**

As the elements of a sentence, relative clauses may be the noun phrase substitute, which is embedded to the clause (sentence); and adjective substitute, which is embedded to noun phrase (NP). Both are also called dependent clauses since they are the part of main clause of complex sentence, Celce-Murcia at.al (1999: 20). The term relative clauses proposed by Biber (1999) is the clause, whose relative pronoun, shows the agreement with the antecedent (noun phrase it modifies) as postmodifier. The relative pronoun is an element used to introduce the main clause or the antecedent developed into the whole clause. In another form, their relative pronouns can determine their function as an element of clause structure (as a subject, object, complement or adverbial).

In another view, Quirk, et al. (1987) and Biber et.al. (1999), use the term relative clause for embedded clauses. Quirk names it adnominal clause, consisting of nominal relative clause and sentential relative clause. The difference between these two mainly lies on their function. Nominal relative clause functions as the substitute of noun phrase in the sentence, such as *Whoever did that* in the sentence *Whoever did that should admit it frankly.*, functions
as subject; on the other hand, relative clause (including sentential relative clause) functions as the replacement for adjectival function, modifying noun phrase (antecedent) or main clause, and also as additional information for sentential relative clause. Relative clauses are typically introduced by a relative pronoun with anaphoric reference, such as a car is referred by which in the clauses There is a car which I saw yesterday (Collins and Hollo, 2000)

Corresponding to the purpose of this paper, the theories discussed are only on the relative clauses as the adjectival function. The term can be suited to relative clauses stated by Collin and Hollo (2000), upon which its relative pronoun is referred. Quirk (1987) classifies relative clauses based on the pronoun and gender agreement, restrictive relative clause with its pronoun function, and nonrestrictive relative clause.

In English, gender system used for person and nonperson, according to Quirk et. al. (1987: 1245) and Werner (2007), is only wh-. Firstly, who is used for person and which is used for nonperson and baby. For collective noun, both relative pronouns can be used (person for pural sense and nonperson for nperson sense). Secondly, gender contrast can be neutralized by relative ‘that’ or ‘zero ()’, such as she must be the nicest person that() ever lived. Apart from who and which functioning as relative pronoun, that is relative pronoun that can be used for both person and nonperson antecedent. It can be seen in sentence (1) and (2).

(1) I hate the coat that my mother brought me. (nonperson)

(2) The dentist that you’re seeing just lost his license. (person)

If there are two antecedentes of the clause, relative pronoun is agreed to the nearest noun, such as: the people and the things which... and the things and the people who.... The last, which can be used with noun person as antecedent if it is complementary relative, like He... to be an artist, which he was not.

The next is restrictive relative clause which contains information that is necessary to identify the noun it modifies (Davis (1977:19). It means that when it is removed from the sentence, the meaning of the matrix clause is blurred or may be ambiguous. Berk (1999:265) states that the main function of restrictive relative clause is to restrict the meaning of noun phrase (antecedent) that precedes, by which the listener or the reader might understand which is being referred. Since the clause limits the reference of noun phrase, it cannot be used with noun phrase which already has a clear reference. See the following examples:

(3)Tell the students who are discussing the problems the time limit.

In sentence (3), with restrictive clause who are discussing the problems, noun phrase the students has clearer meaning.
Restrictive relative clause can modify noun phrase in any position, and the clause is embedded into nominal structure. In other words, if it functions to modify direct object (noun phrase), it becomes the part of an object. Veit (1986) states that the meaning of the noun preceded is complemented or completed. For example, in

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
S & V & O \\
\hline
4 I & don't know & the student who is standing in the back.
\end{array}
\]

\textit{who is standing in the back} is the part of the object \textit{the student} of the sentence \textit{I don’t know.}

Like other clauses, restrictive relative clause also has internal structure and \textit{wh-} word appears at the beginning of the clause regardless of its grammatical function. In addition, restrictive relative clause can modify indefinite pronoun as in:

\begin{enumerate}
\item (5) \textit{I don’t know anyone who can fix this.}
\item (6) \textit{He who dies with the most toys wins.}
\end{enumerate}

Indefinite pronoun \textit{anyone} in (6) and \textit{He} in (7) are the referents of relative pronoun \textit{who}.

Relative pronoun used in restrictive clause can show its function in the sentence. It has the functions of subject, object, complement and adverbial in the embedded clause (Fuchs and Bonner, 2000).

Regarding relative pronoun \textit{whose}, Maurer (2000) has the idea that \textit{whose} is used to modify possessive noun phrase for both person and non person, such as:

\begin{enumerate}
\item (7) \textit{The woman whose daughter you met is Mrs Brown.}
\item (8) \textit{The house whose roof was damaged has now been repaired.}
\end{enumerate}

In sentence (7) and (8), \textit{whose} is to replace \textit{her} and \textit{its} as the referent of \textit{the woman} (person), and \textit{the house} (non-person) in those two complex sentences. If the antecedent is non person, \textit{whose} can be replaced by \textit{which, of} that is \textit{the roof of which}; however, \textit{whose} is more commonly used.

Objective relative pronoun used is \textit{that} or zero ( ) to avoid the unacceptable use of \textit{who} and \textit{whom} (See Werner and Spaventa (2007)). Therefore, the sentence \textit{people that I visit/speak to...} is more likely to be used than \textit{people who(m) I visit/speak to...}

Regarding non-restrictive relative clause, its function is only to give extra information to the noun (phrase) modified. In other words, without the clause, the antecedent has already been identified. It just gives additional information about the noun it modifies, and it is not
necessary (Davis, 1977:342). It means that when the nonrestrictive relative clause is removed from a sentence, the meaning of noun phrase of the matrix clause has already been clear. That clause is separated from the noun phrase by a comma or commas (unless, of course, it ends a sentence and a period or question mark is required). These clauses often modify proper nouns or names of unique people, places or things. *Who, which, whom* and *whose* (but not *that*) may be used in these clauses.

Eventhough it is sometimes difficult to decide whether relative clauses are restrictive or not, they are clearly non-restrictive as first, when the noun they modify is a proper name (since a name by itself is popular enough to tell *which*) as in the sentence Soeharto, *who* got more strategies in managing the government and its heterogenous communities, has passed away in peace. Second, when the noun is preceded by this or these as in the sentence *Those interesting places, to which* more tourists spend their leisure time, are located near the city. Third, when the clause modifies a specific time or date as in the sentence *In September, when many people still think of ‘Gestapu’, we prepare for our conference.* Finally, the clause between the commas marks that the embedded clause is nonrestrictive, with the assumption that everyone knows the NP referred. In the sentence *Mrs. Jensen, who lives next door, is a girl scout troop leader.*, NP *Mrs. Jensen* is already identified. It is probably because there is only one *Mrs. Jensen* in the contextual situation.

Sentential relative clause is highly related to comment clause. This clause refers to predicate or predicative in the clause, or the whole clause or sentence (See Greenbawn & Nelson, 20002).

(9) *They say he plays truant, which surprises me.* (predicate)

(10) *Things then improved, which surprised me.* (sentence)

In the sentences (9) and (10), the matrix clause antecedent is a single clause. The existence of sentential relative clause is parallel with the nonrestrictive relative clause in noun phrase in the sense that (a) the clause is separated by intonation or punctuation, (b) the clause is commonly preceded by relative pronoun *which*. It can also be relative determiner abstract noun, like *fact, case, event, situation* (Werner and Lou, 2007). Noun phrase can be a prepositional complement modifying its antecedent. See the following example:

(11) *The plane may be several hours late, in which case there’s no point in our waiting.*

In relation to using relative clauses by English foreign language (EFL) learners, the problems commonly arise during the process of learning, and may also come from the influence of their first language (L1). Learners usually make mistakes in learning a new language (Brown, 2007:257). Mistakes should not be avoided in learning language since they
are inseparable part of the learning process. Ignorance of rule restriction when using grammar occurs for not knowing the exceptions to the rule, that is overgeneralization. Another is applying incomplete rule, such as regrading a dependent clause as a sentence that is called fragment. (see Ziahosseiny, 1999 concerning overgeneralization).

In acquiring second or foreign language, learners are commonly influenced by their first language (L1) indirectly (Harmer (1990: 215). The way it influences in the process of acquiring the second or foreign language may be indirect, in which the learners cannot differ the patterns and rules of those languages (Troike, 2006:35). Its process is commonly called as language interference of mother tounge to the second or foreign language use.

**Method**

From these two classes, fourty (44) short essay writing assignments of the students are selected proportionally randomized. These essays are with various topics of their individual interest. It is aimed to guarantee that the students have background knowledge and sources they need to explore and write about the topic chosen. However, the essay written was guided to be relative clause content.

The parameters used in analyzing relative clauses from students’ writings are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
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<th>No</th>
<th>Components indicated controlled</th>
<th>Subcomponents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Adjectival Functions</td>
<td>1. Noun modifier:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a. Restrictive clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>b. Non-restrictive clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Sentential Modifier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Distribution of Relative Clause Types</td>
<td>1. Subject Replacement: that, which, who, where, when, how, why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Object Replacement: that, which, whom, where, when, how, why</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Proportion of Relative Pronoun used</td>
<td>that, what, which, who, whom, where, when, how, why</td>
</tr>
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</table>
These indicators are gained, firstly, by reading 44 writing assignments comprehendingly. It is going on with identifying the components of relative clauses mentioned in Table 1. The use of relative clauses in relation to matrix clauses are identified by annotating them. To know the appropriate use of relative clauses in complex sentences, the category

The data analyzed include the appropriate use of relative clauses with adjectival function (relative clauses), the distribution of relative clause used in their complex sentences. Each of this point is analyzed based on the sub-indicators provided. The analysis adapted the theory proposed by Patton (1990). In order to analyze the data, there are several steps to be followed. The steps are explained as follows.

The data of students’ writing collected are coded by number. Each sentence is analysed and classified by referring to the indicators predetermined. The violations of the relative clauses used are identified and grouped into the same classification as in the indicators. The data tabulated were organized and described for further analysis to draw later conclusion.

To know the appropriateness of the use of relative clauses, each of the clauses is analysed deeply based on the indicators determined. It is going on with categorizing them from the most to the least appropriate use with the parameter in the following table.

Table 2. The classification of the appropriateness of students’ relative clauses with adjectival function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Interval of appropriateness (%)</th>
<th>Classification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>81-100</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>66-80</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>56-65</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>41-55</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0-40</td>
<td>Very Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last step is interpreting the meaning of data analyzed of all research questions. The results of the students writing were interpreted deeply and draw the conclusion.
Findings

The data from some students’ writing revealed that the use of English relative clause by the English education department students is not really good. As a whole, the results reveals that the most problematic is missing *be* in passive, agreement with the previous modified, fragment sentence, the inappropriate choice of pronoun, and the ignorance of clause reduction. These problems were caused by many factors that appear on student’s writing.

From the three sub-components determined, namely, relative clauses with relative pronoun (relator) as the replacement of subject, replacement of object, and sentential modifier, the data of students’ writing assignments show the most amount of relative clauses found in the complex sentences is 9 (in 1 writing assignment) and the least is 1 (in 5 writing assignments). In relation to adjectival function of relative clauses, there are two functions focussed, that is nominal and sentential modifiers. From the data analysis, it is found that the appropriateness of the use of relative clause mostly ranges from 56-100%). The data of adjectival function got from 41 pieces of writing show that the appropriateness of 23 short essays are spread in the level of *very good* (81-100%), *good* (66-80%), and *moderate* (56-65%), while 18 pieces are in the level of *poor* and *very poor*.

The relative clauses found in the students’ writing assignments consist of restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. To determine these clauses, the contextual meanings and the forms are analysed based on the indicators of the importance of the clauses.

Basically, restrictive clauses have the order of Subject-Verb preceded by relative pronoun as relator which functions to modify the noun phrase attached to the clause within complex sentences. From 42 pieces of writing, there are 147 restrictive relative clauses raised, 111 of which are in subject replacement clauses and 36 are object replacement clause constructions. The data show that several restrictive clauses are not used appropriately. There are problems related to basic sentence patterns and choices of words. Here, the analysis is more on the sentence patterns. The following is the sample of data that can be accepted in written communicataion.

(12) *One of the country which is located in Sumatra is Padang.*

(13) *The traditional food that we can find in Singkarak is Pangek Bilih or ...*

All clauses have fulfilled the rules of relative clause that is *Relator + S + VP*. In data 4.1, *which* has two functions, as relator and automatically as the subject of the verb phrase, *is located in Sumatera*. This is subject replacement relative clause. The object replacement relative clauses in data 4.2 has relator *that* with the subject of *we*. In relation to the rules of restrictive clause used, the relative clauses within two sentences above may be accepted as
the appropriate ones. Since the antecedents the country, and the traditional food, of those relative clauses need further information in order to make sure their specific indicator, these clauses are called restrictive. So, readers do not have questions in their mind which country, food, you mean. No commas are used after their antecedent or before relator. However, the word cities will be more appropriate instead of country as the antecedent of the relative clause.

In other sentences of writing assignments, these are the sample of restrictive relative clauses written as the representatives.

(14) Padang city also has many mosques which all of are very beautiful.
(15) Masilok island is a island which in Mentawai island at West Sumatra.

Those data have the problems in their use. In datum 14, for instance, the use of relative pronoun does not show the appropriate rule. The preposition complement functioning as adverbial in which all of does not show the word order. The clause should be cured to become .... many mosques (all of which are very beautiful. Furthermore, datum 4.6 has the problem of missing verb of relative clause. The relator which that also functions as the subject should be followed by its verb. Thus, the construction should be which is in Mentawai island... (having copulative is). It is also the problem with it antecedent, the use of article an in an island.

Concerning non-restrictive clauses, there are 36 items emerged in students’ essay writing assignment. These are mostly with problems, ranging from the problems that can be ignored to serious problems. The followings are the sample of non-restrictive clauses gained from the source.

(16) The first place that you will see in journey to Silokek is Pasir Putih, that will make the beautiful scenery, ....
(17) This is the area for you who love hiking.

From the four non-restrictive clauses presented, in data 16, and 17, the NPs (proper nouns) Masjid Raya Sumbar, Pasir Putih are followed by relators whose, and that. As a matter of fact, relator that cannot be used in non-restrictive clauses. Pronoun you as the antecedent of who love hiking is already definite and clear to be identified. Thus, comma should precede relator. They can be revised as

16a .... to Silokek is Pasir Putih, which will make the beautiful scenery, ....
17a This is the area for you, who love hiking.

In complex sentences, the antecedent of the relative clause is not only the noun phrase in any position (subject, object, complement), but may also be the matrix clause or any
discourse that is regarded as single noun phrase. Commonly, the use of comma after the matrix clause is an indicator of this modifier. Nevertheless, in the sample data, there still appear without commas as it emerged in a few relative clauses. The followings picture out the use of those sentential modifiers.

(18) *Indonesia has many beautiful places* that makes people from the other country often come.

(19) *We can walk over the shore* which makes us happy and enjoy.

The data above have been classified into sentential modifiers after the understandings of the essay are analysed deeply due to their lack vocabulary used. The whole understanding of matrix clause of Datum (18) is modified by the underlined relative clause. Beside the absence of comma, relator that should be replaced by which, such as .., *which makes people from the other country often come.*

The types of relative clause is indicated by the function of relator used in that clause. There are two functions of relator discussed in this study, that is as the subject replacement and object replacement. The relators used in the relative clauses of the essays are only four kinds and not varied. They appear with respectively the highest frequency to the lowest, namely which, that, who, and where. Most of them appear in the type of subject replacement. The choice does not indicate the appropriate use.

Most of relative clauses found in students essay writing are subject replacement type. There are 149 clauses written with the pattern of subject replacement type. By and large, the clauses have followed the pattern of Rel./S +VP. Nevertheless, some appear with various grammatical problems. The portrait of their clauses can be seen in the following sample.

(20) *From the main gate, you will see the logo “Welcome to Silokek” which was written by local society.*

(21) *This is a good place that can be visited by in your vacation.*

(22) *Jam Gadang which is located in center of Bukittinggi.*

The relators of relative clauses in complex sentences above (which and that), have two functions, namely as relators of the their antecedents as well as subjects of their clauses. In datum (20), which has the antecedent Welcome to Silokek (proper noun) that should be followed by comma before its relative pronoun.

Datum (21) is likely having appropriate use of relative clause with subject replacement type. In spite of having the matrix clause, datum (22) only consists of the noun phrase with relative clause showing subject replacement as its modifier. This should be classified as the fragment, as the problem of the grammar use.
Unlike the existence of subject replacement type of relative clause in students’ essays, the object replacement type only appears in a few numbers, namely 38 clauses, and most of them are restrictive clauses. Let us see the analysis of the data gained as follows.

(23) I have pretty hometown that I called Padang city.
(24) ...., selling various type of local snacks which I bet you would love to try.
(25) Some tourists do even visit the stones, on which some small living trees grow, just to take pictures.

As it is seen in four data above, all of the relative clauses are used appropriately with the pattern of Rel + S+VP. In data (23) and (24), that and which are used as the relators referring to the antecedent, pretty hometown, and various type of local snacks. In datum 25, on which is the relative pronoun as an object of preposition.

Beside the two types of relative clauses, there is also relative adverb which has similar pattern with the two types. It also arises the use of which, where and on which in the clauses. As a whole, the use of clauses can be understood by the readers. Meanwhile, a few grammatical and lexical case also appear. One can be noticed in the following.

(26) Batam not only have beaches, it also many malls which we can shop there.

The antecedent of the relator is the adverb as the complement in the matrix clause. The clause in datum (26) has which to refer to many malls. However, relator which should be preceded by on (on which) to show place, and adverb there that also refers to many malls in the clause should be omitted in order to avoid the redundant use of referent. It may be changed into

26a .....it also has many malls on which we can shop.

The lexical problem related to word choice is also found in some constructions

Discussion

The existence of relative clause in a language is not without a reason. Sarilar (2015: 175) reiterates that “language has evolved complex syntactic structures that permit speakers to identify the referent even in the most challenging situation [whereby] relative clauses exemplify such structures, serving the function of augmenting nouns with additional information presumed important for identification. With this in mind, students of English are supposed to know how to construct and use it. However, regardless of its importance, the frequency of the use of embedded clauses, especially relative clause, is noticeably low in students’ writing with only one containing nine complex sentences while the rest only sported maximum one complex sentence. Further investigation revealed that the appropriate
use of relative clause in students’ writing was generally moderate. This finding clearly shows that problems in the use of relative do exist.

As a matter of fact, the condition of the students’ average ability in using relative clauses with adjectival function can be seen from two components, namely as noun modifier within restrictive and non-restrictive clauses; and sentential modifier. Seemingly, English restrictive clauses are mostly used in the short essay by the students. It can be understood that any general noun should be explained to get the specific meaning of the sentence or discourse. This idea is in line with Berk (1999:265) that the function of restrictive clause is to limit the meaning on the noun phrase modified. Nevertheless, the use is not yet what is expected. In restrictive clauses, the relative pronoun (relator) used does not refer to its antecedent, like using relator when referring to the place. Another case is the absence of verb in the relative clause as well as inappropriate word order. These are all related to their lack grammatical knowledge. Related to this, Lay, et. al (2003) has the same opinion, that is students in their English essay writing, got the problem with using appropriate word order in English.

Unawareness on the particular system or rule exists in English language component often appears in students’ writing assignment. This is deemed impossible since learners not only cognitively threatened by the unconscious error made repetitively but also by the type of mistakes caused by the learner’s incapability in utilizing the known language system correctly. The rule of having relative pronoun/adverb, such as (who, whom, whose, that, which, or when and where) before the clause may also a hard work for them. The redundant use of related pronoun with its antecedent also occurred.

Related to non-restrictive clauses, the main indicator is using comma(s) punctuation mark to show that the modifying clause is only an extra information of the antecedent. Not more sentences use this type. Neda (2012: 9) states that many students have problems or confusion in using question mark, colon or semicolon, commas, and apostrophes while writing essays. It is probably because few specified antecedents to be placed in their complex sentences of their short essays. However, the use of relative pronouns for the identified non-restrictive clauses are not even correct. The use of pronoun that is often used instead of which or whom.

In using relative pronoun and adverb is lack of students’ understanding in using pronouns itself. The students get problems when the use of various relative pronoun or adverb and what noun they modify. Because of that, three types of errors occur during constructing relative clauses namely: omission of relative pronoun, substitution of relative pronoun and addition of pronoun subject. Beside that, the use of quantity adjective clauses is also serious problem of the students. As Azar (2011) states there are six possible problems
with adjective clauses. First, and adjective clause must be together with another complete sentence. There needs to be two subjects and two verbs. Second, the adjective clause must have a subject and a complete verb. Third, we cannot use an adjective to describe a pronoun. Fourth, do not repeat a pronoun with an adjective clause. Fifth, the adjective clause must be just after the noun it describes.

Conclusion and Suggestion

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that generally, the use of students’ English relative clauses with adjectival function used in students’ essay writing assignment are not satisfying. The appropriateness is in average level. More problems about the basic order of the clauses are still shown up. The concordance between the clause and its antecedent are still noticed. The use of relative pronoun which and that takes the first position. The lack lexical use of concept on the relative pronouns makes the relative clauses appear slightly odd. And the appropriate use of those relative pronouns can not be accepted as expected.

Since the problems of the students in using relative clauses are mostly of the grammatical components, in the English language learning, the syllabus designer should notify the mentioned levels of linguistic components while constructing English instructional materials, methods, and evaluation based on the stage of learners. Nevertheless, the varieties of English existed and the changes in particular elements of the language may appear and they result misunderstanding. In this case, English instructors/teachers should also update their linguistic competence, especially on using complex sentences in any materials written.

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Title
Personal Awareness: Teaching English to Students with Difficulties

Author
Ida Ayu Mela Tustiawati
STIBA SARASWATI
melvi.tustiawati@gmail.com

About the Author
Mela Tustiawati received her degree in English Education from Mahasaraswati University in 2013. She taught English at an educational institution in Bali before continuing her study at the University of Tasmania. In 2015 she gained her master degree in education concentrating on teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL).

Abstract
This article describes issues involving teaching English to students with learning difficulties, especially a student with Asperger syndrome. It begins with general perspectives of people and other teachers towards teaching autistic students and teachers who teach these ‘types’ of students. The article explores the writer’s experience in English teaching and learning in an exclusive one to one teaching and learning set up, and the writer’s awareness of inclusive and special needs education for students with difficulties. It discusses aspects of English teaching and learning situations, in particular the understanding of teaching approaches. Using two case studies, it explains how the writer dealt with English teaching approaches, materials, delivery methods, and students’ learning problems which include lack of numerical and linguistic skills, and social communication issues. Finally, the writer’s reflections on the matter are also provided.

Keywords: English teaching, students with learning difficulties, special needs education, teaching approaches
Introduction

After becoming an English teacher for a student with special needs, I started to question everything that I learnt as a pre-service teacher and everything that I have to face as a teacher. The job comes with comments and remarks from others. Some are positive and some are not. Thus, I would like to revisit my encounters with special needs students through self investigation and reflection. I believe this narration provides a different perspective on English teaching in general and English teaching to student with learning difficulties in Indonesia. Furthermore, it provides an explanation that may clarify misunderstandings and misconceptions that surround education for special needs students and offers a new understanding about general and special needs teachers.

This article consists of two case studies that illustrate my encounters with two special needs students and how I have and have not managed to teach English to these types of students, as well as exploring the issues that I have to face as a general teacher. The article is designed as a self-interrogation which can be read as one of the examples of narrative enquiry.

Case Study One

After becoming a qualified teacher, I received my first teaching job as an English teacher in one of the Bimbingan Belajar (BIMBEL) – a tutorial institution that provides extra classes for students who have difficulty learning the school subjects. This job required me to understand student enrolment and placement procedures. Being part of this processes made me realise that the education system in Indonesia separates students based on two categories, regular and special needs students. The students who are considered to be in the same category will be put together and those who do not belong to the category will be excluded from the system. For the first time I was aware that the system does not provide any room for mixing regular and special needs students.

It was during this period that I first met a student with special needs. She was about eight years old and was a student in one of the government schools (public schools) in Bali and supposed to be in grade two elementary level. Due to her disruptive behaviour and lack of academic development she had had to repeat another year as a grade one student.

Looking back now, my first case with a special needs student was unsuccessful. There were many issues that could not be solved easily, as follows:

- Limited information about her medical condition
- Minimum data on her academic and non-academic skills
- Lack of ability to write and read
- Social behaviour issues
- Lack of support from parents
- Class management issues
- Lack of expert opinion on the issues

As a result it was hard to decide on her class level, especially when she was the only student in this situation. I tried to seek information from her parents but there was no clear answer from them. It was as if the parents did not know her real condition. From discussion with her parents I found that their main concern was for their daughter to be able to make friends and mingle with the other students. Her academic progress was not their priority. In the end she was put in the same level as grade one students.

Not long after her first class in the institution, I received many complaints from the other parents saying that the girl disturbed their children, the girl was not “normal” so they did not want their children to be put together with her, etc. When I entered the classroom, I found that the girl showed some distinctive behaviour as follows:

- She liked disturbing others using a pencil to poke them
- She liked walking around the classroom to check on what her friends were doing
- Her restless behaviour made the other students felt uncomfortable and scared of her.
- She did not want to follow the teachers’ instruction
- She did not participate in the class activities
- She could not stay focused for very long

After the third week (the third meeting for grade one) the girl did not come again. She left the institution before I could understand her situation and before I could help her as a teacher.

This meeting led to my interest in these types of students and the education system in general. I felt frustrated at myself for not being able to do anything for this particular student and for not being able to provide a good explanation to the other parents so they could grasp the whole situation and try to understand. I realised that as a teacher I did not have any understanding of these types of students.
Case Study Two

Two years after my first encounter I had another chance to meet a student with difficulties. He is diagnosed with Asperger syndrome. He went to a general elementary school and had been taught privately after graduating from the school. In this encounter, I was given as much information as possible regarding his academic and social development, his characteristics, his behaviour towards his surroundings, his routines and other resources about his condition by the parents. This situation was the trigger that made me start looking for more information about this topic.

After doing some research on Asperger syndrome, I found that there are many opinions about this issue. Some experts say that Asperger syndrome is another form of autism, others say that it is similar to autism but shows aspects that can be considered quite different from autism. A resource guide for schools provided by the British Columbia, Ministry of Education (2000) mentions some common characteristics of people with Asperger syndrome which are also described in an earlier article written by Karen Williams in 1995 as follows:

- Insistence on sameness
- Impairment in social interaction
- Restricted range of interest
- Poor concentration
- Poor motor condition
- Academic difficulties
- Emotional vulnerability

I found that my special needs student possesses similar characteristics to those mentioned above. Due to my lack of confidence, I was given time to understand their son’s condition before meeting him in person. The parents were willing to have discussions with me as needed. As a result, when I finally met him I had some understanding about what to do and how to react to his actions. Although I was still feeling uncomfortable and shocked I felt more confident.

I used my first meeting to get to know my special needs student and to try to identify his abilities and what I could do to help him. My lack of experience and understanding of the situation made me miscalculate the time needed to get to know him. I thought it would be similar to what I needed to get to know my regular students. Compared with regular students the time needed for a certain activity to be completed for special needs students is longer.
Instead of one meeting for introduction and getting to know the student, I ended up with a month of trials and errors.

The following were things that I found during my first month (twelve meetings of two hours each) teaching my special needs student:

- Unwilling to study
- Tended to touch people regardless of their gender
- When using English, follows the grammatical construct for Bahasa Indonesia rather than the English grammatical construct
- Lack of understanding about how to make conversation (one way conversation only)
- Liked to move around
- Screeching and high pitch sound influenced his emotion and mood
- Good ability and understanding of electrical systems
- Inability to write properly due to some issues with the nervous system
- Had difficulty in differentiating some letters of the alphabet
- Had difficulty in counting numbers in order
- Had issues with meeting new people and being in a crowded place
- Rapid mood swings

This was only half of the situation. I realized that I could not expect the same thing from my regular and special needs students. I had to adjust my plans almost all the time in order to make the teaching and learning process work.

Unlike regular schools where teachers are provided with curriculum and syllabus to assist them in preparing their teaching and learning plans, for my special needs student, I had to conduct my own needs analysis before designing the topics and activities that might be appropriate for him. This process also required many trials and errors before finalizing the topics and possible activities that could be done.

What I felt then was frustration and despair; I might not be able to find anything, things might not work well and I didn’t know what to do next. But after a couple of trials and discussions with the parents, I was able to map things that I needed to introduce to him. It was then that I thought that having a curriculum and syllabus prepared for you was a fortunate thing to have as a teacher.

Working with a student with Asperger syndrome, I need to be exact about everything. What helps me the most when I cannot handle his tantrum is by making an agreement. There was time when he refused to move from his seat in the living room to his study area. Forcing
him with words and rewards did not work, so I showed him my watch and made an agreement that after a couple of minutes he needed to move and study. Once he agrees to it, he will do it.

Compared to regular students, my special needs student has a very tolerant attitude towards things that he likes but he is not able to stay focused if things are not to his interest. Dividing materials into small pieces and conducting activities in shorter periods helps me maintaining his focus.

I also find that I have to accustom myself to his rapid change in mood. It takes time but it is important, especially when starting a new lesson. If he is in a bad mood and our lesson does not attract his attention, it will be a disaster throughout the session. As with other students prizes and acknowledgements work well for these types of students.

**Issues Surrounding Education for Special Needs Students**

Teaching English to a student with special needs opened a new door to my professional understanding as a teacher. At first, I thought that teaching and learning processes for students with learning difficulties and regular students would be quite different. There are indeed some distinctive features but in general things are conducted in a similar way.

As a teacher for both special needs and regular students, I am able to compare the different situations and issues surrounding these environments. It appears that what teachers, parents and public in general know about students with special needs is quite limited. There is an information gap about these issues which results in many misconceptions about students with special needs.

With my first case I could not find reliable sources and experts who could provide information about these types of students. Both the parents and I had our own assumptions about special needs students which I realized later were quite untrue.

A similar situation happened during my second encounter. The first time I told my family and colleagues about being a teacher for a special needs student I received quite shocking responses. Generally their ideas about students with special needs are that they are inferior, they will always need assistance throughout their life and are very dependent on others. It is clear that even after two years, there is still a lack of information about these types of students. People are left with their own assumptions without any clear explanation about the issues. Without realising it we may be unfair to children who have difficulties and may hurt their feelings unknowingly.
No information is given to regular (mainstream) teachers about special needs students. Practicing teachers do not have any information about this topic which makes them quite reluctant to teach these types of students. When I say to my friends and colleagues that I teach a special needs student they do not believe me. Their ideas about the education system are that regular teachers should only teach regular students and we should leave the education of special needs students to professionals who are qualified for the job. Even though there are a number of regular teachers who want to get involved in the education of special needs students, they do not have enough information that will support them, thus they do not know where to start.

Unlike other countries that have gradually moved the education policy of special needs students from exclusive teaching and learning environments to inclusive teaching and learning systems, it is quite different in Indonesia. It is hard to find schools that admit special needs students and apply an inclusive teaching and learning system. Furthermore, separation in the education system for these types of students is supported legally by the UURI no 20 tahun 2013 – the Indonesian Law number 20 year 2013 that special education is conducted for students who have difficulties due to physical, emotional, social issues, and or having a special talent and intelligence (translated from Bahasa Indonesia). Despite the value of this system, I believe that it is one of the reasons that makes society think that separation is the best option for regular and special needs students. There is no way that students with special needs can study together with regular students. Therefore, they believe special schools and special teachers for these types of students are necessary.

Lack of teaching materials to support teaching and learning process for special needs students is also one of the issues that I face. It is hard to find books and other resources especially for teaching English. Thus, I need to continuously create and modify my own teaching and learning materials to accommodate my special needs student; even though it requires so much time and preparation.

**Concluding Reflections**

What have I learned after questioning myself about my encounters with special needs students?

Lack of awareness and understanding of the people and teachers towards children with difficulties influences how we treat them. As a result, there are misunderstandings and misconceptions about special needs students in society. My inability as a teacher to know and understand these types of students hindered me from helping them as a teacher.
Parents’ cooperation is one of the keys to educating teachers and society about students with special needs. Parents are the first source of information on the students’ condition so that the teachers will be able to help them accordingly.

Prior understanding or background information about students with special needs may also need to be incorporated into the education system for pre-service teachers so that when they graduate, they will at least have general information about things that they may have to face in society. It will also give different perspectives on the development of education for students with special needs, so that not only special needs teachers can teach these types of students, but regular teachers can also take part in the process. It means that we may be able to less the burden that the special needs teachers carry.

Finally my experience working with regular and special needs students makes me realise that there is not much difference in the way we teach them. The most important thing is that we as teachers need to be able to adjust our teaching and learning procedures to accommodate our students’ ways of learning.

References
Title
The Student’s Academic Speaking Skill Achievement in terms of Communication,
Personality and Gender

Author
Ikhfi Imaniah
iqvee.sorrow@gmail.com

English Education Department Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang

Nurul Fitria Kumala Dewi
Early Childhood Education Department Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang
nurulfitraria.purbo@yahoo.com

Bio-Profiles:
Ikhfi Imaniah is a secretary of English Education Study Program and lecturer at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang, Indonesia. She is a candidate doctor of State University of Jakarta. She is interested in language skills, language acquisition, young learners, teaching methodology and technique, psycholinguistics and gender.

Nurul Fitria Kumala Dewi is a lecturer at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang. She is a psychologist. She graduated her master at psychology faculty of Gajah Mada University. She is interested in young learner’s education and psychology.

Abstract
The aim of the research is to analyze the correlation of student’s communication, student’s personality, and gender on their academic speaking skill achievement. In relation to men and women, the most basic stereotypical expectation is simply that they will be different rather than the same. Here, the researchers observe and analyze the student’s academic
speaking skill in term of communication, personality and gender whether there is significant correlation on them or not. The data that the researchers gathered in this research are questionnaires and test. The questionnaires were taken to analyze the level of student’s communication and their personality. The questionnaires consist of 55 questions which relevant with men and women communication and personality. The samples that the researchers used were 46 students (26 of women and 20 of men). The student’s communication skill was in high and middle level of communication. Based on the type of student’s personality, there were two types of personality; extrovert and introvert (adapted from Eysenck Personality Questionnaire). The last data was taken from student’s academic speaking test. Furthermore, the correlation between gender and student’s communication skill was -0.004 (<0.05), student’s personality and their communication skill at significant level of 0.100 (>0.05) and student’s personality and gender at significant level of 0.145 (>0.05), it means there was no significant correlation between student’s communication, student’s personality, and gender on their academic speaking skill achievement. In sum up, it can be said that student’s personality and gender will not affect their communication skill.

**Keywords:** Communication, Gender, and Personality.

**Literature Review**

Before pointing out the differences in men and women during communication, their stages of development are critical in understanding the various forms of communication. The first perceptions of communication begin before the ability to speak. As young children observe the actions of others which help them identify who they are. Wood (2011) states that, “we are born into a gendered society that guides our understanding of gender and shapes our personal gendered identities” (p. 160). At a young age, children begin to form ideas about who they are and how they are supposed to act based on their observations. Wood discusses the idea of self-as-object, or the ability to think about, reflect upon, and respond to ourselves as well as the monitoring what takes place inside of us as we observe and regulate our attitudes and behaviors. These observations, paired with societal gender norms, shape that we become and how we perceive ourselves.

Wood (2011) explains that men and women grow in different gender speech communities and, thus, develop different communication styles. Wood stated, “a speech community exists when people share understandings about goals of communication, strategies for enacting those goals, and ways of interpreting communication” (p. 125). In
short, people communicate in different ways. It depends on a lot of things, where people are from, how and where people were brought up, the educational background, the age, and it also can depend on gender.

Even highly confident, accomplished women temper their speech, often by adding a qualifier to take the edge off an expression of power; and defer, often without being aware of it, to men. Women who are otherwise liberated and articulate can be heard uttering inanities like “Oh, really” and “How fascinating” in support of a man in mid narrative. They will nod their heads, smile a lot, assume sympathetic expressions and, most important, keep their gaze fixed unwaveringly on the speaker’s face. Moreover, according to Wood, women also “sustain conversation by inviting others to speak and by prompting them to elaborate their ideas” in a speech style known as “maintenance work” (p.129).

In contrast, Newman et al. (2008) discussed the similarities between man and women in communication. He said that “contrary to popular stereotypes, men and women were distinguishable in their references to sexuality, anger, time, their use of first-person plural, the number of words and question marks employed, and the insertion of qualifiers in the form of exclusion words (e.g., but, although)” (p.229).

Based on the discussion between men and women differences and similarities in communication, the researchers would like to discuss the academic speaking skill achievement in term of communication, personality and gender. In this case, the discussion focused on students of Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang. Here, college students as young people who will be in control to develop the nation; they should be capable of being a superior human to compete with others. So that the students should have a mentally healthy that will do his duties later.

According to Atkinson (2004), personality is a pattern of behavior and ways of thinking which determines the individual adjustment to the environment. Personality can also develop into a more internal, something relatively permanent guiding, directing, and organizing daily activities of individuals (Alwisol, 2004). In short, it can conclude that the personality regarding individual differences that distinguish one individual from another individual which is durable, not easy to change throughout life. Personality is also a pattern of behavior and ways of thinking that is typical, which determines the individual adjustment to the environment that will be revealed through the behavior in the social environment. Hans J. Eyseck describes a theory of personality; extrovert and introvert to suggest differences in the reactions to the environment and in social behavior. This type of personality describes the uniqueness of the individual in behavior to the stimulus as the
embodiment of character; temperament, physical, and intellectual adjust to the environment. Moreover, Jung explains extrovert individuals affected by the objective world, the world outside him. The orientation was particularly drawn out, thoughts, feelings, and actions mainly determined by the environment, either social or non-social environment, a positive attitude towards people, his heart was open, sociable, and connected with others.

Introvert individuals affected by the subjective world, a world in it. The orientation focused on thoughts, feelings, and actions mainly determined by subjective factors, the adjustment to the outside world are less prolific, his soul is closed, difficult to get along, it is difficult to connect to others, and do not able to attract other attention. Kirmayer (2004) describes individuals with introvert personality will tend to have problems for themselves in the future. Consequently, if facing a problem they are reluctant to reveal to others, and eventually become a problem piles.

Methodology

The research method used was a causal relationship in path analysis, where researchers can manipulate the variables treatment and then study the effect on the criterion variable (Kadir, 2015: 241). In this case, the researchers need to control conditionally to the variables that are not relevant for the results obtained in the variable criterion is believed to be caused by the manipulated variable. The research samples were 55 students consisting of 25 female students and 20 male students.

Findings and Discussion

The results of the questionnaire said that the student’s ability to communicate were in the middle level, which means a student has average ability to communicate; while the personality types were extroverts and introverts (based on a questionnaire adopted from Eyseck). Then the test results stated that the relationship between gender and communication skills of the students were at -0.004 significance value (<0.05), the relationship between personality type and communication skills of students by 0.100 students (> 0.05), and the relationship between personality type and gender of students with a value of 0.145 (> 0.05). In other words, the results of the study did not show any significant difference between the achievement of students’ speaking skills with the type of introvert and extrovert personality, student’s academic speaking skill achievement with communication skills, as well as academic speaking skill achievement with gender. Results of the analysis show no differences in academic speaking skill achievement, both in terms of the type of personality,
communication skills, and gender. Rejection of the hypothesis can be caused by several factors, both technical and conceptual nature. Technically, it can be evaluated from measuring the instrument, the students, and the research design. Measuring the instruments used to note the extent to which the measuring instrument can distinguish the individual personality types in the introvert and extrovert personality types. Other limitations include the implementation of incidental research data; consequently the researchers cannot control it. In short, the students do not answer the questions which reflect the situation themselves. Theoretically it can be explained that the results show no significant difference between the achievements of academic speaking skills with a personality type. This is because the personality is not the only factor in student academic speaking skills achievement. Academic speaking skills achievement if the terms of sex between male and female students show no significant difference. Probably, due to the stereotypes that exist in society to men and women who began in line with gender balance. So, in terms of the nature that man is masculine, with the characteristics of handsome, mighty, and rational, while women who rated more feminine by nature gentle, emotional, affectionate. Differences of masculinity and femininity effect on the scope of activity, type of work, consequences of work and an appreciation of the work (Kusumaningtyas 2006 in Annisah, 2007).

Communication for individual has several functions, namely:

1. The function of emotion, communication through individual can express his emotions and feelings, and meet social needs.
2. The functions of information, decision-making depends on the quality and quantity of information. Communication provides the information needed to identify individuals to recognize problems, conclude and take decisions.
3. The function of motivation, with communication individual can understand, coordinate the actions themselves, motivate and devise a strategy to achieve the goal of self.
4. The control function, as a control individual behavior.

Communication has the principal function to convey a message or information from one individual to another. Those functions are very important to build understanding among individuals as well as the function to express his emotions, meet social needs, and motivate each other.

The aspects of communication consist of four sections (Johnson, 1991). Whereas in the process of the fourth aspect of communication cannot be separated from one another. Communication aspects, namely;
1. Aspects of sending a message; is a person’s ability to convey information or message both verbally and nonverbally to others.

2. Aspect received the message; include the ability to receive information or message sent others as a communicator. The examples of this aspect are the ability to hear, capture nonverbal languages, and the meaning of an information or message.

3. Aspects of asking for feedback; namely the ability to ask for feedback from those who sent information or messages. Request feedback can be done verbally is asked directly, or are nonverbal by using body language.

4. Aspects of giving feedback; is the ability to provide feedback on the message or information received. It is useful to convey that information has been received and also to equate the notion of messages sent.

Good communication can improve interpersonal relationships which should have three factors in it, namely trust (believe), supportiveness (supportive attitude), and open-mindedness (openness). Believe will determine the effectiveness of communication; it gained from the trust. First, believe will improve interpersonal communication as open channels of communication, clarifying the sending and receiving of information, as well as expanding opportunities to reach the point communicant. If you do not want to disclose how your feelings and thoughts, so people would not understand who you really are. One interpersonal perception about yourself will be disrupted. People may have the wrong interpretation about you. Without trust there will be no understanding. Without understanding the primary communication failure occurs. Second, the lack of trust in others will hinder the development of interpersonal relationships that are familiar. If you feel your friend is not honest and open, you will give the same response. As a result, the relationship will take place in shallow and deep. Familiarity only happens, if we all are willing to express their feelings and thoughts. Clearly, without trust there will be a secondary communication failure. Supportive attitudes will reduce defensiveness in communication. As a result of interpersonal communication failure occurs. And result in the failure to create good interpersonal relationships. Openness brings great influence in the growth of effective interpersonal communication.

Conclusions

Based on the results of the study did not show any significant differences between the achievements of academic speaking skills of students with introverted or extroverted personality types, achievement of academic speaking skills with communication skills, as well as academic speaking skills achievement with gender. Results of the analysis show no
differences in academic speaking skills achievement, both in terms of the type of personality, communication skills, and gender. Rejection of the hypothesis can be caused by several factors, both technical and conceptual nature. Technically, it can be evaluated from the measuring instrument, the students, and research design. Measuring instruments used to note the extent to which the measuring instrument can distinguish the individual personality types in the introvert and extrovert personality types. Other limitations include the implementation of incidental research data; consequently the researchers cannot control it. In short, the students do not answer the questions which reflect the situation themselves.

References


Title
School-Based EFL Curriculum Implementation in Indonesian Primary Schools:
A Perspective of Bernstein’s Pedagogic Device

Author
Iskandar, M.Ed., Ph.D
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Iskandar is a senior lecturer at English Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. He has been teaching EFL since 1994. His areas of interest include EFL curriculum policy and implementation, and materials development in ELT. He has a Ph.D from Curtin University, Australia. He can be reached at iskandar@unm.ac.id.

Abstract
Despite the emergent of the Indonesian 2013 curriculum, the 2006 curriculum which is widely known as KTSP is still implemented nationwide. This qualitative study was aimed at investigating Indonesian primary EFL teachers’ understanding of and attitude towards the Indonesian National Standards of Education (NS) which comprise of Content Standards (CS), Process Standards (PS), and Graduate Competency Standards (GCS) as frameworks for constructing KTSP. The NS contains only general curriculum guidelines for all school subjects from primary to secondary schools. Teachers’ understanding of and attitudes towards the NS determine the way they interpret and translate the policies of the standards into their specific school contexts. By employing ethnographic interviewing technique, the study revealed that teachers have sufficient knowledge of the underpinning principles and the features of the NS. In terms of attitudes, the study showed that most teachers adhered to the NS; yet by two distinctive reasons: interactive and coercive. Some others preferred adaptation, and yet a few of them articulated their incompatibility with the NS. Through classroom observation, practice of adaptation was evident. Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic device signifies these teachers’ adaptation to the NS as an act of recontextualization.
Key Words: KTSP, teachers’ understandings, teachers’ attitudes, Bernstein’s pedagogic device

Introduction

Current Indonesian curriculum policy adopts the notion of partnership (Kirk & MacDonald, 2001); advocating the integration of top-down and bottom-up strategies of innovation. This new genre of curriculum policy is established through the effectuation of National Standards of Education (NS) which contain only general curriculum guidelines for school subjects from primary to secondary schools. Teachers need to have an understanding of what is intended by the NS when they construct their school-based curriculum which is known as KTSP. Teachers’ attitudes is another factor that influences the success of innovation (Ghaith & Yaghi, 1997; Kennedy & Kennedy, 1996; Markee, 1993). If teachers’ views are incompatible with an innovation, it is likely that they will be resistant to it (Brown, 1980; Haney, Czerniak, & Lumpe, 1996; Levitt, 2001). In terms of the NS, teachers’ resistance means they may not use the NS as their guideline in constructing their KTSP. These two factors, among others, determine the way they interpret and translate the policies of the standards into their specific contexts. This study was aimed at investigating primary EFL teachers’ understanding of and attitudes towards the NS as the framework for the making of their KTSP in South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia.

Literature Review

Research has revealed that the way curriculum is implemented does not always reflect what curriculum designers intended (Smith & Southerland, 2007). Among the factors that make it difficult to implement curriculum innovation are teachers’ understandings, their background training or educational background, lack of guidance, and the influence of textbooks. Of these factors, teachers’ understandings play a significant role in the degree of implementation of innovation. Cheung and Wong (2012) in their study also found that one of factors affecting the implementation of curriculum reform in Hong Kong is the inadequate teachers’ understanding of the reform (p. 39). Carless (1998) advocated that in order for teachers to successfully implement an innovation, they need to understand both the theoretical principles and the classroom application of that innovation.

Teachers’ attitudes may also impact on the implementation of innovation. According to Kennedy and Kennedy (1996, p. 351), the implementation of change in classrooms requires changes in both teacher and student behaviour. Teachers’ attitudes play a part in this
behaviour (Carless, 1998). When their attitudes are compatible with a proposed innovation, the implementation of the innovation is likely to harvest a positive result. Ultimately, teachers determine the fate of a curriculum innovation (Ball, 1994). Teachers’ view about curriculum regulates their practice, and will affect how they decide the content of curriculum (Kable, 2001).

Conceptual Framework

In Indonesian context, the nature of political discourse can be exemplified by who has authority to make curriculum policy, for what intention, and under what conditions. Two sets of actors are involved in this respect, government officials/agents and individual teachers/group of teachers. Each of these sides use their power to control the curriculum implementation by selecting the contents of subjects, sequencing knowledge based on their expertise, managing the instruction, and imposing pedagogic strategy in the classroom. To illuminate the practice of such curriculum implementation, Bernstein’s theoretical framework, the pedagogic device (1990, 1996, 2000), was adopted in this study.

According to Bernstein (1996), there are three sets of hierarchical rules that govern school instruction, namely distributive, recontextualizing, and evaluative (cited in Wright & Froehlich, 2012, p. 215). Distributive rules generate knowledge standards. In the context of this study, knowledge standardization is conducted by setting the NS to be used by teachers in constructing their KTSP. At this stage, the main actors are the government officials or agents. Recontextualizing rules is the derivation of the distributive rules in which knowledge standards represented by the NS is connected to its transmission through classroom interactions. Therefore, the NS is removed from its original form and turned into another form: the school-based curriculum for English subject at school. Teachers are the actors at this stage. Evaluative rules operate at two sides of actors. At government’s side, the evaluative rules are employed by revising the NS and or by making additional curricular choices. At teachers’ side, the evaluative rules are employed by highlighting what is or is not worthy for students to learn. Therefore, it is anticipated that teachers may not decide the content of the curriculum equally in their pedagogic practice. In light with this kind of discourse, it is likely that ‘potential discursive gap’ (Bernstein, 1996, p.30) will take place.

Methods

This qualitative study employed ethnographic interviewing technique (Bauman & Adair, 1992), and classroom observation to collect data. Thematic analysis (Boyatzis, 1998)
was employed to analyse teachers’ responses to the interview questions, and has been categorized into themes. Classroom observation was aimed at finding evidence of what the teachers reported they practiced in their EFL teaching. The participants of the interview study were eleven primary EFL teachers of Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. Classroom observation involved other four primary EFL teachers from the province.

Findings

The interview revealed that teachers generally acknowledged the underpinning of the NS. Some teachers described some points that they believe to be parts of the principles underpinning the NS; that the NS is enacted through an active, creative, effective, and fun teaching learning process; that the NS suggests a multi strategy approach; that the curriculum set by the schools should integrate the national and regional potencies into the contents of their teaching materials. Of the substance of the NS, the CS containing standard of competencies and basic competencies were considered to be the most important by the majority of interviewed teachers. The reason was that teachers use them to construct a syllabus and develop their lesson plans. In terms of flexibility, the majority of teachers affirmed that the NS is flexible, which enables them to construct their school curriculum based on their school’s condition and environment. The majority of them, however, found that the framework is too general. This is not surprising, since the NS consists of three separate national standards: CS, PS, and GCS. This circumstance creates confusion for teachers. The interviewed teachers claimed that the competence standard as the basis for syllabus construction is too difficult for primary school students. They also claimed that the objectives set in the GCS are too difficult to achieve.

In terms of teachers’ attitudes, some of the interviewed teachers said the NS is good enough as a guideline for the construction of their school curriculum. They noted that the NS is informative, and very satisfactory. A few teachers argued that it is a must for them to refer to the NS, no matter how the shape of the NS is. Some other teachers accepted the NS to certain extent, particularly in relation to the standard of competencies and basic competencies. However, they said they need to adapt the NS in order to suit their students’ needs, and their school’s condition. They found that they have to use their creativity to modify the NS for the context of their teaching. Teachers also acknowledged that they need to lower the level of difficulty of the teaching objectives, and prepared teaching materials that are easy for their students. The majority of them affirmed that they combined the NS with their own school curriculum and advocated that it should be improved, and adapted it to be
more contextual to their classroom. Still, other teachers implied that they were not in favour of the NS. They did not construct their KTSP based on the NS. They used other resources. They argued that they know their students better than others do, so they understand what kind of materials were needed.

Discussion

Using the concept of Bernstein’s pedagogic device, it revealed that teachers have sufficient understanding of the distributive rules that the government has set in the NS. However, through their pedagogic discourse they have different attitudes in applying these rules into their classroom contexts. From their interaction with the NS as the distributive rules, most teachers viewed the NS as a comprehensive and informative reference; therefore they maintain their fidelity. Yet, few teachers from this fidelity group showed their adherence simply because they looked the NS as a must for teachers to refer to.

Some other teachers perceived that the NS as too wide-ranging; making it less specific. Therefore, as an act of recontextualizing, they adapt it to suit to the specific context of their classroom. This was evident in their pedagogic practice; such as lowering the level of difficulty of their teaching objectives, and applying methods appropriate with their students although these methods are not really compatible with CLT, the recommended approach in the NS for teaching EFL.

In terms of the incompatibility of some teachers with the NS, it has been anticipated that with this type of curriculum discourse, a ‘potential discursive gap’ (Bernstein, 1996) would likely to occur. In other words, this gap is the result of the teachers’ pedagogic discourse in which they see the NS not applicable in their classroom context, and that therefore they make they own school curriculum based on other resources.

Teachers’ application of the evaluative rules was demonstrated in the three stands above. The fidelity group adopted the NS as it is as they perceived it as well-constructed. The adaptive group did modification to suit to their school context. The incompatible group did not refer their KTSP to the NS. Such different practices should become input for the government to revise the NS in order to be practical to all teachers.

Conclusion

Bernstein’s (1990, 1996, 2000) theory of pedagogic device suggested that as policy implementation involves several actors at different level, there is always every possibility that the curriculum is not implemented as originally intended. Each actor has his/her own view
and it influences how he / she implements it, hence the actualized curriculum. Central to this is that teachers should have capability to recontextualize the NS into their specific classroom context. Apparently, primary EFL teachers of South Sulawesi in Indonesia have adequate competence in translating the NS into their KTSP construction, yet they vary in their pedagogic practice.

References


Cheung, A. C., & Wong, P. M. (2012). Factors affecting the implementation of curriculum reform in Hong Kong: Key findings from a large-scale survey study. *International Journal of Educational Management, 26*(1), 39-54.


Title
A Case Study of Improving the Speaking Ability of 5-Year-Old Child using Android Application

Author
Jelita F.S Napitupulu

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

In globalization era, awareness of the importance of English has had an impact on the needs of English language teaching, including to the young learners. Teaching English at an early age is commonly found. Particularly in Indonesia, most of the organizers of the program for early childhood education (ECD) and Kindergarten (TK) organize English language learning program for the learners. Kindergarten schools based montessori, or based a curriculum which adopts an international curriculum become great demand from the public. This phenomenon proves that the community is more trusted on the notion of the golden age, which is early childhood is the best period to absorb various things, including the ability to speak English.

Mastery of English in early childhood cannot be equated with adult. Teaching English for children is limited on vocabulary recognitions that are often encountered in their environment. English language acquisition as a foreign language cannot be compared with the English language acquisition in the context of English as a second language. In Indonesia, English is as a foreign language, not as a second language that is used every day after the mother tongue. Thus, the environment for supporting English language acquisition in early childhood is not commonly found in Indonesia.

In the context of foreign language teaching, Krashen (1982) distinguishes between the term acquire and learn. Acquire is a term that refers to the process of language acquisition naturally and unconsciously, as a result of exposure the language continuously. Meanwhile, learn is an explicit effort of someone to learn a foreign language. It means that there is awareness in the process of language acquisition. Typically, the process
of learning is used for adults. In the context of second language acquisition in early childhood, the acquire process is considered better than the learning process.

The improvement of foreign language knowledge in child’s cognitive system can be estimated by identifying the number of vocabulary already known, and the ability to use the language in communication. Especially, when child is talking, the sounds that are produced can be a picture of his/her understanding of foreign language. That is why the identification can be done based on two things: (1) children know the meaning of words that are uttered and (2) children can pronoun vocabulary. When children pronoun vocabulary and their interlocutor understand the meaning correctly, then the process of talking as communication occurs.

The vocabulary improvement can be done in various ways through reading, listening or watching. Along with the development of information and communication, the opportunity to gain exposure of English is also increasingly widespread. By internet access, videos using English language can be obtained quickly and easily. Applications based English language learning on devices such as Duolingo and English For Kid can be downloaded and played anytime. Hence, the writer was interested in studying the use of English learning application on Android-based devices.

The writer was interested in studying a 5 year-old-child who is the writer’s relative, so this research was a case study. The writer was interested in observing the development of English language proficiency of the child after he was given treatment in the form of exposure of English through English for Kid application that had downloaded on a device.

The English for Kid application was chosen because it was considered most appropriate to the needs of the subject as the user did not need to be able to read in using this application. The application consists of a collection of short animated videos containing daily conversation. The videos have duration between 1 to 30 minutes and are arranged based on a specific theme. In addition, the number of application downloads hit one million downloads, with the degree of user satisfaction 4.4/5 stars. Some testimonies from the users towards the application are also containing satisfied comments, so the writer is very sure to choose the application as a research instrument.
1.2. **Research Problems:**

Things that become the research problem in this research are as follows:

1. How does the influence of the use of the ‘Application’ to the vocabulary improvement of the child?
2. How does the influence of the use of Application to the improvement of speaking ability of the child?

1.3. **The objectives**

In accordance with the research problems, then the objectives of this paper is as follows:

1. Observing the vocabulary improvement of the 5-year-old child after having the treatment
2. Observing the improvement of speaking ability of the 5-year-old child after having the treatment

1.4. **The scope of the Study**

This research was a case study of 5-year-old child. This research focused on the vocabulary improvement of nouns and verbs, and measuring the improvement of speaking ability of the child to speak in English. Scope of analysis in this research was the analysis of the number of vocabularies acquired by the child before, during, and after getting the treatment by using android-based learning media. The writer of the research focused on vocabulary acquisition, which was verified by an oral test, because the subject of the research cannot read and write. The themes of nouns examined were *Things, Colors, Clothes, My body*. Meanwhile, the verbs examined included activities and movements of children, such as *smile, run, play*, and so on.

1.5. **Previous Researches**

(Hakuta, 1976) conducted a study about English acquisition to the 5-year-old girl of Japanese native speaker. Hakuta study is a longitudinal study conducted over 60 weeks, since the child aged 5.4 up to 6.4 years old. In his research, Hakuta contributed to the data on the formation of the second language grammatically morpheme that occured in 5-year-old child.

The Research (Puspita, 2013) used the strategy of active playing to improve children's English vocabulary. This research was a classroom action research conducted on a group of kindergarten children in a foundation in Bandung. In her research, she used *Total*
Physical Response to allow children to play and learn English joyfully. The implementation of the TPR method that can be packed with activities that involve body activities allowed the teachers to use a strategy of active playing in organizing English language learning for young learners.

In her research, Puspita used some instruments which were assessment for performance, observation sheet, interviews and documentation. The process of English vocabulary learning of children through a strategy of active playing was conducted in three stages. The first stage was that the teacher introduced vocabulary target to the children based on the learning theme using the media prepared through listen and repeat activities. The next stage was playing a game that can develop cognitive, motoric, and affective of the children. The last stage, teachers assessed the English language proficiency of the children which consisted of the ability to show the appropriate pictures and mention the English vocabulary based on the teacher’s instructions. In this study, she concluded that the use of active playing strategies can improve the early childhood’s understanding of English vocabulary.

The studies conducted by Hakuta (1976) and Puspita (2013) became the idea for the writer who is also the researcher in this paper to learn a second language development of 5-year-old child who is the writer’s relative. The study conducted by Hakuta was a long-term research, while the writer of this paper conducted a short-term research which was only for two weeks. The study conducted by Puspita (2013) used Total Physical Response, which involved psychomotoric motoric, and cognitive activities to a group of children. Whereas, the research conducted in this paper involved cognitive activity to the one child.

2. Theoreticial Reference
2.1 Language Development in Children

Language is the transformation of ideas and ideas that exist in the human mind in the form of symbols and specific code both verbal and nonverbal. Language is a tool used by humans to deliver feelings, messages, or information. Language is also used to interact with each other. A child uses language to adapt with the environment, explain the needs and communicate about his/her desires.

Lundsteen, divides the language development into 3 stages, namely:

1) Prelinguistic Satge – At the age of 0-3 months, the sound in and comes from the throat. – At the age of 3-12 months, they most using lips and palate, for instance ma, da, ba.
2) Protolinguistic Stage – At the age of 12 months - 2 years, children have understood and show the parts of the body. They start talking few words (the vocabularies are about 200-300 words).

3) Linguistic Stage – At the age of 2-6 years or above, at this stage the children start learning the grammar, and the development of the vocabularies achieve 3000 words.

In Indonesian dictionary, ability comes from the word able which means the first capable (can, could) to do something and the second exist. The ability itself has a meaning capability; skill; strength (Depdiknas, 2005: 707). Speaking in general can be defined as a delivering the intentions (idea, thought, notion, or feeling) of one person to another by using spoken language so that this intention can be interpreted by other people (Depdikbud, 1984: 7).

Suhartono (2005: 22) defines speaking as a delivering specific intention to utter language sounds so that the sounds can be understood and heard by the people. Samuel A Kirk argues that speaking includes the ability to pronounce the sounds (Sardjono, 2005: 6). These sounds are a fusion of sounds that form words, then words into something that has the full meaning. Speaking becomes a tool that helps in the development of a formal language.

Moreover, Hurlock (1978: 176) argues that speaking is a form of language using articulation or words used to convey meaning. According to Hurlock, speaking is motoric mental ability that involves coordination of collection different muscle sound, and mental aspect of a person to associate meaning with the sound produced. While Hariyadi and Zamzani (1997: 54) argue that speaking is essentially a process of communication as it occurs a message from a source to another place. Speaking is a demanding of the needs of human life. As social beings, humans will communicate with others using language as the main tool.

Language was used to communicate with others to convey ideas, thoughts and notions. Stewart and Kenner Zimmer looked at the needs for effective communication is regarded as an essential to achieve success for every person, both individual and group activities (Suhartono, 2005: 21). From the various definitions discussed previously, the writer takes the conclusion that speaking ability is capability, ability to deliver the thoughts, ideas, hopes, and knowledge to others in the form of words which mean that what the child wants can be understood by other people.
2.2 Characteristics of Children's Speaking Ability

Children’s speaking ability is definitely different than adult’s speaking ability. There are two characteristics of children speaking ability (Hurlock, 1976: 191), namely: (a) Speaking focus on himself (egocentric) and (b) speaking focus on others (socialization)

Ginsberg and Opper said that children use language in a non-communicative and communicative way (Paul Saparno, 2001: 55):

a. The use of non-communicative language

There are three ways of language usage, among other:

1. The child imitates what he or she just hear. The child imitates other people unconsciously.
2. The child is talking to himself (monolog). Sometimes, a child speaks to himself loudly without the desire to communicate to others such as when he’s playing.
3. Monolog among friends. Sometimes, a child talks to himself a bit louder even though he is in the circle of his friends. Some children sitting together can talk to themselves without the intention to connect with his or her other friends.

b. The use of communicative language.

The child starts to interact with other people. For example, children try to explain how to play the game or sometimes they criticize another child. Children talk to each other and respond what another child has said, although the often miscommunicate it.

Bredekamp and Copple mentioned characteristics of 5 years old children’s ability are as follows (Ramli, 2005: 189 & 192-193):

a. Using vocabulary around 5,000 to 8,000 by frequently playing with words; pronouncing with little difficulty, except for certain sounds such as /r/.

b. Using a more perfect or complex sentence.

c. Take a turn in a conversation, rarely interrupt other people; listening to other people conversation if the information is new and interesting; showing the remaining of egocentrism in the conversation. For example, considering listener will understand what he or she means.

d. Sharing experience verbally; knowing words in various songs.

e. Like to imitate other people role, showing off in front of new people or become very shy in an unexpected moment.

f. Remembering simple pottery lines and fully express it in sentences and expressions from other people, including clues and TV advertisements.
2.3 Factors Affecting English Language Learning in Children

a) Internal Factor

Internal factor means things that affect English Language learning that come from individual children. Including the age rate, learning motivation, good hearing and speaking ability and linguistic skill (talent).

b) External factor

According to Suyanto (2008: 21) factor that influences English Language Learning in early childhood, among others: 1. Family, which includes family background and mother tongue, 2. School, which include teaching material, learning media, and social interaction.

3. Research

3.1. Object of the research

The object of the research is Alice, (A) a 5-year-old girl who is the nephew of the author and she lives with the author. The author chose to observe with the hope of overseeing her development directly and continually. A is a kindergarten student level B in a private education foundation in East Jakarta. A lives in an environment that uses the Indonesian language, and she only gets English Language learning once a week for 50 minutes in the school.

3.2. Research procedure

The study was conducted for two weeks by implementing pre-test, mid-test, and post-test. The form of the conducted test was an oral test, the researcher asked A to confirm A’s vocabulary particularly nouns and verbs. A number of nouns and verbs were listed in a table and was used as a reference to conduct the test. Intended nouns and verbs were nouns and verbs that commonly appear in the video application. Especially for nouns, the author chose nouns with four themes, namely: Things, Colours, Clothes, My body. The pre-test was conducted in the first week. The researcher noted word that already known to A and words that she hasn’t known.

English Language exposure using android application was done against A for 6 hours of treatment. The selected android application was English for Kid. This application consists of short animation video collection with daily conversations. The video duration is between 1
– 30 minutes and listed according to a certain theme. For example, on the “At the School”
topic, there is cartoon animation video with simple daily conversations between the teacher
and student, student and student, student and his or her parents with school background. This
application allows the user to choose the video they want based on the topic. A was asked to
play with the English for Kid application for 15-30 minutes every day.

Mid-test was done after A experienced 3 hours exposure, which was at the beginning
of the second week. Meanwhile, post-test was done at the end of the second week, which was
after A played with English for Kid application for 6 hours. In conducting the mid-test and
post-test, the author confirmed words that have been known to A by asking her, based on the
listed table before the research. Words that have been known by A was checked.

4. Results

After conducting a study against A for two weeks, on the pre-test, it was found 25
English language words that have been known by A, which were 22 nouns and 3 verbs. On
the mid-text, it was found 31 words, 27 nouns, and 4 verbs. It means that there were 5 nouns
and one verb development. Meanwhile, on the post-test, it was found 33 words, which was 32
verbs and 6 verbs. The results of the study can be summarized and illustrated with tables and
graphs below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme:</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Mid Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Things</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>My body</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 1.1 Overview of A Vocabulary Development
5. **Discussion**

The conducted research illustrates the increase in the number of words known by A within two weeks period. The increase of words happened on every theme, namely Things, Colours, Clothes, My body. Table and graphs show that there was a rise of A’s English Language words on the first week, which was My Body nouns and verbs. The increase of words was thumb, hair, leg, and elbow. However, A experienced difficulty in producing ‘arm’ word, marked with xx (result enclosed). This happens because A was difficult to differentiate word concept of ‘hand’ (tangan) and ‘arms’ (lengan). Meanwhile, on clothes theme, there was a rise as much as one word, which was pants (celana pendek). This is in line with Vigotsky concept that cognitive development occurs when a child is able to associate his or her knowledge with everyday life.

During the android application exposure, the researcher did not do knowledge confirmation, in the hope that the confirmation was one of learning methods, meanwhile, this research was a focus on the acquire concept (unconscious language absorption). On the mid-test, there was naturally scaffolding to stimulate A in revealing her knowledge. Scaffolding here including on the ‘learning’ concept but suppressed by forming similar daily conversation test.

To see the words usage in daily conversation, the researcher used the English Language with A when A was changing her clothes, eating, and when she was playing. For example:

```
The researcher : “Dedek, what are you doing?”
A : “Yes!”
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The researcher : “Maksudnya, kamu lagi apa?”
A : “ganti baju?”
The researcher : “Mau pake pants or skirt?”
A : “Pants”
The researcher : “O, kamu pakai rok, ya?”
A : “Celana!”

In this case, it can be indicated that A already knew the meaning of pants and produce its utterance well. However, the research gave some option to A, “pants or skirt”, which was one of the scaffolding forms.

Meanwhile, after conducting pre-test, it showed that A already knew new communication expression, which didn’t find on pre-test and mid-test, such as: “I don’t know”, and “let’s go!.” It is estimated that it was the result of exposure using the application because A pronounced it using British English accent just like in the video. English language learning at A’s school is still using words, and A’s teacher doesn’t use English British accent. This is in line with Bredekamp and Copple that children under five years old are able to demonstrate skills in using conventional means of communication complete with pitch and tone of voice changes. In this case, A imitated characters in the video available in the android application.

6. Conclusion

This research is a qualitative method with a mix of quantitative method. Quantitative mythology was used for a simple calculation to see the rise in the number of vocabularies as a form of cognitive development after receiving the treatment. A qualitative method was used to explain the development of A’s communicative ability after the treatment. This study showed an increase in the vocabulary of children who were exposed to English using the application in the device. This research requires more in-depth analysis with a longer period of the research.

The researcher suggests conducting a study that focuses on the early childhood motivation with the usage of devices as a language exposure. This is due to the discovery such as the child’s motivation fluctuated during the study, as well as a disturbance in the form of interest in the game application. The researcher also suggests creating a research android device and application use as English teaching materials for boys at an early age.
Reference
## ALICE WORD'S DEVELOPMENT

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2.1 Ikon Aplikasi

2.1 Contoh bentuk isi aplikasi
Good morning. - How are you?

Come in, please.
Title
Supporting Bilingualism at Indonesia Language for Foreigner Program

Author
Juanda
Samawa University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Juanda is lecturer of Indonesian Language and Literature Education at Samawa University, Sumbawa, Indonesia. He research interests include Indonesian literature, Indonesian language policy, and Samawa language policy. He is currently completing Ph.D in Language Education Science from the Yogyakarta State University and teaches Indonesian literature and Indonesian language policy. He can be reached at juanda_unsa14@yahoo.co.id.

Abstract
In PP No. 57/2014 has four programs, namely: (1) usage of Indonesia at international forums; (2) development of Indonesia teaching program for foreigner; (3) improvement of linguistic and literary cooperation with foreign institutions; (4) development and empowerment of Indonesia learning centers; (5) other measures in accordance with the provisions of legislation. Language Center has planned “Indonesian Language for Foreigner Program” (ILFP). As organizers of ILFP, Office of International Affairs and Partnerships (OIAP) Yogyakarta State University (YSU) has developed very rapidly. OIAP held four short courses, namely: 1) ILFP for Regular; 2) ILFP for Darmasiswa; 3) ILFP for Transfer Credit; 4) ILFP for Tailor-Made.

This research is case study. The subjects are: ON and DSN (Burundi), ARR (Madagascar), AST (Myanmar), AF (Mali), SY and ASI (Thailand), and HO (Nigeria). Diversity will certainly affect the process of acquiring Indonesia language, so bilingual teaching is a rational choice. UNESCO itself supports bilingualism or multilingualism and essential component of intercultural at all levels of education. An article examines the practice of bilingual teaching at ILFP organized by OIAP YSU, such as language ecology.
Keywords: ILFP, bilingualism, language policy

Introduction

ILFP was very strategies in socialization of Indonesia. It is very helpful for students or foreign worker to plan in studying and working in Indonesia (Iskandarwassid & Sunendar, 2013; Firdaus, 2013). Indeed, cultural diplomacy had ever held by various countries, such as: England, France, Finland, United States, Chinese, India, Singapore, Philippines, Japan, Mozambique, Peru, and so on.

ILFP also had role as medium of cultural diplomacy at global (PP No. 57/2014; UU No. 24/2009; UUD/1945). It had organized by any institutions abroad, language centers and boards, universities, and schools. There are more than 500 of ILFP institutions are organizing ILFP oversea.

In 2050, Indonesia language will be used as regional language of ASEAN (Maurais, 2003: 17). Recently, foreign workers are about 70.000, while international students are 10.000 (http://m.news.viva.co.id/). It is necessity that teaching Indonesian language is really urgent, looked from side of economic, politic, culture, education, and demographic (population). Some universities had conducted ILFP, like OIAP of YSU. It was purposes to know how bilingualism is taught. UNESCO, AEC, and ASCC was very supports bilingualism.

Literature Review

Brown (2007: 6) said that the understanding of language such as: 1) language is systematic; 2) language is a set of arbitrary symbols; 3) those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual; 4) the symbols have conventionalized meanings to which they refer; 5) language is used for communication; 6) language operates in a speech community or culture; 7) language is essentially human, although it can be unlimited for human; 8) language is acquired by all people at the same ways, language learning had universal characteristic. Halliday (Brown, 2007: 246) states that there are eight function of language such as: 1) instrumental; 2) regulatory; 3) representational; 4) interaction; 5) personal; 6) heuristic; 7) imagination.

As the official language, Indonesian has multifunctional, those are namely: (1) public administration; (2) education and teaching; (3) national development; (4) the development of national literature; (5) improving the quality of mass media (newspapers, magazines, radio, television); and (6) the writing of textbooks and books of science (original and translation).
As the national language, Indonesian has a function, such as: (1) the symbol of national pride; (2) symbol of national identity; (3) means the unification of the various peoples of different language backgrounds and socio-cultural life into the unity of the pride of Indonesia, and intercultural and inter-regional transportation facilities (Badudu, 1985: 4-34).

In the context of a state language, Rifa'I (2014: 210) argues that the Indonesian functions, among others: (1) in the implementation of public administration; (2) in education and teaching both run by the government or by the private sector; (3) in national development; (4) in the development of national literature; (5) improving the quality of mass media (newspapers, magazines, radio, television); and (6) in the study textbooks and books of science.

Meanwhile, as the national language, Slametmuljana (1959: 8-9) explains that the Indonesian can serve as: (1) the tools to run the state administration; (2) the tools to close the various tribes into one nation; and (3) the tools to accommodate new culture of national-faceted aspects concerning science and international culture. Similarly, J. S. Badudu (1985: 34) also said that the Indonesian serves as: (1) the symbol of national pride; (2) symbol of national identity; and (3) a means of unification of the various peoples of different language backgrounds and socio-cultural life into the unity of the pride of Indonesia, and intercultural and inter-regional transportation facilities. Furthermore, Maman (2012: 4) argues that language plays a central role in the development of the intellectual, social and emotional learning and is supporting the success in studying all fields of study. In addition, language has a central role in the development of intellectual, social, and emotional of student and is supporting the success in studying all fields of study.

Methodology

This research is case studies (Daymon & Holloway, 2002: 105; Creswell, 2008: 431-529). The subject of this studies is: ON and DSN (Burundi), ARR (Madagascar), AST (Myanmar), AF (Mali), SY and ASI (Thailand), and HO (Nigeria). Seven is men, while one is woman.

Finding and Discussion

ILFP of YSU

ILFP held by Office of International Affairs and Partnerships (OIAP) Yogyakarta State University (YSU). The Vision and mission those are: 1) to have a role active in agenda of international as facilitator, planner, and implementer; 2) to do university promotion in
country or abroad; 3) to organize attendance for foreign students and academic guest who studying at YSU very well and quality.

Around on 1990s, this program called Indonesian Language Learning for Foreigner (ILLF). It is conducted by Department of Language and Literature. ILLF students are most from Australia. On 2012, ILFP organized by OIAP. This office ever changed from Office of Cooperation and Protocol, then changing became International Office. On January 2012, it was to be two elements such as: 1) International Office; 2) Office of Cooperation, Promotion, and Protocol. Now is international and partnership.

ILFP consists of: (1) ILFP for Regular; (2) ILFP for Darmasiswa; (3) ILFP for Credit Transfer; (4) ILFP for Tailor-Made. ILFP for Regular is 3, such as: (1) to introduces basic Indonesian language for students; (2) to understand the simple practice in daily life and give the respond; (3) to understand using structure of basic Indonesian language. The participants of this program also following some courses.

ILFP for Darmasiswa organize with postgraduate students at YSU. The aims of it those are: (1) to prepare the students for follow the guest lecture; (2) to establish student to oral and write in Indonesia. Finally, ILFP for Tailor-Made (have get cooperation with YSU). This program planned for private necessary, such as: diplomat, economist, anthropologist, lawyer, and etc.

**Bilingualism in ILFP**

Being culture and Indonesian language knowledge is various and become obstacle for lecturer or tutor. Some students may be live in home environments where the language of the extended family reveals an ethnic, cultural, or national background that is different from that of the community. They may get difficult when learning. This following is interview result:

Very difficult, primary university lecture. I often find the lecturer who switch code in learning process, example: using Indonesian and Java language. Beside that I had difficulty to understand the meaning and explanation of lecturer who can speak quickly. At that time, I had been submitting query and suggesting a perception (DSN).

DSN often had hard experience if the lecturer explained the material in Indonesian language quickly. Beside that the lecturers also often to combine two language codes, example: Indonesia and Java language. That thing will be more to be adding embarrassment of DSN. It make difficult and challenge for him. The same thing also kept by SY and ASI.
What has to learn during ILFP, it can be different in practicality, example: in learning process. If there is a lecturer who teaching by using mix code, speak quickly, and low in voice, I certainly have difficulty for understand what the lecturer’s says (SY).

Hard enough because all of related with academic in generally using Indonesian language. The mean is, learning Indonesian language is important for supporting teaching process and make socialization with the other people (ASI).

SY still have difficult experience when the lecturers mix two language code, and also speak quickly and low voice. He had been many times to sit in. During sit in, he often found problems. Meanwhile ASI realizes that learn with Indonesian language is necessity. He cannot image the difficulties what will be deal if Indonesian language is not good. ASI said that the language is very supports in education. If do not have good communication, it brings relation with academic or non-academic.

Now, I have been to adapt myself. If the master of Indonesian language is not good of course it to be constraint (ON).

I never do anything if I cannot speak Indonesian language. According to me, having writing skill is difficult then speaking (ARR).

Companion in university lecture will use Indonesian language. For me, Indonesian language clearly is important. You will be imagining how difficult if somebody cannot mastering it. As a learner, I must to know of language and culture anywhere. (AST).

Hard enough to understand the explanation of the lecturer who always mix two language codes, example by using two languages like: Indonesian and Java language together (AF).

I still have difficult if the lecturer speak quickly. I gave a duty for working paper, I will try for attempt and do it (Ho).
ON, ARR, AST, AF, and HO recognize very important to master of Indonesian language very well. In contrary, it will be complicate yourself, especially for academic. They often remembered by the educators for increasing their language skill.

AF also have difficult with his roommate is still hard to understand what the lecturer say and explain. In addition, the lectures explain by using two language codes. HO also is feeling hard to understand the points what the lecturer says, especially for speaking quickly.

The students international get difficult when join lecturing. There are few factors, such as: (1) lecturer often used switch code (more than two languages), especially for Indonesian and Java language; (2) he/she speak too fast; and (3) he/she also speak too slow.

From those factors, bilingualism aims to use Indonesian and English language. The students feel pleasure and good because far from family. Besides that, adults can be master more three languages (Adam, 2004: 3-4; Bialystok, 2003: 2-4). Choosing English is to make comfortable.

**Conclusion**

ILFP still not involve the student need in choosing material learning, model and method of teaching. Because they have social, culture, experience, and knowledge in diversity. In this case, bilingual learning (use more the one language: Indonesian and English) is really suggested. It also supported by UNESCO and ASEAN Socio-Cultural Community.

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Undang-undang Dasar RI Tahun 1945 (Foundation Rules of Republic of Indonesia/1945).
Title
Technology-Integrated ESP (English for Specific Purposes) Instructions:
The Engineering Students’ Perspectives

Author
Karmila Machmud
Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Karmila Machmud, Ph.D is an active faculty member in English Department of Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia. She earned her master’s degree in applied linguistics from Sydney University, Australia, and doctorate degree in Curriculum and Instruction from Ohio University, USA. Her research interests are EFL instructions and technology in EFL instructions.

Abstract
The goal of this study is to investigate the engineering students’ perspectives towards English as a Foreign Language teaching in Engineering Department and the importance of the integration of technology in English Instructions to support their field of study. The engineering students have specific needs and purposes, and these should be addressed with an accurate and effective approach. Studies on the use of technology in language learning suggested that technology can help facilitate the teaching and learning English especially for specific purposes. Thus, integrating the use of technology in English instructions will address the Engineering students’ need of specific English proficiency in their field of study.

Affiliation Address:
Universitas Negeri Gorontalo
Jl. Jend. Sudirman no.6
Kota Gorontalo, Indonesia
Introduction

The goal of this study is to investigate the engineering students’ perspectives towards the importance of English Instructions to support their field of study. This study is conducted in Universitas Negeri Gorontalo, Indonesia, where, despite the difficulties of teaching English subject to students other than English major students, it is inevitable to ignore the fact that English subject is compulsory in its higher education Institutions.

The challenge to teach English to engineering students emerged from their specific needs and purposes in learning English; thus, the pedagogical and instructional process should address these particular conditions with an accurate and effective approach. Studies on the use of technology in language learning suggested that technology could help facilitate the teaching and learning English (Kessler, 2005, 2007; Warschauer & Healey, 1998; Fotos & Browne, 2004; Hegelmeimer, 2006), and this also applies to the teaching English for specific purposes. In this case, integrating the use of technology in English instructions will also facilitate the English teachers in addressing the Engineering students’ need of specific English proficiency in their field of study.

Thus, this study is conducted to investigate the engineering students’ specific needs and purposes of learning English in higher education context. This study also portrayed the possibilities of using technology to enhance the English teaching and learning process through the students’ perspectives.

Literature Review

Understanding the need of engineering students in learning English is significant in planning the competencies and performances that should be taught in English Instructions as a specific purpose. English skills are needed by the engineering students to keep up with the recent development in engineering field. It might enable the future engineers to increase their competences in engineering areas, which is in turn will widen their opportunity to compete in the international job market.

For many years we believe that engineering students needs reading skills more than speaking skills. Study shows that reading skills have gained a special attention in teaching and learning English for a specific purpose including in engineering field of study (Gupta, 2013). Engineering students are lack in vocabulary, speaking, and writing.

With the fast growing of information and technology in many fields; and with the change of the English skill need in engineering workplace, it is important to re-evaluate the
engineering students’ need of what skill that would be the most important based on their perspectives. Hucking and Olsen (cited in Gupta 2013) argues:

“scientists and engineers may be technically brilliant and creative, but unless they can convince coworkers, clients, and supervisors of their worth, their technical skills will be unnoticed, unappreciated, and unused. […] from this perspective, communication skills are not just handy: they are critical tools for success, even survival, in “real world” environment”

This means that in order to be accepted, noticed, and used by international job market, engineering students should be equipped with the communication skill (Patil, 2014; Riemer, 2002).

Methodology

An online survey has been sent to Engineering students, and 96 engineering students from various departments in Universitas Gorontalo filled in the survey. The survey is used to gain the data to investigate which skills that mostly needed to support their study and their future carrier, and their perspectives towards the use of technology that would effectively helped them to achieve this goal. This survey was followed by in-depth interviews with two faculty members of Engineering Department, Universitas Negeri Gorontalo. Each interview was conducted for 20 to 30 minutes. The interview then transcribed verbatim. The data then interpreted and cross-analyzed with the result from the online survey to answer the research question.

Findings and Discussion

This study found that the majority of the respondents preferred speaking skill as the most needed English skills, which is important for their future carrier.
Figure 1. Students’ responds on what skill that is important for their future carrier

The above figure shows that 80% of the total respondents believe that Speaking is the most important skill needed for their future carrier.

In an in-depth interview, the faculty members argue that they wish that their students had rich technical vocabularies that will help students understand the textbook in English that often used in teaching and learning process. With that being mentioned, it is necessary to equipped students with technical vocabularies, it means that vocabulary teaching should be given more attention. In contrast, the respondent of this research did not have similar opinion with the faculty member. They answers shows that vocabulary is the last three subjects they consider important; while speaking has the highest percentage of the answers.

Figure 2. Students’ responds on what subject that would help in teaching and learning process.

As shown in figure 2, there are 75% of the total respondents believe that speaking subject is the most important subject to support their learning process in their major. Vocabulary, on the other hand, get only 19% responds of the total respondent, even though vocabulary is considered more important to support the teaching and learning process based on the arguments of the faculty members.

The students’ responds as the results of this research are in line with the arguments of Patil (2014), Riemer (2002), and Gupta (2013) about the importance of speaking English to support future engineers to fulfill the demand of international job market. Jansen (2000, as cited in Riemer, 2002, p.91) stated that employers demand “… a number of new competencies, with an emphasis on an increased ability to communicate … and a good foreign language skills”.

70
The use of technology integrated in language learning is one significant way to be considered to address the need of both teachers and students in engineering department. Integrating CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) in language instruction is not aimed at just developing students with computer skills, instead, the objective of integrating CALL in the curriculum of language teaching is “associated with self-contained, programmed applications such as tutorials, tools, simulations, instructional games, tests, and so on” (Kern and Warschauer, 2000, p. 1). Students who are the respondents of this research are aware of the importance of integrating the use of technology into the teaching and learning process in their department. The next figure shows their opinion on this.

![Figure 3. Students’ opinion on the importance of the use of technology in English Instructions](image)

- **Yes**: 84 respondents (88.42%)
- **No**: 4 respondents (4.31%)
- **Neither**: 7 respondents (7.37%)

Figure 3. Students’ opinion on the importance of the use of technology in English Instructions

The figure shows the students’ responds on the survey question: “if the English teacher used technology in teaching and learning process, do you think you will learn better in mastering English?” As predicted, the majority of the respondents answered ‘yes’, it is 84 respondents, or 88.42% from the total respondents. However, there are 4 respondents who answered ‘no’. We need to conduct further investigation on this through in-depth interview.

**Conclusion**

This study found that English is needed for technical communication, thus the most needed subject is speaking. To meet the demand of work places and international employer, students must be able to learn to communicate in English. This means that speaking subject should have more emphasize in EFL curriculum for engineering students.

Considering the highest percentage of the respondents believe that the use of technology will help them to learn better in mastering English, it is important for English
teachers to integrate the use of technology in designing English curriculum for Engineering students.

**References**


Title
Video Project in ESP Classroom: A Way to Promote Autonomous Learning in a Big Class

Author
Khusnul Khotimah
Mataram University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Khusnul Khotimah is a lecturer at English Department of Mataram University. She earned her Master’s degree from Universitas Negeri Malang (UM), majoring in ELT. Her subject interests include TEFL Autonomous Learning, and CALL. She can be reached at khusnul_pena@yahoo.com.

Abstract
Teaching English in a big class is very challenging, especially, in the class who are not majoring in English (English is taught for specific purposes only). The teacher should train the student to be more autonomous in English learning. This study investigates how video project can be incorporated in ESP Classroom, specifically, how video project helps students in promoting their autonomous learning and what their perceptions towards video project. Forty two EFL students participated in this case study. They were taught English about 4 months (1semester) and assigned to make video projects. The content of the video and students participations in the project were analyzed to meet the research objectives. At the last meeting, a set of questionnaire containing close and open ended questions was distributed to get the dipper data. The findings indicate that video project can be used as the media to promote students’ autonomous learning in initiating, monitoring, and evaluating process. In terms of students, most of them responded positively to this video project and perceived improvement in their pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and writing.

Keywords: video project, autonomous learning, students’ perception,
Introduction

Today’s teaching requires the integration of technology as the media to overcome such instructional problems. In this paper, the use of technology in the form of video recorder to promote autonomous learning in a big or large class is obviously described. Specifically, this paper reports on a study which explore how video project helps students in large class in promoting their autonomous learning. Besides, it also highlights students’ perceptions towards this project.

Literature Review

Big class or large class is closely related to the number of students in certain class. However, the exact number on defining a big or large class is diverse among teachers and scholars. Hess (2001) defined that a class is considered big if it contains 30 students or more. In the other hand, Brown (2001) assumed that the proper class should not more than 12 students. Different from Hess and Brown, several scholars such as Ur (1996) and Mulryan-Kyne (2010) do not determine the big class based on the number of students, but more to the teachers’ perception that see the class as too large for effective teaching and learning to exist. In relation to the effect of the big class to the English teaching learning process, Bahanshal (2013) found several disadvantages of big class, such as: the teacher focuses more on behaving students and doesn’t have sufficient time to do assessment, it puts too much pressures on to the teacher, students get less individual attention and have less chance to effectively participate in class and use the target language. Moreover, the large class will easily trigger some kinds of problems related to classroom management such as students tend to be noisy, etc.

In response to these hindrances, the researcher used video project as the alternative way to promote a more effective teaching atmosphere since it serves many benefits. In this case, many scholars previously found some advantages of equipping this technique, such as: allowing self-evaluation, increasing self-confidence, improving speaking skill (Savas, 2012 and Huang, 2015), and enhancing inquiry-based learning (Nikitina, 2011).

Previous studies have focused more to the effect of video project in the direction of students’ language competence with different proficiency levels, motivation, and students’ confidence. This study elaborated more on the impact of video project towards students’ autonomous learning in initiating, monitoring, and evaluating process (Dang, 2012)
Methodology

This mini case study involved forty two EFL students of Public Relation Program of Mataram University who attended the course about four months (one semester). They were taught English for Specific Purpose and assigned to make video projects. The first project required them to work in pair while the second to perform individually.

The content of the video and students participations in the project were analyzed to meet the research objectives. At the last meeting, a set of questionnaire containing close and open ended questions was distributed to get the deeper data.

Finding and Discussion

*How does video project help students in big class in promoting their autonomous learning?*

Producing appealing video requires several processes from script writing, shooting, and post production (Forester & Meyer, 2015). These base characteristics facilitate students to be more aware on autonomous learning. They have to invest more time out of formal class to prepare, produce, and evaluate. In relation to this, the researcher attempted to dig the deeper data on how this video project helped students to be more autonomous means to find out their activities in initiating, monitoring, and evaluating process of autonomous learning.

In initiating process, 35 out of 42 students reported that they had several activities in preparing the video such as: deciding the topic, making the script and preparing the properties, and looking for references in term of language use. While the rest of them stated that they only made preparation in term of scenario. For the monitoring process, a big number of them (38 students) claimed that they had collaborated with other students in the process of shooting and recording and selecting the best strategy to perform. And for the last process on what so-called evaluating process, they acknowledged that they did evaluation by reshooting or rerecording.
A big number (79%) of them confessed that they had already made the video more than 3 times. It indicates that students have ample awareness on evaluating their tasks. Above mentioned data suggest that although in not very sophisticated way, video project had already help students to be more autonomous in learning English.

**What are their perceptions towards video project?**

Students’ perception towards video project were elaborated from close and open ended questionnaire.

**Chart 2. Students’ preference towards video project**

Based on self-reported process in the form of questionnaire and interview, students perceived well about video project in which based on chart 2, more than a half of them stated that they like even extremely like the project. However, 16% of them didn’t like and extremely didn’t like the project since they say that the project was to exhausting.
None of students perceived negatively on the role of video project in improving their English competence. Most of them believed that video project has improved their English competence, especially in term of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and writing.

Based on open ended question on other benefits of video project, the students claimed that this video project has already improved their confidence and creativity. In the other hands, despite those advantages, some little obstacles such as lacking of properties and technological competence have made a bit problem in finishing their project.

**Conclusion**

In a problematic big class, video project can be used to facilitate students to be more autonomous in English learning in which it has potency that can facilitate students to be more autonomous in English learning by investing more time and effort out of formal class. In addition, this case study suggests that most of the students perceived well towards this project. They acknowledged that video project was very motivating and helped them increase their English competence.

However, this study covers limitation in which a self-reported information only informing more on what students think rather than what students do. Therefore, the result should be attested by conducting the similar study with different instrument such as observation or conducting longitudinal investigation.
References


Title
A Genre Analysis of ‘About the Author’ Texts in English Books

Author
Kyungsook Paik
Hanyang Women’s Univ., S. Korea

Bio-Profile:
Kyungsook Paik is a Professor at Department of English, Hanyang Women’s Univ., S. Korea. Her research interests include ethnography of communication, genre analysis, and interface of sociolinguistics and foreign language education. She has a Ph. D. in Education from Seoul National University and currently teaches Business English. This study was supported by Hanyang Women’s University Grant (2015-2-012). The first draft of this paper was presented at 2016 Tesol Indonesia International Conference at University of Mataram, Lombok, Indonesia (Aug. 11-13). She can be reached at kspaik@hywoman.ac.kr

Abstract
This is a study of ‘About the Author’ texts (ATAs, hereafter) in English books within the academic tradition of ESP oriented Genre Analysis. Based on a belief that ATAs duly comprise a genre with a communicative goal, this study identifies the moves and strategies employed in those texts as well as some stylistic features. The analysis of 155 ATAs from 148 contemporary books in English published by 102 different companies shows the following results; ‘Establishing Credentials’ (EC) and ‘Giving Personal Information’ (GPI) were the two most preferred moves, followed by ‘Offering Contacts’ (OC) and ‘Promoting the Book’ (PB). The rhetorical structures, disclosed in the order of frequency were EC > EC+GPI > GPI+EC, followed by other miscellaneous patterns. Regarding the strategies of
these 2 moves, descriptions of the author’s career, works, and awards were most favored for the move of EC and the information about the author’s residence, identity, and birth for the move of GPI. The distribution of the strategies turned out to be influenced by various contextual factors, including genre of the books, the generic differences being most apparent between the literary and academic books. Finally, ‘listing’, ‘apposition’, and ‘adjuncts’ were found to be the most distinctive characteristics of the ATAs style. Based on all these results, this study argues that the ATAs in English can be regarded as promotional genre, another example of ‘language in use’ with significant pedagogical implications for students seeking generic competence in English.

Keywords: ‘About the Author’ texts, communicative purpose, genre analysis, move, strategy, rhetorical structure

Introduction

This is an analysis of ‘About the Author’ texts (ATAs, hereafter) in English books within the academic tradition of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) oriented Genre Analysis. In spite of the wide variety of the text types being investigated recently in this tradition, the literature includes hardly any study of ATAs except Kathpalia (1997) which identified ATAs as one of the constructing ‘moves’ of the book blurb texts, and Paik (2016) which examined the ATAs in Korean books focusing on their rhetorical structures. The results of these studies not only revealed the nature of the ATAs but also aroused our interest in these texts across cultures.

In her study, Paik (2016) argues that the ATAs in Korean duly comprise an independent genre, a recognizable communicative event with basically promotional communicative purpose shared and mutually understood by the Korean discourse community. Adopting this view, this study also analyzes the rhetorical structures along with some stylistic features specific to ATAs in English books to answer the ultimate question, ‘Why is a particular text-genre written the way it is?’ in the train of genre analyses triggered by J. M. Swales and V. K. Bhatia (Swales, 1981, 1985, 1990; Bhatia, 1987, 1988, 1991, 1993; Swales & Bhatia, 1983, among others).

This empirical research would be significant in that it “seeks evidence for the rhetorical preferences” of contemporary ATAs and “infers the processing strategies whereby texts are individually constructed and construed in relation with social practices”, ultimately clarifying “the specific ways for the conventionalized communicative purposes to be
realized” (Bhatia, 1993, ix-x, 3) in some English speaking communities. The results of this study would also make significant baseline data for further contrastive rhetorical studies as well as useful resources for teaching English as a second/foreign language.

**Research topic: ‘About the Author’ texts as a genre**

An ‘About the Author’ text is a part of a book which introduces the author. It is not an obligatory part but included in most English books. ATAs in English books usually appear on the back cover or the inside of the back cover, on the back flap, or on one of the other leaves of the book preceding or following the main text. ATAs vary in their length but usually consist of one or two paragraphs, often accompanied by the author’s photo.

By offering various information about the author, ATAs satisfy the (prospective/) readers’ curiosity, ‘Who is the author?’, ‘What is s/he like?’, or ‘Is s/he well qualified to write this book?’ Not infrequently, some characteristics of the author appear to be particularly emphasized to promote the book. According to Paik (2016), the usual contents of the ATAs, which must be the results of time honored interactions between publishers and the readers, disclose the goal of this communicative event understood and shared by the appropriate speech communities. The followings are usual forms of ATAs in English books.

**Alex Beam** is a columnist for the Boston Globe and the author of three books: two novels about Russia, Fellow Travelers and The American Are Coming, and a nonfiction book, Gracefully Insane: Life and Death Inside America’s Premier Mental Hospital. Gracefully Insane won a Massachusetts Book Award and was a New York Times Notable Book of 2002. The recipient of many journalism awards, Beam has written for the International Herald Tribune, the New York Times, Slate, the Atlantic, and many other magazines. He lives in Boston. (#B1)

**Hisham Matar** was born in New York City to Libyan parents and spent his childhood first in Tripoli and then in Cairo. His first novel, In the Country of Men (2006), won six international literary awards and was shortlisted for the Man Booker Prize, the Guardian First Book Award and the National Book Critics Circle Award. Hisham Matar lives in London. (#A6)

Figure 1: Examples of About the Author texts


Do ATAs comprise a genre? The word ‘genre’ is commonly used today in our daily lives to refer to certain types of arts, music, films, poems, novels, dance, and even jokes. Genre used to refer to a ‘form’ or ‘kind’ as in Aristotle’s *Poetics*, basically to classify literary works (Flowerdew, 2010). Martin (1984) defined it as “a staged, goal oriented and purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (p. 25, as cited in Park, 2000, pp. 92-93). Similarly, in the tradition of genre analysis of ESP perspective, genre is understood as “a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs” (defined in Bhatia, 1993, p. 13, taken after Swales, 1981, 1985, 1990). Having reviewed the related literature and the classic definition of ‘communicative event’ by Hymes (1972), Paik (2016) argues that ATAs do constitute a proper genre, which are a certain type of a conventionally occurring texts with a goal. They have not only a specific ‘topic’ (the author) and a specific ‘goal’ (introduction of the author) but also a ‘physical setting’ (a book) and the same ‘channel’ (specific location in a book). They have recognizable ‘beginning’ and ‘end’, maintaining the same ‘interactants relationship’ (the author/publisher with the readers) throughout the text. This study is based on this view that an ATA text is a recognizable communicative event with communicative goal(s), making a proper genre.

**Theoretical background and previous studies**

**Studies on the ‘About the Author’ texts**

With hardly any previous studies on ATAs except Paik (2016), Kathpalia (1997) has been the single report available. Focusing on the cross-cultural differences between book blurbs of international publishers and local Singapore-based publishers, Kathpalia identified the ATAs as one of the moves constructing the book blurbs, labeling them ‘Establishing Credentials’. However, suspecting that this analysis was mainly due to the geography of these texts, Paik (2016), in her study of ATAs in Korean books (ATAs, usually presented apart from the book blurbs) also pointed out that even the ATAs in English following book blurbs usually start with the name of the author in different font, size, and (sometimes) in

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different color along with the different spacing of the characters, which strongly suggests that the English ATAs may well constitute a separate genre.

According to Paik (2016), an ATA text is a presentation of only the ‘relevant selves’ of the author among his/her countless aspects, which would satisfy the (prospective) readers’ curiosity to know about the author’s background and capability. She argues that these texts constitute a sub-genre within the range of various promotional texts. Paik also points out that the distributional patterns of the moves and the following strategies are the results of their interactions with some socio-cultural factors and cultural emphasis of the Korean speech community, which naturally arouses our academic interest in cross-cultural variation, inviting an analysis of the same texts in other speech communities with different social practices and cultural concerns.

**Genre analysis**

Discourse and genre analysis has been established as “an important field of study within linguistics, having implications for applied linguistics, especially in the teaching and learning of languages, mass communication, writing research, language reform and a number of other areas related to professional and academic communication” (Bhatia, 1997, p. 313). In the literature, concerns about genre have formed 3 broad traditions (Hyon, 1996; Hyland, 2004); The Systemic Functional Linguistics focusing on discourse structures and registers, the New Rhetoric in which genre is understood as social action, and ESP oriented genre analyses. While the first two traditions are basically interested in one’s native language regarding writing and teaching, the other approach to texts had been formed out of the concerns of teaching a foreign language. Taking communicative purposes as the key characteristics of a genre, it offers “a dynamic explanation of the way expert users of language manipulate generic conventions to achieve a variety of complex goals associated with their specialist disciplines, focusing attention on the variation in the language use by members of various disciplinary cultures” (Bhatia, 1997, p. 313). Bhatia (1997), drawing attention to the importance of ‘generic competence’ in addition to the ‘communicative competence’ in language teaching, enumerated four aspects of genre acquisition; ‘Knowledge of the code’, ‘genre knowledge’, ‘sensitivity to cognitive structuring’, and ‘genre ownership.’ This line of research has focused on the staged ‘moves’ and their processing ‘strategies’ along with some stylistic features to achieve the communicative goals of various professional genres beginning with academic writings.

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2 It is also mentioned that Paik had previewed ATAs in English books along with her study of Korean ATAs, mainly to find out if they all comprise an independent communicative event. Regarding the geography of the English texts, about 55% (out of 155 texts) are located on the back covers or on the back flaps following the book blurbs, while the other 45%, separately on the inside of the back covers or on other leaves preceding or following the main texts.
and legal texts (Swales, 1981, 1990; Bhatia, 1982, 1983, 1993). ESP perspective have naturally diversified the texts analyzed, inviting studies (often with contrastive rhetorical concerns) of other types of writings such as academic research proposals (Myers, 1985; Johns, 1993; Henry & Roseberry, 1997; Connor & Mauranen, 1999), business related writings (Jenkins & Hinds, 1987; Connor, 1988; Zhu, 2000; Henry & Roseberry, 2001; Gao & Lee, 2012; Park & Jeon, 2014), newspaper editorials (Dantas-Whitney & Grabe, 1989), and political discourses (Bolivar, 1992) as well.

Bhatia (1993) emphasizes “a combination of socio-cultural (including ethnographic) and psycholinguistic (including cognitive) aspects of text-construction and interpretation with linguistic insights” (p. 11) to answer the long pursued question, ‘Why are specific discourse-genres written and used by the specialist communities the way they are?’ This generic knowledge would matter for anybody “to arrive at a significant form-function correlations which can be utilized for a number of applied linguistic purposes.” (Swales, 1981, as cited in Bhatia, 1993, p. 11)

**Moves and strategies**

‘Moves’ and ‘strategies’ are constructing units to bring about the conventionalized regularities in the organization of the texts. Moves are identified as discriminative elements of generic structure (Bhatia, 1993) or functional units (Connor & Mauranen, 1999), which are to be used to achieve a particular goal within the text (Henry & Roseberry, 2001). They form the schematic structure and constrain the contents and style of a discourse (Swales, 1990). A move contains at least 1 proposition regardless of the length (Connor & Mauranen, 1999) but does not necessarily conform to sentential unit (see some analyses in Bhatia, 1993).

‘Strategies’ (or ‘steps’) are semantic-functional units to serve the purpose of the moves. The term strategy is used to mean how the writer or speaker choose to realize, or execute the move (Bhatia, 1993). The term step is used if a move can only be realized by a series of strategies in a particular order (Swales, 1990, also confer Henry & Roseberry, 2001).

For example, the ‘Research Space Model for Article Introduction’ (Swales, 1981) based on the analysis of 48 research article introductions of various fields is probably the first cognitive move structure identified, which was revised into the well-known CARS (‘Create a Research Space’ model, Swales, 1990) later. Similarly, Henry & Roseberry (2001) specified 11 moves as the constructing units of Letters of Job Application in English as in Figure 2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Space Model for Article Introductions (Swales, 1981):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establishing the Research Field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing Previous Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing for the Present Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing the Present Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>↓↓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARS Model (Swales, 1990):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing a Territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing a Niche</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupying the Niche</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves of Job Application Letters (Henry &amp; Roseberry, 2001):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referring to a Job Advertisement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering a Candidature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating Reasons for Applying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stating Availability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting the Candidate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stipulating Terms and Conditions of Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naming Referees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enclosing Documents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polite Ending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signing Off</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Examples of move structure analysis

Genre analyses of this tradition so far have shown that a move is realized by at least (or more than) a couple of strategies. For example (as in Swales, 1981), the writer may ‘Establish the Research Field’, either by (1) asserting centrality of the topic, (2) stating current knowledge, or (3) ascribing key characteristics. These are non-discriminative options within the allowable contributions available to an author for creative or innovative genre construction (Bhatia, 1993).

Bhatia (1993) also pointed out that sales promotion letters and job application letters share basically the same moves, including the most elaborated move of ‘Introducing the Offer/Candidature’. Following research on business-related texts revealed that there are cross-linguistic/cultural differences in the goals and the rhetorical structures even with the same genre texts, or differences in the presence or length of certain moves and strategies across discourse communities (Kong, 1998; Zhu, 2000; Upton, 2002; Gao, 2012; Park & Jeon, 2014, among others).
Research methods

Data

The ATA texts in English were obtained from 148 contemporary books published by 102 different companies on both sides of the Atlantic Seas (namely in the U.K., the U.S.A, and Canada) in 1983~2015. To secure the comparability of the ATA texts, only original books were examined excluding translated or edited books. In addition, to avoid any possible peculiar style of the publishers, the researcher tried to include as many publishing companies as possible. She also selected books of various genres, ranging from literary works, miscellaneous books, essays, self-education books to academic textbooks for college and graduate students. A total of 155 ATAs were obtained this way. The length of the texts varied greatly, from 14 words to as long as 695 words. However, the majority of the ATAs included less than 100 words.

Analysis of the data

The data obtained was analyzed to identify the moves and strategies first. Then the researcher examined the distributional patterns of the moves and strategies as well as some distinctive stylistic properties of the ATAs.

Regarding identification of the moves and strategies, the researcher adopted the classification developed in Paik (2016) with the ATAs in Korean books. However, she first examined if those structural units could be applicable to English texts as well and also checked if there are any additional moves or strategies. The identification of the moves and strategies were based on the descriptions as reviewed earlier, i.e., ‘a functional unit of at least 1 proposition for a certain, or distinctive rhetorical purpose within the text’ for a move and the ‘non-distinctive sub-units to serve the purpose of a move’ for a strategy. Nevertheless, the propositions included in modifying phrases or clauses were not counted as independent strategies or moves, even though they could make functional units otherwise.

JOSHILYN KACKSON is a bestselling author (GPI: Identity), a native of the Deep South (GPI: Birth), a former actor and award-winning teacher (EC: Career), and a mother of two (GPI: Identity). Her first novel, gods in Alabama, was the 2006 winner of the Southern Independent Book-sellers Alliance Book Award for fiction. Both gods in Alabama and Between, Georgia were selected as #1 Booksense picks (EC: Awards). Jackson’s previous work has appeared in TriQuarterly and Calyx, as well as the anthology ChickLit II (EC: Works). The author lives with her family outside of Atlanta, Georgia (GPI: Residence), and you can visit her Web site at www.joshilynjackson.com. (OC: Offering Contacts) (#A19)
Results and discussion

Moves and strategies

The analysis shows that the ATAs in English books are constructed of the same 4 moves as in the Korean data (Paik, 2016) and, except for a few, basically the same processing strategies. Describing the qualifications of the author, or ‘Establishing Credentials’ (EC, hereafter) turned out to be the essential move, since only 1 text out of 155 ATAs lacked this part. Other optional constructive units are ‘Giving Personal Information’ (GPI, hereafter), ‘Offering Contacts’ (OC, hereafter) and ‘Promoting the Book’ (PB, hereafter). Each move is realized with various strategies as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: An example of analysis: Some moves and strategies


First, the move GPI includes some of the basic demographic information or stories about the author. The strategies of GPI are, thus, basically the answers to the question, ‘Who/What is the author?’ The strategies include the information about the author’s identity, birth, growth, death, present residence, and family. Nearly 2/3 of the ATAs offer these personal information. The last two strategies, ‘Residence’ and ‘Family’ in Table 1 are the newly identified units in the present English data, not reported in Paik (2016).

Table 1: Strategies of the move ‘Giving Personal Information’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identity:</strong> Who/What is the author?</td>
<td>Michelle Obama is the First Lady of the U.S. and the mother of two daughters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth: Where was the author born?</td>
<td>Hisham Matar was born in New York City to Libyan parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth: Where &amp; How did the author grow up? Any specific episodes?</td>
<td>Hisham Matar (was born in New York city to Libyan parents) and spent his childhood first in Tripoli and then in Cairo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death: If the author has passed away, when, where, or how did s/he die?</td>
<td>Professor Fromkin passed away on January 19, 2000, at the age of 76.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residence: Where does the author live? With whom?</td>
<td>She lives in Bel Air, California, with her husband, movie and television producer Steve Krantz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>/ She makes her home in Spring Hill, TN, with her children, her husband, her two cats, the family dog, chickens, rabbits, and fish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family: Information about the author’s family</td>
<td>Their son, Nathan, a recent University of Iowa graduate, has completed a year of post-grad studies in Japan.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The strategies for the obligatory move EC seem to be the answers to the question ‘What are the author’s qualifications like?’; ‘Is s/he qualified enough to write this book?’ as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: Strategies of the move ‘Establishing Credentials’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education:</strong></td>
<td>The author’s educational background, including schools, degrees &amp; other learning or training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Career:</strong></td>
<td>The author’s job, affiliation, activities (present &amp; past)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Awards:</strong></td>
<td>Awards and prizes that the author won or any registration or certificates obtained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Works:</strong></td>
<td>Mostly the author’s publication &amp; some original products or works by the author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Character:</strong></td>
<td>The author’s noticeable ideas, stories, characteristics, hobbies, likes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interest Areas:</strong></td>
<td>The author’s specialization, research or interest areas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The strategies of EC serve the purpose of establishing credentials of the author by highlighting the author’s career, works (publications), awards as well as their educational background and interest areas, which could, in return, increase the (potential) readers’ interest in the book. Especially, the strategy of ‘Character’ with some noticeable ideas or characteristics of the author is often very inviting.

Another move Offering Contacts (OC) includes the author’s e-mail, blog or web site. These strategies, similar to those classified into the move GPI, are about personal information.
Nevertheless, they were put into a separate category as these information were taken pretty much invitational and promotional. Offering contacts means an invitation to the author’s cyber space, where a further interaction between the author and the readers can happen. The example in Table 3 “Learn more about Wood and read her other popular blog at Momover.net.” (#D23) well discloses this promotional intent. The move OC was employed in about a quarter (22.6%) of all the ATAs.

Table 3: Strategies of the move ‘Offering Contacts’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Offering Contacts (OC)</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contacts:</td>
<td>E-Mail/Website/Blog</td>
<td><a href="http://www.RHawke.com">www.RHawke.com</a> (#A3) / Readers can contact Perri O Shaughnessy at <a href="mailto:perrio@hotbot.com">perrio@hotbot.com</a> (#A7) /</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Learn more about Wood and read her other popular blog at Momover.net. (#D23)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last optional move Promoting the Book (PB) is realized by a very brief introduction of the book, such as “This is her first novel.” (#A29), or “Essays in Love is his first book.” (#C18). These constitute the strategy of ‘Introduction’. The other strategy, ‘Quotes’ refers to quotation from the main text. There was only 1 single case identified. PBs are found in only a negligible percentage of the texts (3.9%).

Rhetorical structures of the ATAs

The rhetorical structures of the ATAs are realized in various forms. The texts are formed with the optional moves GPI, OC, and PB, surrounding the obligatory move EC, as the pivotal role of which was described in the previous section. The key role of EC is confirmed again by the fact that nearly 1/3 of all the ATAs are realized with EC alone. The top 5 patterns in Table 4 explain 80% of all the data, which could be simply formulated as (GPI) + EC + (GPI/OC).

Table 4: The rhetorical structures of the ATAs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rhetorical Structures</th>
<th>Frequency (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) EC</td>
<td>47 (30.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) EC + GPI</td>
<td>32 (20.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) GPI + EC</td>
<td>21 (13.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) GPI + EC + GPI</td>
<td>9 (5.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) EC + GPI + OC</td>
<td>7 (5.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Other Miscellaneous Patterns</td>
<td>31 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>155 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results so far tell us that ATAs in English books are basically promotional. They not only introduce the author but also arouse (potential/) readers’ interests in the book by creating confidence in the author, just as sales promotional letters or job application letters invite the (prospective/) purchasers’ inquiry of the goods or the employer’s interview by introducing or promoting goods or candidates in detail. The only difference would be that, while these are directly promotional by detailing their offer or candidate and their values (what they want to sell³, in other words), the ATAs are indirectly promotional by focusing more on the author’s qualifications in detail or by offering contacts, rather than promoting the book directly.

**Distributional patterns of the moves and strategies**

The distribution or preference of the moves was found to be correlated with the genre of the books which include the ATAs. Figure 4 summarizes this result.

Figure 4: Move preferences of the ATAs⁴

As stated earlier, move EC is obligatory and move PB is negligible in their occurrences, meaning that these moves are not basically open to any significant variation across the text types of the books. However, we find that the preference for GPI and OC are not the same across the 5 genres of the books, i.e., the 2 moves are the most frequently found in the literary genre (novels, poems & plays) and the least frequently found in the academic text books, which means the difference in the amount of the readers’ curiosity to know the authors’ personal aspects. The author’s personal background seem to be believed to have something to do with the contents more

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³ In these texts, ‘Introducing (or Promoting) the Offer/Candidate’ is found to be the most elaborated move. See Bhatia (1993), Henry & Roseberry (2001), Gao & Lee (2012) among others.

⁴ The percentages in the Figure 4 denotes the percentages of the books employing the appropriate move in each genre. For example, 94.6 in the graph means that 94.6% of the ATAs in the literary books include move GPI.
in literary books than in academic textbooks in which it would be all about the author’s knowledge and qualification. It is no wonder that the second highest frequency is found in the miscellaneous genre including literary jottings, personal essays, and memoires which all carry pretty much [+literary] feature.

The differences in the move preference must reflect the difference in the amount of personal information expected from different genre books. This interpretation is supported by an independent evidence, the appearance of the authors’ photos. The author’s look could be another personal information that could be presented if the readers want more about the author’s personal state. The appearance of the photos shows basically the same pattern across genres; the highest in the literary genre and the lowest in the academic books with the other genre-books in between. Table 5 shows the result.

Table 5: The appearance of the author’s photo across genres of the books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Photos</th>
<th>Literary (n=37)</th>
<th>Miscellaneous (n=23)</th>
<th>Essay (n=19)</th>
<th>Self-Education (n=40)</th>
<th>Academic (n=36)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poems, novels &amp; plays</td>
<td>poems,</td>
<td>personal essays &amp; memoires</td>
<td>cultural/ social &amp; liberal arts</td>
<td>clothing, homemaking, cooking, design, housing &amp; etiquettes</td>
<td>textbooks (collegiate &amp; graduate)</td>
<td>67/155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(62.2%)</td>
<td>(39.1%)</td>
<td>(42.1%)</td>
<td>(47.5%)</td>
<td>(22.2%)</td>
<td>(43.2%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distributional patterns of the strategies were also found to be influenced by the text types of the books. Regarding the overall frequencies of occurrence, the strategies of the move EC were preferred in the order of Career > Works > Awards=Education > Interest Area > Character. However, the preference varied significantly across genres with a couple of strategies.
Table 6: Distribution of the strategies for EC across genres of the books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move Strategies</th>
<th>Literary (n=37)</th>
<th>Miscellaneous (n=23)</th>
<th>Essay (n=19)</th>
<th>Self-Edu (n=40)</th>
<th>Academic (n=36)</th>
<th>Total 155 Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texts with EC</td>
<td>37/37 (100%)</td>
<td>22/23 (95.7%)</td>
<td>19/19 (100%)</td>
<td>40/40 (100%)</td>
<td>36/36 (100%)</td>
<td>154/155 (99.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>7/37 (18.9%)</td>
<td>2/22 (9.1%)</td>
<td>5/19 (26.3%)</td>
<td>10/40 (25%)</td>
<td>16/36 (44.4%)</td>
<td>40/154 (26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career</td>
<td>19/37 (51.4%)</td>
<td>14/22 (63.6%)</td>
<td>19/19 (100%)</td>
<td>31/40 (77.5%)</td>
<td>36/36 (100%)</td>
<td>119/154 (77.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character</td>
<td>3/37 (8.1%)</td>
<td>4/22 (18.2%)</td>
<td>2/19 (10.5%)</td>
<td>3/40 (7.5%)</td>
<td>0/36 (0%)</td>
<td>12/154 (7.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awards</td>
<td>12/37 (32.4%)</td>
<td>3/22 (13.6%)</td>
<td>4/19 (21.1%)</td>
<td>9/40 (22.5%)</td>
<td>14/36 (38.9%)</td>
<td>42/154 (27.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works</td>
<td>32/37 (86.5%)</td>
<td>14/22 (63.6%)</td>
<td>12/19 (63.2%)</td>
<td>27/40 (67.5%)</td>
<td>21/36 (58.3%)</td>
<td>106/154 (68.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest Areas</td>
<td>0/37 (0%)</td>
<td>0/22 (0%)</td>
<td>1/19 (5.3%)</td>
<td>3/40 (7.5%)</td>
<td>15/36 (41.7%)</td>
<td>9/154 (12.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, we find very similar distributional patterns of the strategies of Education, Career and Interest Areas, i.e., the adoption rate is the highest in the academic textbooks and the lowest in the two literary genres with the other genre-books in between these rates. Especially, it is not surprising that the strategy of Interest Areas is found in 41.7%, a distinctively high percentage, of the college textbooks for which the authors’ fields of specialization are the key qualifications. In the meantime, creative writers prefer to claim their credentials more with their original works than with the educational background or career. The strategy of Works occurs the most frequently in the literary genre and the least frequently in the academic textbooks. The data shows that ‘X is the author of A, B and C… ’ is the formulaic style of introducing the author’s publication as in, “RICHARD HAWKE is the author of Speak of the Devil and Cold Day in Hell.” (#A2) or “She is the author of two previous Keren Pelletier mysteries, Agatha Award-nominated Quieter than Sleep, and The
Northbury Papers, and she has just completed her fourth Cold & Pure & Very Dead.” (#A17). Interestingly though, the strategy of Awards, as one of the most obvious markers of one’s achievements, is hired in about the same rate in both literary and academic books, which contrasts with the previous contours. It is mainly due to the fact that research fund or grant the authors received were categorized into Awards as well.

Regarding the move GPI, the most preferred strategy is Residence, followed by Identity, Birth, Growth, Family and Death in the order of occurrence rate. This means that the (prospective/) readers’ curiosity about the author centers on his/her present residence and identity above the other information. Previously, the generic difference in the distribution of the moves has been already described along with interpretation; The adoption of move GPI marks the highest rate in the literary genre and the lowest rate in the academic books, with the other genre-books in between. As is illustrated in Table 7 below, this contour is quite similarly repeated with the strategies of Residence, Family, Birth and Growth across genres, though with some differences in the absolute percentages. Especially, the occurrence rate of Residence in the literary books are remarkably higher than that of any other strategy intra-generically and inter-generically as well.

Another noticeable strategy in GPI is the Identification, the preference of which is markedly higher in self-educational books. This could be attributed to the fact that these books are written by a much wider variety of specialists in housing, clothing, fashion, cooking, financial management, home-making and numerous other areas, which means, there naturally arise much more needs to identify the writers; Who they are or what they originally do. Whereas the identities of the writers of the literary or academic books are easily expected or pretty much obvious, i.e., usually, they are professional creative writers and professors or researchers. The other genre-books are also written by professional people such as journalists, broadcasters, reporters, politicians or even professors. However, those genre books have relatively narrower range of writers than self-educational books.

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5 The percentage of the strategy of Death (16.7%) of the Academic genre in Table 7 is meaningless as we have only one such case throughout the whole data, thus, excluded from the present discussion.
Table 7: Distribution of the strategies for GPI across genres of the books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Literary (n=37)</th>
<th>Miscellaneous (n=23)</th>
<th>Essay (n=19)</th>
<th>Self-Edu (n=40)</th>
<th>Academic (n=36)</th>
<th>Total Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TextwithDPI</td>
<td>35/37 (94.6%)</td>
<td>19/23 (82.6%)</td>
<td>11/19 (57.9%)</td>
<td>28/40 (70%)</td>
<td>6/36</td>
<td>99/155 (63.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>7/35 (20%)</td>
<td>6/19 (31.6%)</td>
<td>1/11 (9.1%)</td>
<td>17/28 (60.7%)</td>
<td>2/6</td>
<td>33/99 (33.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>14/35 (40%)</td>
<td>6/19 (31.6%)</td>
<td>2/11 (18.2%)</td>
<td>2/28 (7.1%)</td>
<td>0/6</td>
<td>24/99 (24.2%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>6/35 (17.1%)</td>
<td>1/19 (5.3%)</td>
<td>0/11</td>
<td>3/28 (10.7%)</td>
<td>0/6</td>
<td>10/99 (10.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0/19 (0%)</td>
<td>0/11</td>
<td>0/28</td>
<td>1/6</td>
<td>1/99 (1.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residence</td>
<td>33/35 (94.3%)</td>
<td>11/19 (57.9%)</td>
<td>9/11 (81.8%)</td>
<td>14/28 (50%)</td>
<td>2/6</td>
<td>69/99 (69.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>3/35 (14.3%)</td>
<td>2/19 (10.5%)</td>
<td>0/19</td>
<td>0/28</td>
<td>0/6</td>
<td>7/99 (7.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Stylistic features**

The majority of the ATAs in English are not headed. This result can be mainly attributed to the location of the texts: More than half of the ATAs (55%) appear on the back flap separately or following the blurb texts which often stretch to the back flap from the front flap, or they appear on the back cover following the blurb text, which seem to have naturally led Kathpalia (1997) to count these ATAs as part of the whole book blurb text. Those ATAs simply start with some spacing and the author(s)' names in different size and font and sometimes in different color.

... In the trademark *Momover* style popularized in her eponymous blog, she provides the motivation you need to hop off the new mommy self-pity train, and get with a new and improved post-baby program. What’s more, she provides that doing right by yourself is just another way of doing right by your baby.

**Momover**: Because centered, happy you = centered happy baby

*Dana Wood* is a mother, wife, and the writer of “Momover”, an online column that explores the collision of age and first-time motherhood. Currently the senior fashion features editor of *W*, Wood has served as the beauty director of *W* and the health and beauty director of *Cookie*. In her twenty-plus years of journalism, she has also written for numerous national publications, including *Glamour, Harper’s Bazaar, Instyle, Women’s Health, Self, and People*. Learn more about Wood and read her popular blog at Momover.net. She lives in New York, NY. (`#D23`)
Figure 5: An example of ATA text without heading (following the blurb on the back cover)


Table 8 below shows the 6 styles of heading of the ATAs in English books. If a book is to head its ATA text, ‘About the Author(s)’ is the most preferred style among others.

Table 8: The heading styles of the ATAs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heading Styles</th>
<th>Total (155 Texts)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) No Heading</td>
<td>104/155 (67.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) About the Author(s)</td>
<td>35/155 (22.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) John Smith</td>
<td>5/155 (3.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) The Author John Smith</td>
<td>4/155 (2.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) Title of the Book</td>
<td>5/155 (3.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Title of the Book</td>
<td>5/155 (3.2%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other frequently occurring features identified in the English ATAs are listing, apposition, and various types of adjuncts. Among these, listing is the most distinctive property used in the great majority of the texts. Usually, the author(s)’ multiple identities, career, or works (or products) are enumerated, which is fairly natural when the main purpose of the ATAs is to establish the author’s credentials for which the author’s career or products are the foremost resources. Below are some examples, in which the different color, fonts or boldness of the authors’ names and different layouts are original.

(1) **LUANNE RICE** is the author of twenty-two novels, most recently *The Edge of Winter, Sandcastles, Summer of Roses, Summer’s Child, Silver Bells,* and *Beach Girls.* She lives in New York City …

(2) Crime reporter and best-selling author **APHRODITE JONES** has commented on the high-profile trials of O. J. Simpson, Kobe Bryant, Scott Peterson, Michael Jackson, Robert Blake, and many others…...
(3) **Laura Ingraham** is the #1 *New York Times* bestselling author of *Power to the people*, the most listened-to woman in political talk radio as host of her own nationally syndicated radio program, a Fox News contributor, and permanent substitute host for *O’Reilly Factor*. A former Supreme Court law clerk and white-collar criminal defense litigator, she lives in the Washington, D.C. area with her two children.

Visit www.LauraIngraham.com  

Appositions are mostly used to identify or qualify the author, his/her works or activities, which is an efficient way of succinct description.

(4) **Television personality Joni Lamb** is executive producer and host of the daily show of *Joni* show, …  

(5) **Emmy Award-winning writer Merrill Markoe** lives in Los Angeles, California, the garden spot of America, with four dogs and a man. …

(6) Michelle O’bama is the First Lady of the U.S. and the mother of two daughters. In February 2010, she launched *Let’s Move!* , a nationwide initiative to address our epidemic of childhood obesity by bringing healthier food into schools and communities, and encouraging kids to be more active. *American Grown* is her first book…

(7) Khaled Hosseini was born in Kabul, Afghanistan, and moved to the United States in 1980. *The Kite Runner*, his first novel, is an international bestseller, published in forty countries. His second novel, the #1 national bestseller *A Thousand Splendid Suns*, was published in 2007…

Using adjuncts is another way of compressing additional qualification and description. Adjuncts usually modify the subjects.

(8) ... **A frequent Mystery Writers of America Edgar nominee**, he has earned an unprecedented fourteen Private Eye Writers of America Shamus nominations for his historical thrillers, …

(9) … **A widely acknowledged expert on country music**, he is former editor of the Hall of Fame’s Journal of Country Music. He is author of …
These features, combined with each other as well as other syntactic devices such as relative clauses or participle phrases, often produce very condensed and complex sentences, which is definitely to include as much information as possible in a relatively short text. The complex sentences as below are not infrequent.

(10) Ken Mitchell, born in 1940 in Moose Jaw, Saskatchewan, is the author of three books of fiction, including The Con Man (Talonebooks, 1979), and several plays, among them Chautauqua Girl and the award-winning Gone the Burning Sun. (#A41)

(11) The recipient of numerous prestigious awards, amongst them the Crystal Award by the World Economic Forum and France’s Legion d’Honneur, Paulo Coelho was inducted into the Brazilian Academy of Letters in 2002. (#C16)

(12) CHITRA BANERJEE DIVAKARUNI, born in India, is an award-winning poet who teaches creative writing at Foothill College in Los Altos Hills, California, where she also serves as president of MAITRI, a helpline for South Asian women. (#A42)

Some cross-cultural variation

It has become self-evident from the moves and strategies that the ATAs in English books duly comprise a sub-genre of various promotional texts, in which the ‘relative selves’ of the authors are presented to establish credentials. The analysis of this study reveals that the ATAs in English books share the same communicative purpose with those in Korean books (Paik, 2016). To serve this goal, different moves and strategies are adopted to suit the contents of the books. Various stylistic features, usually focusing on the authors, also fulfill their functions to bring about condensed but richer descriptions in relatively short ATAs.

Usually, the characteristics of a communicative event become more distinctive or turn out to be language/culture specific only when the event is contrasted with the same event in other communities. Interestingly enough, we find some cross-cultural variation with the ATAs between the inner, native group of English speaking discourse communities (present study) and the Korean speaking community (Paik, 2016).

The first difference is found with the move PB. The overall preference of each move is strikingly the same in the two communities but PB. Table 9 shows that this move is hardly employed in the English ATAs.
Table 9: Overall occurrence of the moves in Korean and English ATAs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>ATAs in Korean (n=158)</th>
<th>ATAs in English (n=155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establishing Credentials (EC)</td>
<td>157 (99.4%)</td>
<td>154 (99.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving Personal Info (GPI)</td>
<td>97 (61.4%)</td>
<td>99 (63.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering Contacts (OC)</td>
<td>36 (23.32%)</td>
<td>35 (22.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting the Book (PB)</td>
<td>33 (20.9%)</td>
<td>6 (3.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that the move PBs are found in the lowest rates in both languages could be attributed to the same communicative goal of the ATAs in the two communities: To establish credentials of the author, thus promoting the book ‘indirectly’. Nevertheless, much lower percentage (3.9%) of PB in English ATAs, as analyzed earlier, is ascribed to the location of the texts which often follows the book blurb texts on the back flap or on the back cover. They seem to prefer not to promote the book right after the book blurb texts to avoid redundancy. Korean ATAs, on the other hand, the great majority of which are located on front flaps or inner leaves, separately from the promotional copies on the book jacket (Paik, 2016), are partly sharing the load of advocating the book.

The different geography of the texts also seem to have affected the heading styles in the two languages. While ‘No Heading’ style predominates over the ATAs in English, explaining 2/3 of the present data, it is the author’s name which commands 2/3 of the whole heading styles in Korean ATAs (Paik 2016). Naturally, the lighter load of PB in the ATAs in English has developed less strategies than those in Korean. Introduction and Quotes are the two single strategies in the English data while there are two more strategies in Korean texts; ‘Criticism’ and ‘Recommendation’.

Disagreement in the strategies are witnessed in the move GPI and EC as well. Table 10 summarizes the presence and absence of the strategies in the two languages along with the overall preference within each move.

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6 ‘Criticism’ is the critical analysis or interpretation of the book. ‘Recommendation’ is any direct or indirect recommendatory statements by the publisher or a third party. See Paik (2016).
Table 10: The strategies of ATAs in English and Korean and their overall occurrence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>ATAs in Korean (n=158)</th>
<th>ATAs in English (n=155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Giving Personal Information (GPI)</td>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>(n=97) 42 (43.3%)</td>
<td>33 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>(n=99) 62 (63.9%)</td>
<td>24 (24.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>13 (13.4%)</td>
<td>10 (10.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Death</td>
<td>3 (3.1%)</td>
<td>1 (1.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residence</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>69 (69.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>7 (7.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishing Credentials (EC)</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>(n=157) 109 (69.4%)</td>
<td>40 (26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Debut</td>
<td>28 (17.8%)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career</td>
<td>151 (96.2%)</td>
<td>119 (77.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Awards</td>
<td>53 (33.8%)</td>
<td>42 (27.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Works</td>
<td>120 (76.4%)</td>
<td>106 (68.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Character</td>
<td>34 (21.7%)</td>
<td>12 (7.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interest Areas</td>
<td>9 (5.7%)</td>
<td>19 (12.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting the Book (PB)</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>(n=33) 32 (96.9%)</td>
<td>6 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Criticism</td>
<td>4 (13.3%)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommendation</td>
<td>1 (3.3%)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quotes</td>
<td>2 (6.7%)</td>
<td>1 (16.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering Contacts (OC)</td>
<td>E-Mails/ Websites/Blogs etc. (n=37)</td>
<td>Not counted</td>
<td>(n=35) Not counted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first difference noticed is that move GPI in the English ATAs is realized with two more strategies, i.e., Residence and Family. Besides, Residence is the most preferred strategy in the English data while it is Birth in the Korean ATAs. Regarding the frequently offered information about the author’s birth (when and/or where s/he was born), Paik (2016) ascribed this to Korean specific cultural concerns in one’s origin and relative social standing in general. She also pointed out many other daily social practices of probing each other’s age directly and indirectly by questioning others’ ages, school years, military service years or all the other sorts of seniority involved in the situation. According to Paik (2016), age is counted as pretty much basic information about a person in Korea. The present study, on the other hand, shows that the author’s present or recent situation, where s/he lives (with whom), is the foremost concerns in the US, UK or Canada when they want to know about anything personal about the author. They are not concerned about the writer’s age.

The difference in the two languages seem to reflect basically different ways of identifying or understanding a person; The native English-speaking people are likely to understand a person
starting with his/her present situation, while Koreans tend to grasp the others starting with their origin. This interpretation is partly supported by the order of information listed in one’s CV or resume in English and Korean, which is another type of ‘introduction’ text of a person; While Koreans enumerate relevant facts starting with those of the past, it is the other way around in English, i.e., present to past.

This interpretation is supported again by a study of another type of ‘introduction’ text, biography. According to Kim (2016), who analyzed the military biographies of U.S. naval officers, providing personal background such as one’s origin is classified as one of the six constructing moves. This move normally includes information about the officer’s birth place without birth date, which exactly parallels the strategy of Birth in the English ATAs. If the author’s birth related information is given in these texts, it is usually when it includes rather a marked story (e.g., the author is born in a foreign country) or it is closely relevant with the contents of the book (e.g., the author, a native of a certain place became a photographer capturing the beauty of his native place and so on). The author’s age is hardly disclosed. The only difference between the ATAs and the biographies of naval officers would be that information about one’s birth place is rather optional in ATAs while it is nearly obligatory in the biographies.

Strategic differences are found in the move EC as well. The first noticeable point is the lack of the strategy of Debut in the ATAs in English. Though the overall occurrence is not very high in the Korean data either, the story of the author’s debut is sometimes offered in Korean ATAs, especially when the author is a creative writer, the story is told in 2/3 (66.7%) of all the literary books (Paik, 2016). This tells us that it is one of the conventional practices worthy of attention specific to Korean literary discourse community.

The other cross-cultural difference in EC is the overall occurrence of each strategy. Table 10 shows us that we could find each strategy more often in the Korean ATAs, in general, than in the English texts except Interest Areas. Besides, we find a sharp difference in the two languages with the strategy of Education; The author’s educational background is introduced far more often in Korean ATAs. This might simply reflect relatively bigger concerns in education of Korean people, i.e., the famous (or notorious) zeal for education which is believed to be one of the essential elements of respectable and competitive person. However, considering the fact that the strategy of Education usually mentions the author’s majors and schools, we could suspect it is because one’s educational background works as a distinctive ‘social label’ in Korea. Or, this could disclose the

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7 The six moves identified are ‘Identification’, ‘Personal Information’, ‘Education and Commission’, ‘Military Career’ (of 2 sorts; in terms of sea/operational tours & in terms of shore tours), and ‘Achievements’, which almost parallel the moves and strategies of the ATAs regarding the information offered.
fact that educational background still fulfils the function of ‘status property’ in Korean society (Kang, 2015) far stronger than in the English speaking communities investigated in the present research.

Interestingly enough, the majority of the cross-cultural differences discussed so far are clearly contrasted in the two ATAs of the same writer, Kyung-Sook Shin in Korean and English.

![A Photo of the Author](a ATA on the front flap kyungsook shin)

KYUNG-SOOK SHIN is the author of numerous works of fiction and is one of South Korea’s most widely read and acclaimed novelists. (GPI: Identity) She has been honored with the Manhae Literature Prize, the Dong-in Literature Prize, and the Yi Sang Literary Prize, as well as France’s Prix de l’Inapercu. (EC: Awards) Please Look after Mom is her first book to appear in English and will be published in twenty-three countries. (PB: Introduction) Currently a visiting scholar at Columbia University in New York City, she lives in Seoul. (GPI: Residence)


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![A Photo of the Author](b ATA on the back flap kyungsook shin)

Figure 6: Two ATAs of Kyung-Sook Shin in Korean and English (*Ø denotes a deleted subject)

As illustrated in Figure 6, text (a) is the ATA of a Korean novelist Kyung-Sook Shin (translated into English for this article) in her novel, Please Look after Mom. Text (b) is the English version of the same book published in New York and Toronto. Even when we take the move PB in text (b) out of consideration for comparability (as it is employed seemingly because the book is translated), the two texts well illustrate both the common core of the ATAs in English and Korean as well as some cross-cultural variation; The moves EC and GPI as their pivotal units but with some disagreement in style and strategies. First, the two texts contrast in their geography and heading styles as discussed earlier. What is notable in the Korean text is that all the sentences delete their

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8 These two texts are not from the data of this study or Paik (2016) but searched for an illustration of the cross-cultural variation discussed.
subjects, which was identified as the strongest device of coherence to make the most distinctive stylistic feature of the Korean ATAs (see Paik, 2016). Then we find that the Korean text employs more strategies in general. The two texts also disclose the existence (or absence) and preference of the strategies; The English text lacks the strategies of Birth, Education, and Debut that the Korean text employs, while the Korean text lacks the strategy of Residence, which is the foremost concern in the English speaking communities.

Conclusion

The analyses so far have answered the question of this study, ‘Why are About the Author texts in English written and used the way they are?’; It is basically to build credentials of the author. The rhetorical structures with certain moves and strategies along with their distributional patterns have specified the ways for this conventionalized communicative purpose to be realized in some English speaking communities investigated in this study. We also come to realize that ATAs in English is the function of this communicative goal, contextual factors, and some cultural emphasis, i.e., an example of ‘language in use’.

This study is significant in that it has provided, along with Paik (2016) and Kim (2016), further empirical evidence that there are some variation at strategic level even within the similar genre texts across discourse communities. The results of this study also offer very useful implication and resources for both teachers and learners of English pursuing generic competence in the English language at formal and pragmatic level as well; The ‘knowledge of the code’, ‘genre knowledge’, ‘sensitivity to cognitive structuring’ (as mentioned in Bhatia, 1997). Most importantly, ESL/EFL students could have some significant insight into what it is like to identify or grasp a person in another culture which could be different from that of their own.

References


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Title
EFL Students’ Awareness of Strategic Reading Processes: Facts and Challenges

Author
Leonora Saantje Tamaela
Pattimura University, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Leonora Saantje Tamaela is a lecturer of English at Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University, Ambon, Indonesia. Her research interests are language assessment and material development. Her email address is saantje15@gmail.com

Abstract
The objectives of this research are: (1) to find out whether there is significant difference between male and female students’ awareness of strategic reading processes; (2) to find out whether there is a significant difference between social science and natural science students’ awareness of strategic reading processes. The research applied metacomprehension strategy index (MSI) to assess students’ reading strategy process. Survey questionnaires containing 25 multiple choice questions were distributed to a sample of 224 first grade senior high school students who participated voluntarily in the study. The data were analyzed descriptively and quantitatively. The results revealed that students’ awareness of strategic reading processes were not yet satisfying. This might be the cause why students’ reading comprehension were low. Hopefully the findings of this study can give insight for teachers to take serious action in dealing with students low reading comprehension caused by their unawareness of strategic reading processes.

_________________________
Leonora Saantje Tamaela,
English Language Department of Teacher Training Faculty, Pattimura University
Jl. Dr. Tamaela, Ambon, Maluku, Indonesia
Keywords: awareness, metacomprehension, reading strategies

Introduction

Reading comprehension is important in students’ life, including those who are going to pursue their studies at higher education, since they will have a lot of readings to do. Therefore to assists students in their reading comprehension phases and to know whether comprehension is taking place it is suggested to know what is in their brain when they read and the strategies they apply in their reading such as how they plan, arrange and evaluate their own reading. This is known as metacognitive reading strategies. In line with this Paris, Wasik and Turner (1991) in Israel, Block, Bauserman and Kinnucan-Welsch (2008:6) stated that a reading event can be described as: preparing to read, constructing meaning while reading, and reviewing and reflecting on reading. Regarding this matter Gardner (1987) stated that metacognition addresses one’s knowledge and use of one’s own cognitive resources. Therefore to examine students’ awareness of reading strategies, known as metacognitive awareness, a study was carried out to find out students reading processes before, during, and after reading a text.

Researches and practices in Indonesia have been implemented to improve EFL (English Foreign Language) students reading comprehension. Eventhough the results have shown improvement in some settings, the reading comprehension of students remains a problem nationally. One of the causes might be students metacognitive unawareness of reading processes. According to Singhal (2001) metacognitive strategies are behaviors undertaken by the learners to plan, arrange, and evaluate their own learning.

Therefore this study was aimed at finding out students’ awareness of strategic reading processes by using Metacomprehension Strategy Index (MSI), a measurement instrument developed by Schmitt (2008).

Literature Review

Reading Strategy

As stated by Paris, Lipson, and Wixson (1994) strategic readers have the ability to apply appropriate strategies to their reading situation. They also mentioned that the terms strategy and skill are used interchangeably to describe different types of processes during reading. Furthermore, Griffith and Ruan in Israel, Block, Bauserman, Kinnucan-Welsch (2008:8) quoted Paris et.al. (1994) stating that an action becomes strategic when being selected from among alternatives to achieve an intended goal. In other words, they suggested that “an
emerging skill can become a strategy when used intentionally”, and that a strategy can become a skill.

**Metacomprehension Strategy Index**

Metacomprehension Strategy Index (MSI) is a multiple-choice questionnaire that is used to evaluate learners’ awareness of strategies before, during, and after reading (Schmitt, 2008:113). Table 1 shows the strategies measured by MSI as quoted from Schmitt (2008:105)

Table 1. Strategies Measured by MSI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicting and Verifying</th>
<th>Predicting the content of a text promotes active comprehension by giving readers a purpose for reading. Evaluating predictions and generating new ones as necessary enhances the constructive nature of the reading process.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Previewing</td>
<td>Previewing the text facilitates comprehension by activating background knowledge and providing information for making predictions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose Setting</td>
<td>Reading with a purpose promotes active, strategic reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Questioning</td>
<td>Generating questions to be answered promotes active comprehension by giving readers a purpose for reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing from Background Knowledge</td>
<td>Activating and incorporating information from background knowledge contributes to comprehension by helping readers make inferences and generate predictions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing and Applying Fix-up Strategies</td>
<td>Summarizing the content at various points in the text serves as a form of comprehension monitoring. Rereading or suspending judgment and reading on when comprehension breaks down represents strategic reading.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Method**

In this study survey questionnaires, each containing 25 multiple-choice questions, were distributed to 224 voluntarily participating respondents. They were first grade high school students comprising 82 male and 142 female students majoring in social sciences and natural sciences. The questionnaire is aimed at measuring students’ awareness on six categories of strategic processes in reading as mentioned previously. In the instruction it is stated that students should think about the things that could help them understand a text better before, during and after they read it. In this research, emphasis is on the quantitative aspects. The
writer collected quantitative survey data to identify factors of students’ (un) awareness of reading strategies.

**Findings and Discussion**

Table 2 shows the raw data of students’ awareness of strategic reading processes in Social Science and Natural Science’s classes for each category. It also indicates that the average percentage of six categories is 36.87% which is very low.

**Table 2. Result of Students’ Awareness of Strategic Reading Processes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Social Science</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Natural Science</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total M &amp; F of SS &amp; NS</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M &amp; F</td>
<td></td>
<td>M &amp; F</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#student</td>
<td>39 36 69 64</td>
<td>108 100</td>
<td>43 37 73 63</td>
<td>116 100</td>
<td>82 37 142 63</td>
<td>224 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicting &amp; Verifying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102 261.5 180</td>
<td>260.9</td>
<td>282.0 118 274.4</td>
<td>186 254.8</td>
<td>304.0 262.1</td>
<td>220 268.3 366 257.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>14.6 37.4 25.7</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>40.3 37.3 16.9</td>
<td>39.2 26.6</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>43.4 37.4 31.4 38.3 52.3 36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previewing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45 115.4 88 127.5</td>
<td>133 123.1</td>
<td>62 144.2 90 123.3</td>
<td>152 131.0</td>
<td>107 130.5 178 125.4</td>
<td>285 127.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>22.5 57.7 44.0</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>66.5 61.6 31.0</td>
<td>72.1 45.0</td>
<td>61.6</td>
<td>76.0 65.5 53.5 65.2 89.0 62.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose Setting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46 117.9 65 94.2</td>
<td>111 102.8</td>
<td>49 114.0 77</td>
<td>105.5</td>
<td>126 108.6 95 115.9</td>
<td>142 100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>15.3 39.3 21.7</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>37.0 34.3 16.3</td>
<td>38.0 25.7</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>42.0 36.2 31.7 38.6 47.3 33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Questioning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33 84.6 55 79.7</td>
<td>88 81.5</td>
<td>38 88.4 50 68.5</td>
<td>88 75.9</td>
<td>71 86.6 105 73.9</td>
<td>176 78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>11.0 28.2 18.3</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>29.3 27.2 12.7</td>
<td>29.5 16.7</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>29.3 25.3 23.7 28.9 35.0 24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing from Background Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>73 187.2 151 218.8</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>207.4 96 223.3 157 215.1</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>218.1</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>12.2 31.2 25.2</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>37.3 34.6 16.0</td>
<td>37.2 26.2</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>42.2 36.4 28.2 34.3 51.3 36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing &amp; Applying Fix-up Strategies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>55 141.0 90 130.4</td>
<td>145 134.3</td>
<td>68 158.1 91 124.7</td>
<td>159 137.1</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>150.0 181 127.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>13.8 35.3 22.5</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>36.3 33.6 17.0</td>
<td>39.5 22.8</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>39.8 34.3 30.8 37.5 45.3 31.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis test using two sided paired t-test, with $\alpha = 5\%$, on raw data in Table 2 showed that, each of the $t_{\text{cal}}$ values, for the two cases laid inside the range $t_{(0.025,24)} = -2.064 < t_{\text{cal}} < t_{(0.025,24)} = 2.064$. Therefore it could be concluded that there were no difference between the process of reading strategies between male and female students as well as between the social science and the natural science students.
Conclusion

The result of the study indicates that both participants from Social Science and Natural Science were unaware of strategic reading processes. MSI is a valuable instrument for students (and teachers) to evaluate and think critically about their reading strategy processes for the improvement of reading comprehension. Teachers are expected and challenged to prepare and train students to be responsible of their own reading strategies and hence become motivated skilled readers.

References


Title

Students’ Perception to Asean Economic Community and their English Speaking Skill:
A Case Study of Economics Students in Economics Faculty

Author

Lesta Karolina Br Sebayang
Universitas Negeri Semarang

Bio-Profile:

Lesta Karolina Br Sebayang is an economics lecturer who is active in doing research, community services and teaching and learning. She is also a head department of Economics Development at Universitas Negeri Semarang. She is interested in researching about economic growth, education and public policies.

Abstract

Asean Economic Community (MEA) has been implemented at the beginning of this year. Indonesians have made preparation in many sectors such as improving infrastructures, economy, education, etc. This study aims at knowing the students’ perception to Asean Economic Community, knowing the students’ speaking skill, and strategies used by the students for speaking. For knowing the students’ perception, 90 (ninety) questioners were distributed. Then, 10 students were chosen randomly for conveying their opinions about MEA. It was conducted for knowing the students’ skill and the strategies used in speaking. The collected data were analyzed qualitatively. After analyzing the data, some findings are yielded. First, not all students understand what MEA is. Second, 90.25% students realize that they should improve their skills, especially English for competing in MEA. Third, the students’ speaking skills are still low. Further, their grammar are not well used, the vocabulary they have are limited, and they are not really fluent in presenting the materials in English. Finally, some strategies such as language switch, literal translation and approximation are implemented.
Introduction

One of supports given by the government for the less in pursuing higher education is by providing grants for them. One of the scholarship given for students is called Bidik misi program. It is a scholarship given for smart students but they are incapable to afford the tuition fee. Having said this, it means, the grantees are special students and are obliged to maintain their achievement at college. They are also expected to be able to survive in facing fierce competition in ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) era. One of the required skills in competing with international communities is mastering international language- one of them is English language. Therefore, Bidikmisi grantees are also expected to acquire this skill. This research aims to investigate the level of Bidik Misi students skill at mastering English language.

A research conducted related to English skill of Indonesian people, in average, mostly, Indonesians have low level English skill. The Index of English skill from 44 countries was reported that Indonesia was at 34 rank meanwhile Malaysia was at 9 level. All 44 countries were non-English speaking countries or English is their foreign language. Based on the report, it is crucial to acknowledge the level of English. In terms of ASEAN Economic Community, it is also important to see how students see it. Then, it is also reported by ABC Radua Australia (16 May, 2014) that Indonesia was at 5 rank after Singapore, the Phillipunes, Malaysia, and Thailand. It means that Indonesia was better from Vietnam and Myanmar in mastering English.

Literature Review

To assess speaking, Brown (2004) designs lists of oral presentations by ranking them into four levels; Excellent (3), good (2), fair (1), and poor (0). Some elements which are ranked are: the content, the aim of the presentation, the opening, the way the ideas expressed by the speaker, expression, and the given summary. While Anderson (1990) defines speaking competence as an ability to use language appropriately in certain situation and express their meaning. This competence includes someone’s ability to differentiate when to use formal or informal language.
Then, Hymes (1972) adds that to achieve certain level of competence, mastering grammar is not enough. One should know how to use it appropriately. It means, not only the grammatical mastery is required, but also the comprehension on the use of language during social interactions.

Then, when one fails in having appropriate way to communicate, it is not rarely that one will use certain strategies. Various strategies for communication are helpful tools for someone to deliver his messages by using target language. Some strategies are also used when one find it difficult to convey their ideas (Bialystok :1990) such as approximation, language switch, and literal translation.

**Methodology**

This research used qualitative method. First, there were five selected students who were interviewed. Then, the result of the interview were transcribed and analyzed. The analysis used Brown’s oral competence check list (2004). After that, each strategies used by the students were classified.

**Findings and Discussion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Matter</th>
<th>Delivery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 (Poor)</td>
<td>1 (Fair)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R3</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R4</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R5</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 illustrates five students level of oral communication using English. They were asked three points related to what they think about ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), their preparation facing AEC, and what they need to do to improve their skill. The following table shows their competence in matter and delivery. First, related to the content they answered about AEC, they mostly know about MEA. Three students can explain with their own words what MEA is with critical errors using English language, but it is understandable. While, two out of five students have poor knowledge related to MEA. Second, related to
delivery, four out of five students have poor ability in conveying their messages. They hardly can express their answers.

Table 1: Students’ Oral Competence

Communication Strategies found in Students’ Speaking

The next questions are, when students have difficulty in delivering their opinion in English related to AEC, what kinds of strategies they use to keep answering the questions. It is found that the students use certain strategies as follows:

a) Approximation. The students tried to use English words as many as possible for making the addressee understand the information conveyed. However, the students realized that they had produced incorrect grammar.

b) Language switch. The students sometimes speak by using Indonesia terms for making their utterances fluent. However, the terms used did not create any confusion for knowing the meaning.

c) Literal translation. Word per word translation also became a strategy used by the students to make them keep on speaking by using English. Even though, sometimes some utterances are ingrammatical.

Based on the analysis done, literal translation was mostly used by the student for speaking. It is 74% of total strategies and the least used is language switch. Then, the following pie chart shows the details.

![Figure 1: Students’ Strategies](image-url)
Conclusion

From the conducted research, conclusion can be made. First, from the students’ perspective, students think that ASEAN Economic Community is beneficial for Indonesia. There need to improve their personality, creativity, work harder, being brave to compete with wider community, appreciate other cultures, having ability to adapt new environment, and mastering up-dated technology.

Then, related to English speaking skill level, students can be ranked at level 1 because they are able to communicate about familiar topics. Unfortunately, mostly, the participants hardly try to express their ideas because of limited vocabularies and grammatical knowledge. Therefore, they used certain strategies to cope with this problem. They used literal translation, approximation, and language switch.

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Self Identity: A Portrait of Learners in English Teacher Training and Education Programs

Luciana

Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia

Abstract

Gaining an understanding of teacher identity is a fundamental aspect to nurture learners in English teacher education programs. Such an argument is of greater importance within the context of globalization which exerts invisible force in teaching and learning. I am interested to address this issue by examining learners’ perceptions of their self identity change upon their English learning using a survey-based study. The thirty question questionnaires designed in a four-point Likert scale were adapted based on six categories: a) self confidence, b) additive, c) subtractive, d) productive, e) split, and f) zero change. The study involved 1150 students teachers in seven English teacher education programs in Java and five outside Java. The internal consistency reliability coefficients of self identity categories revealed that all six categories had the same coefficient reliability (.77). In Java, three categories ranked the first three: additive, subtractive, and productive change with different positions across seven teacher education programs. Outside Java, subtractive change consistently ranked the first, dominantly followed by productive and additive change. As for the other three categories—self confidence, split, zero change, Java and outside Java showed a similar pattern with slightly lower mean values (11.40-14.21) than additive, subtractive, and productive change. The study has shed light on self identity as a construct dynamically negotiated by learners as primary agency.

Keywords: Self identity change, teacher education programs, geographical locations
Introduction

Learning a second language (L2) is distinct. L2 learning involves the whole being of learners since language not only serves as means of communication but also reflect norms and culture (Gao, Cheng, & Zhao, 2005). Learners may be driven by a disposition to value, respect ways of life, and interact with the L2 community, arising the issue of identity. This issue needs attention when contextualized in the globalized world offering ample opportunities for learning. Yet the world’s being shrinking village should not diminish the very essence of L2 learners crafted with their own identity. As a matter of fact, it is that identity that makes up what globalized world means.

Given this importance, I would like to research learners’ self identity in the context of English teacher training and education programs (henceforth ETTEPs) in diverse geographical locations characterized by different cultures. Cochran-Smith (2005) critically reminds the critical position of teacher training and education programs:

…teacher education can be understood as social, ideological, rhetorical and political practice. Examining teacher education through social and ideological lenses means identifying the larger social structures and purposes within which it is embedded, as well as unpacking the cultural ideas, ideals, values, and beliefs to which it is attached. Analyzing teacher education through a rhetorical lens means taking account of the ways that metaphors, narratives, and literary devices are used strategically to garner support for the approaches various groups favor and also for their ways of understanding the issues in the first place. (p.3)

The research questions are twofolds: a) How do learners perceive their self identity change during and after their L2 learning and b) May the geographical locations of the ETTEPs come into play to learners’ self identity. Understanding self identity amidst teacher-embryo processes within this sociocultural and sociopolitical landscape would help linguists and educators tap on learners’ whole capacity. Borrowing sociologist Pierre Bourdieu’s term (1991, cited in Palmer, 2005, p.754), learners can exercise their ‘linguistic capital’ in the field of language teaching strategically. As English teachers-to be, learners have not been brought to conceive the power of their linguistic capital in their identity. If they themselves have never had a clear picture of their self identity, how can they exercise their linguistic capital for a far distant future students?
Literature Review

Globalization and Self Identity

Globalization, as Ryan (2006) argued, exerts profound changes toward language, language teaching, learning motivation, and language functioning. At the heart of the issue is the learners’ self identity when they learn English, a language no longer confined to a particular community, the phenomenon termed ‘linguascapes’ (Pennycook, 2003).

Lamber (1975) identified two possible identity orientations, ‘subtractive’ or ‘additive’ (as cited in Gao et al., 2005). The former will lead learners to take in the target language and target cultural identity, replacing their native language and identity. On the other hand, Arnett (2002) explained that the latter will maintain the learners’ native language and native cultural identity in addition to their own target language and target culture, resulting in a ‘bicultural identity’ (as cited in Ryan, 2006). This identity, as Ryan further contended, is not necessarily a binary choice, but ‘contextually dependent hybrids of local and global values’ (p.33). As an alternative to these two types of identities-subtractive and additive, Gao (2002) put forward ‘productive bilingualism’ in which the target and native language and culture positively reinforce each other, resulting in a deeper understanding and appreciation toward both languages.

Concomitant to this global identity, Kanno and Norton (2003, p. 1) mentioned imagined community--“groups of people not immediately tangible and accessible, with whom we connect through the power of the imagination” (as cited in Ryan, 2006). By nature, this imagined community is dynamic and tied to learners. They create and re-create their identity within the imagined community which is also re-evaluated continually.

Teachers play important roles to represent this imagined community to arouse learner motivation of learning English. Norton and Kamal (2003) contend that “When learners begin a program of instruction, they may be invested in communities that extend beyond the four walls of classroom. If the language teacher does not validate these imagined communities, student may resist participation in learning” (p.303).

Gao, et al. (2005) conducted research on self identity involving 2,278 undergraduates at 30 universities from 29 provinces across mainland China. They designed questionnaires with 24 statements self identity measured by a five-point Likert scale. They found that the English learning exerted influence most on the identity of their perception of their own competence. ‘Self esteem needs’ was identified as the major drive to learn English. They also found productive bilingualism present in these contexts. Demographically they reported
that English major and females participants were higher than non English major and males. In light of early age, they concluded that early learning developed more additive identity.

In sum, it can be highlighted that globalization and learner self identity are intricately related issues. They create invisible force that alters the foundations of language learning and the very perceptions of L2 learners of their identity.

**Identity and Teacher Education**

Developing a complete understanding of identity can be intricate due to a wide array of theoretical views encapsulating it. Yet shedding light on it in teacher development has been a concensus. Beauchamp & Thomas (2006) supported the need for an understanding of learners’ identity shift when embarking on their first year of practice. Lamote and Engels (2010) further argued that when learners develop themselves to be English teachers, their profession is bound to who they are and how they carry out their professionalism. In support of the view, Bullough (1997) clearly emphasized its importance:

Teacher identity—what beginning teachers believe about teaching and learning and self-as-a-teacher—is of vital concern to teacher education; it is the basis for meaning making and decision making… Teacher education must begin, then, by exploring the teaching self. (p.21)

Drawing from various studies, Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2011) pinpointed three key ideas underlying identity. First, it is transformational and transformative which embraces ‘the primacy of agency in identity formation’ shedding light on ‘understanding individuals as intentional beings’ (p.23). Second, Identity is socially, culturally, and politically bound (Duff & Uchida, 1997). Of this concept, two key ideas are pertinent: assigned identity, the identity imposed on one and claimed identity, the one claiming for oneself (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2002). Last, identity is developed by language and discourse (Gee, 1996; MacLure, 1993).

It is the last key idea of identity that is pertinent in this research at two levels. At a broader level, its conceptualization can be regarded associated closely to ‘linguistic capital’ coined by Bourdieus’s term aforementioned. If learners are aware of this capital beyond their proficiency goals and future jobs per se, language can potentially empower their identity shaping. At a narrower level, identity when placed in a context of teacher reflections (Urzúa & Vásquez, 2008), learners can utilize their linguistic capital to project their prospective identity. It means that identity is seen as ‘looking into’ their L2 learning processes. The research specifically encourages learners in ETTEPs to reflect on their journey with English as part of their vital identity that subsequently will influence the way they shape their student
identity. Of relevant conceptualization in capturing their self identity is how they perceive English as they stride purposefully to be an English teacher. In other words, identity at this study is viewed in conjunction with learners’ personal dimensions of self amidst journeying their L2 learning processes. In this sense, learners’ identity over time (Gee, 2000-2001) is regarded important.

Methodology

A survey-based study was adopted and the populations were conducted based on criterion sampling in two geographical locations-Java and outside Java, the former being the centre of economics and education. The two different set of geographical locations were intended to explore their potential influence on the learners’ identity.

The learners of ETTEPs, aged 19-22 had to be at least in their fifth semester and had taken linguistics, pedagogical, and methodological courses so as to have a greater understanding of their learning process. They were were selected from seven ETTEPs in universities in Java (five state and two private universities) and from five ETTEPs in universities outside Java (five state universities). A total of 1150 participants responded to the survey. Below is the number of participants in each province.

Table 1: Number of Participants in each Location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Provinces of universities</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>Provinces of universities</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jakarta 1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Jaya Pura, Papua</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Jakarta 2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Singaraja, Bali</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bandung, West Java</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>Pekan Baru, Riau</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Malang, East Java</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Samarinda, East Kalimantan</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Jogjakarta, Central Java</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>Palembang, South Sumatra</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Solo, Central Java</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Semarang, Central Java</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>669</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>481</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The self identity questionnaire inquiring self identity change was adapted from Gao, et al. (2005). It consisted of six categories which were primarily constructed based on bilingual
theories (Gao, 2001; Lambert, 1974, cited in Gao, et al., 2005, p. 137). The six categories comprised 30 questions as follow:

1. self confidence change (4 questions): the perception of one’s own competence
2. additive change (5 questions): the perception of valuing native and target language
3. subtractive change (5 questions): the substitution of the native language and cultural identity by the target language and target cultural identity
4. productive change (4 questions): the reinforcement of one language on the other
5. split change (4 questions): the conflict that may arise due to contradictory values and beliefs between the native and target language and culture
6. zero change (5 questions): absence of self identity change.

In addition to two sets of questionnaire, a semi-structured interview was employed to extract and heighten the learners’ perceptions of their self identity after they learned English. Twenty learners in each ETTEP were contacted by phone calls to conduct the interviews.

The questionnaire validation took a long process given the wide geographical spread of ETTEPs in each province. The challenge of this refinement especially laid in the multi social and cultural settings in each geographical location. The statements were carefully expressed so they could tap the self identity perceptions of change and did not lead them to make interpretations of stark differences between two sets of languages. Following the rigorous formulation, the questionnaire was carefully translated into Indonesian to warrant the understanding. I also piloted the questionnaire to 100 learners of the ETTEP in Jakarta, resulting in some modifications for additive, subtractive, and split change categories.

The data were analyzed using SPSS version 17.0 to count the internal reliability coefficients and the descriptive statistics of the mean and standard deviation figure for each category. The learners’ self identity change in Java and outside Java were compared using one-tailed T-test. Finally the qualitative data from the semi-structured interview was carefully learnt and extracted to capture the emerging thoughts and recurring ideas of the issue.

Findings and Discussion

This part presents the analysis of self identity change which includes: 1) the internal consistency reliability coefficients of self identity categories, 2) the descriptive statistics of self identity categories, and 3) the comparison between self identity categories of ETTEPs in Java and outside Java.

The internal consistency reliability coefficients of Self Identity change
The coefficient reliability analysis of self identity questionnaire was counted based on forty learners from each ETTEP in five universities throughout five provinces. As Table 2 displays, all categories have the same coefficient reliability (.77). Therefore, these six categories are incorporated into the main analysis.

Table 2. The reliability coefficients from six self identity categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Self identity categories</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self confidence change</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Additive change</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Subtractive change</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Productive change</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Split change</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Zero change</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The descriptive statistics of self identity categories: ETTPs in Java and outside Java

Self identity change of the learners in ETTPs in Java is shown by Table 3 and 4 while that of outside Java by Table 5. As Table 3 displays, the students in ETTEP in Jakarta 1 identify additive change as the highest change (16.60) followed by subtractive and productive change. Different from Jakarta 1, the learners in Jakarta2, Bandung, and Malang score subtractive change the highest (16.28, 15.74, and 16.05 respectively) followed by productive and additive change. It seems apparent that three self identity change ranks the first three: additive, subtractive, and productive change. The other three self identity changes--self confidence, split, zero change gain slightly lower mean values (11.40-13.90).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of six self identity categories in Jakarta, Bandung, Malang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Self identity categories</th>
<th>Jakarta 1</th>
<th>Jakarta 2</th>
<th>Bandung</th>
<th>Malang</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Self conf change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Additive change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.60</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Subtractive change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.18</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Productive change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>14.99</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Split change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Zero change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.26</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 4 shows, a similar pattern of mean values applies to ETTEPS in Jogjakarta and Semarang, placing *subtractive* change the highest (15.93 and 15.90 respectively) followed by *productive* and *additive* change. Solo, on the other hand demonstrates the highest mean value in *productive* change (15.79) followed by *additive* and *subtractive* change.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of six self identity categories in Jogjakarta, Solo, Semarang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Self identity categories</th>
<th>Jogjakarta</th>
<th></th>
<th>Solo</th>
<th></th>
<th>Semarang</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Self conf change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Additive change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.22</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Subtractive change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.93</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.07</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Productive change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.87</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.79</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Split change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.88</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.48</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Zero change</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.28</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.17</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of self identity change of ETTEP student outside Java. All ETTEPs in five provinces consistently generate the highest mean value in *subtractive* change with considerably the same range of values (16.31, 16.34, 16.37, 16.72, and 16.53). Except for Samarinda, the other four provinces similarly rank *productive* change the second followed by *additive* change. The other three self identity changes-*self confidence*, *split*, *zero* change have lower mean values (11.97-14.21).

Table 5. Descriptive statistics of six self identity categories outside Java

| No | Self identity categories | Papua | | Bali | | Riau | | Samarinda | | Palembang | | |
|----|--------------------------|--------|---|--------|---|--------|---|--------|---|--------|---|
|    | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD | N | M | SD |
| 1. | Self conf chg             | 100 | 12.17 | 1.78 | 100 | 12.39 | 1.63 | 84 | 12.34 | 1.44 | 100 | 12.73 | 1.64 | 100 | 12.63 | 1.53 |
| 2. | Additive chg              | 100 | 14.33 | 1.94 | 100 | 14.45 | 1.60 | 84 | 14.72 | 1.34 | 100 | 15.65 | 1.54 | 100 | 15.31 | 1.54 |
| 3. | Subtract.chg              | 100 | 16.31 | 2.44 | 100 | 16.34 | 2.15 | 84 | 16.37 | 1.99 | 100 | 16.72 | 2.66 | 100 | 16.53 | 2.42 |
| 4. | Productive. chg           | 100 | 16.15 | 1.76 | 100 | 15.68 | 1.68 | 84 | 16.12 | 1.49 | 100 | 15.63 | 1.52 | 100 | 15.41 | 1.44 |
| 5. | Split change              | 100 | 12.68 | 2.42 | 100 | 12.57 | 1.83 | 84 | 11.97 | 2.06 | 100 | 14.02 | 1.61 | 100 | 14.21 | 1.56 |
| 6. | Zero change               | 100 | 13.50 | 2.47 | 100 | 13.49 | 2.02 | 84 | 13.87 | 2.18 | 100 | 13.43 | 1.76 | 100 | 13.49 | 1.80 |

The comparison between self identity categories of ETTEPs in Java and outside Java.

The analysis of self identity categories of ETTEPs in Java and outside Java using two-tailed T test shows that their self identity is not significantly different (p=0.44 with p<0.01)
The mean values of self identity in Java is only slightly lower (85.45) than those in outside Java (86.21). They share *subtractive* change as the main self identity change followed by *productive* and *additive* change.

The interview conducted to twenty learners in each ETTEP found that they were motivated to improve their English to have a better future. As a consequence, they thought it would be beneficial to optimally absorb English to substitute Indonesian. In particular, the social media became their channels to substitute Indonesian with English. It was also found that there seemed still a strong tendency to value native speakerism in perceiving what English learning is about. In particular, this tendency was more expressed by the learners in the ETTEPs outside Java. Their fellows in Java, to a slight degree were still tempted to value native speakers but they showed more openness to their root identity. Both learners in Java and outside Java, nevertheless share the importance of their standing on their roots as their identity. Even, some in Java strongly held the idea of situating L2 learning in their own contexts while the target language and cultures should serve as enrichment.

Based on the findings, a portrait of the learners’ self identity change across the ETTEPs in Java and outside Java can be described as follows. As a process of their learning, the learners in both Java and outside Java tend to perceive their dominant self identity as subtractive as well as productive and additive change. It means that they substitute some of their native language and culture with the target language and culture. While this change should be taken into caution, it is quite relieving to find out that they still strike the balance between English and Indonesian by positively valuing and using two sets of language appropriately based on their contexts and purposes. In so doing, their self identity change still undergoes in a balanced direction without losing their roots. These results share Gao, *et al.* (2005) who found the presence of productive and additive self identity categories.

This portrait seems to echo Ryan’s (2006) context bound of local and global values of L2. Taken further, it is interesting to note that the learners’ encounter with media internet as their imagined community enables them to shuttle within the categories of self identity, from substituting to utilizing and valuing both their mother tongue and target language for their contextualized purposes. The learners go through this shuttling processess dynamically, thus negotiating their self identity. The process conforms to identity as Varghese et al, refer to (2011) as transformational and transformative involving the very intention of learners to exploit their agency in claiming their self identity. Their shuttling through the media to serve their goals is likely to heighten how language and discourse plays major roles in shaping learners’ identity. Finally, it can be noted that with such an awareness, learners would more
likely to undertake their L2 learning wholly. They can see how they keep evaluating and reinventing their identity dynamically to attain the very being individuals they wish to be identified with.

Another piece of finding which shows no significant difference between the learners’ self identity change in Java and outside Java may further offer insight into the construct of self identity. Regardless of different sociocultural and educational contexts which surround the learners and certainly exert their influence of their L2 learning, self identity change seems to be dominantly characterized by learners’ agency to make sense of their learning processes and purposes. Discovering this sense during their teacher-embryo process would open chances for them to capitalize their L2 beyond L2 per se. It would prepare a solid ground before embarking on their professional identity.

**Conclusion**

This study has examined the perceptions of self identity change of the learners in English Teacher Training and Education Programs (ETTEP) in different geographical locations in Indonesia. The study revealed that both positive (additive and productive change) and negative change (subtractive) were present as dynamic processes of negotiating their self identity. Geographical locations did not seem to exert influence on the learners’ self identity shaping. As such, it can be highlighted that the construct of identity is likely to spring from dominant roles of individuals to activate their agency in negotiating and constructing their self identity. Thus, finding out early learners’ self identity change in ETTEPs as sociocultural and sociopolitical contexts to incubate learners’ identity should be fully understood by teachers, linguists, and educators. Future research can explore deeper how learners’ self identity change during their study may influence the way they capitalize on their linguistic capital to assign identity to their students in class when stepping into teacher professional identity.

**References**


### PERCEPTIONS OF SELF IDENTITY CHANGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SD (Strongly disagree)</th>
<th>D (Disagree)</th>
<th>A (Agree)</th>
<th>SA (Strongly Agree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Please put a tick (√) to the statements below in accordance with your perception.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>After I am learning English, ..............................</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I feel more confident.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I feel comfortable to switch from English to Indonesian or vice versa in written and spoken communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I think that direct communication (‘to the point’) is preferable than indirect one.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I appreciate Indonesian more.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I can communicate better in Indonesian.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I start seeing stark differences between Indonesian and the target language cultures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I feel more convinced with my progress in English learning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I can express myself more accurately in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I can see uniqueness of my cultures and the target language cultures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel confused if I have to switch from Indonesian to English or vice versa in oral communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel more open to other cultures and languages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I prefer using English with my friends but Indonesian with my teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I have a binary point of view in all aspects of my life: Indonesian and the target language views.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I view English merely as a means for my education and career.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I uphold highly my Indonesian identity (I am not influenced by English that I am learning and using).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I become parts of globalization so I can compete in the work field.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I prefer listening to English rather than reading the Indonesian subtitles while watching movies.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I like using English while chatting because it is cool.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I appreciate writing in Indonesian compared to in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I promote my Indonesian identity in my life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>---</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I still have the same views.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I feel strange to express ideas in English with Indonesian ways of thinking.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I prefer creating an English name in my email and social media accounts because they sound cool.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I feel capable of developing my capacity in many aspects.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I realize the importance of learning good Indonesian for communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I find the target language values and cultures ordinary (nothing special).</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I am confused whether to adopt Indonesian or English patterns in communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>I feel some influence on my ways of thinking and behaviour.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I equally appreciate Indonesian and the target language cultures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I feel successful given my progress in English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Title
Creating Meaningful Problem-Based Learning Activities for Beginner EFL Learners

Author
Luh Putu Artini
Ganesha University of Education, Bali, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Luh Putu Artini is a senior lecturer of Ganesha University of Education, Indonesia. Her research interests include ELT methods and strategies, TEYL, and Bilingual Education. She has a Ph.D. in English Education from Newcastle University, Australia and currently teaches ELT Methods and Reflective Teaching. She can be reached at putu.artini@undiksha.ac.id

Abstract
The objectives of this research are: to describe problem-based learning activities that can be developed for EFL beginner learners; to analyze the quality of the developed activities; and to describe how the activity affects EFL teaching and learning. The activities were designed with the reference to the syllabus and characteristics of problem-based learning (PBL). The quality of the materials was tested through Gregory agreement model of the responses by the expert judges. The impact of the implementation of PBL activities on the teaching and learning process were described based on classroom observation and interview. The results of the research showed that there were 8 topics from the syllabus that could be ‘translated’ into PBL tasks. The developed materials were found to have the consistency index of 0.82 which means that the quality of the developed materials was in the category of ‘very good’. PBL activities were found very engaging and the students were very enthusiastic to work in groups for task fulfillment.

Key words: beginner EFL learners, problem-based learning activities
Introduction

This study aims to develop problem-based learning activities that build learning autonomy for beginner learners of English as a Foreign Language in Bali, Indonesia. The material development was based on the expectations of the latest curriculum which is scientific-based and recommend the implementation of PBL approach to learning (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013). There are four main characteristics of PBL that meet the expectations of the new curriculum: constructive, self-directed, collaborative and contextual (Dolmans, et al., 2005).

PBL might be relatively new for many EFL teachers in Indonesia even though it has been popular since the 1980’s (Burrows, 1996) and was reported as an effective teaching method in 1993 (Norman and Schmidt, 2000). Hung, et al., (2008) reported a list of advantages when PBL is applied in the classroom across subjects. These include the increase of problem solving skills, high order thinking and autonomous learning. When applied in EFL classes, students have good opportunities to use language communicatively through the activities of sharing ideas and making consensus in group discussion. Ross (2001) asserts that in solving a problem, a student should make strong connections between key concepts from the lesson, prior knowledge and real life that results in the attainment of academic and non-academic achievement.

PBL has all the characteristics that help learners develop their problem solving skills and guide them to become autonomous learners (Barrows, 1996). In PBL activities, teachers take the role of facilitators (Hmelo-Silver, 2004) to guide students to identify what they need to learn to solve a problem. In her latter publication, this author classified two types of problems that may be used by a teacher to create PBL tasks: decision making or trouble shooting (Hmelo-Silver, 2012).

Research Method

This study employed the research and development model proposed by Sugiyono (2011) with ten steps of procedures: identifying potential and problems, collecting data, designing product, validating design, administrating product usability, revising product, product try out, revising design, revising product and mass production. The first and second steps were conducted by administering questionnaire, interview with English teachers and school principals and classroom observation. The third step, designing product, was conducted by analyzing English syllabus for Grade 7 and identifying the potential topics to be taught using PBL activities. The next step (product usability) was done through expert
judgment, and the step of revising the product was based on the judges’ feedback. Product try out was conducted to 40 students and further try out involving bigger number of subjects and schools has been planned prior to mass production of the book product.

**Findings and Discussion**

The first and the second steps of the research found that English teachers in junior high schools were not confident in designing PBL activities. The interview showed that all the English teachers had had the opportunity to participate in a special training on the implementation of the new curriculum. They perceived that the training was lack of practical modelling about how to plan, implement and evaluate student-centered methods, one of which was PBL. The analysis of the syllabus identified nine topics that were potentially appropriate to be supported with PBL tasks. The topics comprised of asking and giving opinions, giving compliment, making an invitation, expressing routines, expressing past experience, expressing events in progress, making a description, making short massages or notice and telling stories. PBL activities were then developed based on the identified topics, PBL characteristics and the targeted competences of the curriculum. The task blue print is illustrated in the following example:
Table 1. Example of blueprint for developing PBL tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>PBL Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asking and giving opinion</td>
<td>Editing 2 mixed up dialogues</td>
<td>Publisher mixed up 2 dialogues by mistakes. Students should find the two dialogues (<em>pair work</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finalizing unfinished simple drama script</td>
<td>A simple drama script (developed from a popular story) is left unfinished and students have to continue (<em>small group work</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making a description</td>
<td>Describing an animal from a cartoon movie</td>
<td>Choose an animal from a cartoon movie to be kept for pet. Give the reason why you choose it (<em>small group work</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Describing partner’s physical experience in 30 years from now</td>
<td>Imagine, draw and describe how your partner would look like in 30 years from now (<em>Pair work</em>)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen above, the tasks were designed to follow the characteristics of PBL with the emphasis on student-centered learning. Contextual problems were intended to stimulate active learning. From the task of *editing two mixed up dialogues*, the learners were required to read the dialogues repeatedly and utilise their language intuition, logical and critical thinking to identify and solve the problem. To do so, they work cooperatively in the group and make decision. This activity exercises their analytical thinking and reasoning skills and at the same time strengthens the character of teamwork and taking responsibility to own learning (Maurer & Neuhold, 2012). PBL activities can make learning more natural and meaningful and additionally, learners are trained to develop their problem solving skills and use English contextually and spontaneously.

The materials were then sent to the expert judges for construct and content validation. Gregory agreement model was employed to analyse the consistency of the judgement. The data analysis found the consistency index of 0.82 which indicates that the developed PBL materials had very high validity. A three-week classroom observation was then conducted during the product try out, and it was found that the PBL activities were very engaging. All
the students demonstrated positive attitudes and group effort to fulfil the tasks. These seemed to be very promising since for a long time, English classes in Indonesia, especially for beginner learners, mostly involved students with controlled activities in which students were assigned to work on an assignment and then the teacher checked if it was right or wrong. PBL activities have been found to be very important in medical classes where learners are trained to develop their reasoning and analytical problem-solving skills (Maurer & Neuhold, 2012; Savery, 2006). In this research the additional importance was foreseen as the students tried their best to decide on what language to use to express their ideas and integrate the newly acquired language functions with their background language.

**Conclusion**

PBL tasks developed in this research could be treated as a model for material development procedures. The tasks provide learners with opportunities to develop their English through meaningful activities such as discussing, comparing and reasoning. PBL activities could also be expected to develop characters such as taking responsibility to own learning, working in team and making use of high order thinking skills in solving contextual problems.

**References**


Title
Adapting an Indonesian Folktale to Develop an Interactive Material for Teaching Spoken Narrative Text in an ESL Class

Author
Lulu April Farida, S.Pd., M.Pd.
Intan Permata Hapsari, S.Pd., M.Pd.,
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:
Lulu April Farida is an English Lecture of English for Specific Purposes at Semarang State University Indonesia. She has been teaching English for years focusing on English for sport science, ICT in language learning, English teaching instruction, and Bahasa Indonesia for foreigner. She is easy to reach in lulu.farida@mail.unnes.ac.id

Intan Permata Hapsari is a lecturer in the English Department of Faculty of Languages and Arts, Semarang State University (UNNES), Indonesia. She teaches Speaking, Writing, Grammar, and GMD (Grammar, Meaning, and Discourse). She can be reached in intan74@mail.unnes.ac.id

Abstract
This study aims at describing the ESL materials that are needed in junior high school, developing the adapted an Indonesian folktale into an interactive material for an ESL class, and examining its implementation for teaching spoken narrative text to the students of junior high school in an ESL class. This study used Research and Development (R&D) method adapted from Borg and Gall (1985) and Thiagarajan et. al. (1974). The experts and teachers examined the result of designing preliminary form of product based on its defining part of this study. According to their suggestions, an interactive material of Indonesian folktale was successfully designed as a final product. It developed seven learning parts, they are (1) dictation of vocabulary items; (2) listening section; (3) cloze listening test; (4) multiple choices; (5) content of narrative text; (6) retelling story guidelines; (7) story

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retelling. After main field-testing, it showed that in ESL class teachers needed an interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text which coming from Indonesian stories to build up students’ nationality. It was practical and effective for teaching spoken narrative to students in technological era today. Students also learnt it as enjoy as playing a game. As a result an interactive material of Indonesian folktale is ready to use as one of narrative materials for teaching spoken narrative text to junior high school students in an ESL class

**Introduction**

Narrative text is one of the texts to learn folktales, fables, folklore, fairy tales, and other stories. Composing stories whether spoken or written involves a set of skills and authorial knowledge. Also, those are an essential means for students to express themselves creatively and imaginatively. Thus, interactive material for teaching spoken narrative texts using Indonesian stories should be presence in the era of rapidly changing and progressing technology.

In contrary, only few interactive materials of narratives text come from Indonesia. Some Indonesian English teachers do not consider that Information Computer and Technology (ICT) is a life skill for them and their students. Consequently, Indonesian teachers must lead students to preserve their own culture then preserve local heritage as Indonesian treasure. Therefore, Indonesian teachers should introduce Indonesian folktale by using ICT in teaching and learning process especially for teaching spoken narrative texts.

This study describes how to design, develop, and adapt an Indonesian folktale into an interactive material for teaching spoken narrative to ESL Class. In case, in the end of teaching and learning process of listening students should be able to make a presentation focus on retelling story. It is one of extensive speaking performances and designed as the assessment in teaching speaking.

**Literature Review**

A computer is a tool and medium that facilitates people in learning language, although the effectiveness of learning depends totally on the users (Hartoyo 2006:11). Similarly, Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) can benefit from the use of computer. The use of computers in learning English as a Second Language (ESL) is necessary to improve the effectiveness and quality of TEFL in Indonesia. Although the potential of ICT for educational use has not been fully explored yet, some schools in Indonesia still make limited use of computers. It is clear that Indonesia recently entered a new
link between ICT and TEFL which has already been established. It is a positive response to develop and construct teaching materials based on ICT according to the recent curriculum in Indonesia.

According to School-Based Curriculum, spoken language focuses on interpersonal meaning and text types (Depdiknas, 2006). Interpersonal meaning deals with dialog among students whereas text type focuses on monolog. In this study, students have to comprehend the text while listening then retell it. According to Hammond et. al. (1992: 5), there is no clear dividing line between spoken and written language as that of a continuum. However, it is mostly spoken language where language interaction accompanies action.

Shin (2003:2) states the grammatical feature is not within spoken domain. Therefore, in the spoken language focuses on delivering and conveying messages which must be accepted by both speaker and interlocutor. Integrated skill of listening and speaking gives efficiency effect for both teachers and students.

Generally, listening focuses on hearing, attention, and voice. Listeners must process the messages as they come, even they are still processing what they have just heard. In addition, they must cope with the sender’s choice of vocabulary, structure, and rate of delivery. Therefore, listening is the primary means of L2 acquisition for EFL students. They should first hear a new language target before speaking up. As stated in Richard (2008), learning from listening requires activating prior knowledge or knowledge schemas and updating them in some ways: through addition, negation, generalization, reduction, or abstraction. Brown (2007: 299) also agrees that the importance of listening can hardly be overestimated.

Teaching speaking is related to listening skill (Brown, 2007:322). Teaching speaking is meant to guide the students to be able to make presentation in the classroom as they got in a modelling part. Teaching listening is one of the models for teaching speaking. Harmer (1998:60) shows presentation in language learning process is the chance to expose to language whose meaning and construction the students’ understand. It makes sense for them to practice it under controlled condition. As mentioned above there are six types of listening performance, six similar categories apply to the kinds of speaking performance: (1) imitative; (2); intensive; (3) responsive; (4) transactional; (5) interpersonal; (6) extensive.

In learning a narrative text, the language features are important. Derewianka (1990: 42) states that the language features of narrative texts should fulfil in the following requirements. The first is that narrative texts must focus on specific and usually individual participants. The major participants are human, or sometimes animals with human
characteristics. The second is that they use mainly action verbs (material processes), but also many verbs which refer to what the human participants said, or felt, or thought (verbal and mental processes). The third is that they use many linking words to do with the time. The fourth is that they include the dialogue into a text. In a narrative text, the readers usually see many dialogues or direct sentences among the characters. The fifth is that they use descriptive language. The descriptive language is chosen to enhance and develop the story by developing or creating images in the reader’s mind. The sixth is that they use past tense grammatical structure. It happens because a narrative text tells about something occurring in past time. The last requirement is that they use first person (I, We) or the third person (She, He and They).

Narrative text has five structures, namely orientation, complication (sequence of events), resolution, and coda. The orientation is a part (a paragraph) when the narrator tells the audience who is in the story, when it is happening, where it is happening, and what is going on. The complication is the part of the story where there narrator tells about something in which a chain of sequence of events will begin. This effect will affect one or more of the characters and it includes the feelings of what they do. The events can be told in chronological order or the flashback. The resolution is the part of a narrative text where the complication is sorted out or the problem is solved. The narrator includes a coda if there is a moral value or message which can be learned from the story (Sadler and Haylar, 2004).

Since ICT has become increasingly widespread recently, media utilizing ICT is appropriate and applicable to English classroom activity, especially for junior high school students. In this case, interactive material is used as the media in this study. Today, games ought to be at the heart of TEFL in Indonesia. Kozma and Robert (2003) suggest that animated graphics, video, digitized pronunciations and hyperlinks necessitate the development of new literacy skills. Therefore, games are often arranged in the ICT tutorial program to be an interactive material which can be used in the integrated skill. Munadi (2008:152) states that interactive multimedia must deal with some criteria: (1) easy navigation; (2) cognitive content; (3) integrated to other skills; (4) artistic; (5) functional.
Methodology

As the objective of the study is to develop an interactive material for the ESL Class, the appropriate design of the study was Research and Development (R & D). The qualitative and quantitative used to analyse data collection. Research framework in this study is drawn in Figure 1.

![Research Framework](image)

**Figure 1** Research Framework

Instruments used in this study covered: (1) questioners for the ICT interactive and learning experts, English teaching experts, and English teachers to assess the adapted an Indonesian folktale to develop interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text to ESL class; (2) observation and test for examining the implementation of the interactive material used in ESL class.

Findings and Discussions

In the preliminary research, it showed some teachers and students’ textbook for teaching and learning narrative text mostly focused on written English learning. The audio-visual for teaching spoken narrative text frequently focused on one single material monotonously whereas was not acceptable in the current curriculum. Therefore teachers need an interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text which comes from Indonesian stories to build up students’ nationality. Besides, computer becomes the first priority in students’ life nowadays and drives students an interactive material to learn English.

The result of the first stage consisted of four steps. They were syllabus and lesson plan of narrative text thereafter layout and script of the Indonesian folktale. An interactive
material of Indonesian folk tale was the result of stage designing preliminary form of product. It covers seven sections for learning spoken narrative text. They are: (1) dictation vocabulary items; (2) listening section; (3) cloze listening test; (4) multiple choice; (5) what narrative text is; (6) retelling story guidelines; (7) story retelling. Afterward, it was used in the main field testing in schools.

The interactive material consists of texts, animations, pictures, and exercises of learning spoken narrative text which was created on motherboard platform and currently could be downloaded on android system. The interactive material of Indonesian folk tale was made in a line of one direction learning strategy from section 1 up to 7. Hence, each student had to join in each level to continue the progress in learning spoken narrative text. In the end of each level, the student got a password to enter the next level (Figure 2). Therefore, if the students want to learn one activity in other times, they can directly go down to the level in which they want. The interactive material could be played by Flash Player or Gom Player program from computer or android system.

![Figure 2](image.png)

**Figure 2** Layout an Interactive Material for Getting Password

The following stage was the experts and teacher’s judgments. The average of the experts and teacher’s judgments (Table 1) were further than adequate, therefore, it did not to be redesigned. Nonetheless, the suggestions from the experts and the teacher were used to revise the products. The validation of the interactive material was given by two ICT & interactive learning experts to assess the innovation, system instruction, and design indicator. Meanwhile the English teaching experts and an English teacher focused on curriculum, material and exercises indicators. 16 questions were designed in every indicator as the instrument of this study.
Table 1: The Average of the Experts and Teacher’s Judgments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATORS</th>
<th>ICT Interactive Learning Experts</th>
<th>English Teaching Experts</th>
<th>English Teacher</th>
<th>AVERAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercises</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovation</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System Instruction</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The product revision stage accomplished according to their suggestions. The revision focused on grammatical errors. Those were some instructions, some exercises, some spellings, some capital letters, and some punctuation marks. Furthermore, the modelling for doing the exercises should be added.

During the main field-testing in schools, interview was done to the teachers. They mentioned that interactive material was so interesting and very easy to understand. It was easy to deliver the purpose of teaching and learning spoken narrative text. It was appropriate for the students’ difficulty level. In the observation, a number of important things which showed that the interactive material for teaching spoken narrative text was effective and practical in schools were noted that the students seriously joined the teaching and learning process. There were no students chatting, sleepy, or slept during teaching and learning process.

The students were happy to manage their own way to make any decision in taking part of the game by interactive material. Feeling independent to learn English and having confidence to retell the story in front of class showed that interactive material as a power of learning in ESL class. It also expresses that Indonesian folktale could be used as the material in learning English. In this case, students could improve and encourage theirs’ nationality.

Both teachers and students liked its audio which was originally from native English speakers. It could make the students more familiar with their accent, pronunciation, and intonation yet it was strange and hard to catch them in the first time. The students could also master well what narrative text was since its generic structure and lexicogrammatical were clearly explained related to the story. Samples of the layout can be seen in the Figure 3 and 4.
All the results for those evaluations were greater than its indicators. Thus, the final product did not need to be revised. By doing interactive material, the students got score in their own account and it passed the passing grade for the integrated test of narrative text. From the sampling subjects, there were 80% students passed the listening test and 91.15% students gained the speaking test.

Conclusion

The six stages of adapting an Indonesian folktale that were developed into an interactive material were assessed by the experts and teachers, revised, and tried out in sampling schools. It was proved that the interactive material was practical and effective. An interactive material of Indonesian folktale can be used as one of materials for teaching spoken narrative text in Indonesian schools with sputed facilities. The teacher evaluated of an interactive material’s implementation ran over good. Therefore, the implementation for the teaching spoken narrative was practical and effective.

A number of suggestions are presented in this part. It might be taken into consideration for those who will conduct a similar study as well as for the teachers who will use this product. Since the teaching and learning process using ICT is growing up recently. Those can improve the result of TEFL in Indonesia. They are as follows: (1) teachers should know how to operate the computer well
because it is the main key to use the interactive material; (2) teachers may adapt other Indonesian folktales for teaching narrative text with this prototype; (3) teachers can conduct further study to develop both spoken and written materials for other text types by employing the same method; (4) teachers should make sure that the students are able to use interactive material and it will guide them to master the English material; (5) teachers should add the audio-visual or interactive material regarding the English textbook.

References
Title
An Analysis of Two Different Approaches in Focusing on Form in Task Based Language Teaching

Author
Misnariah Idrus
University of Birmingham, UK

Bio-Profile:
Misnariah Idrus has a Master in Teaching English as Foreign Language from University of Birmingham, UK. Her research interests include L2 Teaching and Sociolinguistics. She can be reached at misnariahidrus@ymail.com

Abstract
This qualitative study investigated the perception of master students who are currently studying Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) related to two different ways of providing form-focus instruction in Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), pre-task and post-task. Semi-structured interviews conducted to four participants. This research has, to some extent, provided a broader perspective on the possible benefits and drawbacks of putting the focus on form in the pre-task and post task stages of Task-Based Language Teaching. Teachers can consider these findings before choosing the most suitable application for their teaching context.

Keywords: language form, task based language teaching, perception pre-task, post-task

Introduction
Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which proposes a teaching strategy focused on the natural use of the target language, has met some debates regarding its ability to teach language forms. Although some experts have conceded the possibility of focus-on-form (FoF) instruction in that teaching approach, debates continue as to the most appropriate place
to provide it. This research investigated MA TEFL students’ perceptions of the two different ways of providing form-focused instruction in TBLT, pre task and post task. This study can provide some additional insights before deciding the choices to be applied to an actual teaching activity.

**Literature review**

There are many different points of view as to the stage at which FoF should be provided in the teaching cycle. Nunan (2004), Estaire and Zanon (1994), and Skehan (1998) state that it should be provided at the pre-task phase, while Willis (1996) and Willis and Willis (2007) stated that it should be provided at the post task. Nunan (2004), base their view on the impossibility of instructing learners to produce a language that they have not acquired before. For example, it is impossible to require students to use the simple past tense to express something that happened in the past when they have never learned that pattern. Willis’ (1996) reason for putting the FoF at the end of the task is to ensure a naturalistic process of language production, since the students should be let experiment with their existing language proficiency, whether or not it could be understood by the recipient.

The task cycle introduced by Nunan consists of six steps: schema building (presenting the topic, setting the context of the task and introducing some vocabulary and expressions that the student will need in completing the task), controlled practice (students practice the vocabulary and the expressions taught in the former step under the teacher’s supervision), authentic listening practice (involving students in intensive listening practice with authentic material), focusing on linguistic elements (students dealing with exercises in which the focus is on one or more linguistic elements), providing freer practice (students use the linguistic input obtained from the previous part in freer conditions), introducing pedagogical tasks (students undertaking group work, discussions and decision making tasks) (Nunan, 2004). On the other hand, the task cycle proposed by Jane Willis consists of the pre-task stage (an introduction to the topic and task), the task cycle (task, planning, and report), and the language focus (analysis and practice) (Willis 1996). The main difference in the way in which these scholars include a FoF is that Nunan introduces it before students deal with the task, while Willis includes it after the task is completed.

Although these scholars have provided explanations for the approaches they suggest, it is beneficial to seek the view of those who are currently concerning discussing the development and the debate of this theory in order to provide a broader perspective.
Methodology

This study employed qualitative approach to respect the uniqueness of each person’s view and as able to obtain an in-depth view from the research subject (Dornyei 2007) and used semi-structured interviews to collect the data. The participants were four randomly chosen students who are currently studying Master of Arts TEFL programme. Some aspects - like their current study which discussed TBLT approach and hold two microteaching sections which employed Willis’s (1996) and Nunan’s (2004) teaching cycle on TBLT, and their experience on English teaching and learning- are regarded possibly ensuring the respondents’ understanding on the research focus. The following two questions are answered in this study:

1) What do the MA TEFL students at the University of Birmingham think are the advantages and disadvantages of providing a FoF at the pre-task stage?
2) What do the MA TEFL students at the University of Birmingham think are the advantages and disadvantages of providing a FoF at the post-task stage?

Findings and discussion

1.1. FoF – Pre-Task

Benefits

1) All students have similar chances to practice the language form when working with the task.

"... if you provide the rule in the very beginning, and ... when the students see the pattern, the form, ... they may practice." (William)

William saw that there is a need to supply students with the language form at the beginning of the task in order to increase their chances of being more active during the main task phase. Undertaking practice in the main task phase can refer to producing more utterances in speaking, composing more sentences in writing, or comprehending more information in reading and listening.

2) Students are aware of the language form target.

"...if we focus the form at the beginning, ... student ... will be aware with language features which is they would try to use the new language knowledge when doing the task." (Catherine)

Catherine believed that, learners who know what they are to learn will pay more attention to that. Thus, they know what they should do to reach their goal. In speaking or writing activities focused on grammar, for example, students may concentrate on producing sentences that contain the targeted grammar, and make sure they have understood it and are able to reproduce it.
3) It motivates unconfident students.

The relation between self-confidence and language learning success is still very debatable. It is still queried whether the success in doing communication enhance the self-confidence or vice versa (MacIntyre, et al., 1998). Regardless that debate, it seems important to facilitate the unconfident learners with method that can facilitate them to be brave (for example) practicing speaking.

**Drawbacks**

Besides addressing his experience as a low-confidence language learner who prefers to learn the language form before speaking, Ann also explained his views on how focusing on form at the beginning of the task also has the potential to become a barrier preventing English learners from speaking.

The drawbacks of putting the FoF in the pre-task phase is, as Ann mentioned, that students may be hesitant to speak when they perceive this as a rule requiring them to speak accurately. From the two different views, it can be seen that putting the FoF at the pre-task stage has either a negative or positive influence on a student’s willingness to speak, dependant on how the student perceives it.

**1.2. FoF – Post Task**

**Benefits**

1) Improving Understanding and Retention.

William believed that instructing students to enter the main task without providing prior material or activities that FoF will challenge students to discover grammar by themselves. They will notice what they should say, but they do not know – or will only partially know – how to say it. Furthermore, when the teacher explains the language form after the main task, the students will reflect on what they did previously. When they realise that they made mistakes, they may remember that language feature more easily.
2) Students learn the meaning of vocabulary based on the context.

There are two benefits that the learner can obtain from the suggestion mentioned by Roy. Firstly, it trains students to read a text which contains vocabulary with which they are not familiar. Hedge (2014) suggested that guessing the meaning of a word from contextual clues and background knowledge is a major strategy in helping students to build vocabulary for reading. Moreover, when learners encounter real-life reading there are no native texts that provide a list of translations for difficult words.

Secondly, students can learn vocabulary along with its contextual use. Learning vocabulary in isolation is unable to represent a linguistic reality, since the meaning of words mostly depends on context (Beheydt 1987 cited in Hedge 2014).

**Drawbacks**

According to William, providing FoF in the post task stage is regarded mostly only beneficial for higher-level students.

Since students who tend to be very active and produce more speech in the main task are higher-level students, this means that they tend to make correspondingly more errors and receive more corrections at the post task stage. Thus, it can be argued that the FoF can better aid all levels of learners if it is provided pre-task.

### 2. Conclusion

It has identified respondents think that although providing the FoF in the pre-task stage possible to make students hesitant to speak, it could gives all students an equal chance to practice the language form when working on the task, improves awareness of the language form target, and motivates unconfident students. On the other hand, providing the FoF post task is believed to improve students’ understanding and retention of the language form and stimulate them to learn the meaning of vocabulary based on its context but regarded as being beneficial only for higher-level learners.

Some limitations of this study are the small number of respondents is likely to have affected the comprehensiveness of the data. Despite these limitations, this research has, to
some extent, provided a broader perspective on the possible benefits and drawbacks of putting the FoF in the pre-task and post task stages of Task-Based Language Teaching.

References


Title  
A Case Study of a Lecturer’s Politeness Strategies in an International Classroom at a West Midlands University

Author  
Misnariah Idrus  
*Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP)*

Bio-Profile:  
*Misnariah Idrus* has a Master in Teaching English as Foreign Language from University of Birmingham, UK, sponsored by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP). Her research interests include L2 Teaching and Sociolinguistics. She can be reached at misnariahidrus@ymail.com

Abstract  
It is generally believed that teacher talk has a big role in determining the success or failure of a classroom. When teacher talks, the occurrence of ‘threats’ which potentially damages the self-esteem of not only the students, but also the teacher is undeniable. Thus, in talking, teacher needs to employ strategies to overcome or avoid such threats, which are called ‘politeness strategies’ (Brown and Levinson, 1987). This qualitative case study aimed to investigate the kinds of politeness strategies employed by a lecturer in an international class at a West Midlands university and how these were perceived by the students. This study makes a contribution to both sociolinguistics and the field of education, especially in teaching interactions.

Introduction  
Some researchers have found that politeness contributes many positive aspects to the classroom environment, such as promoting a more alive atmosphere which makes the interactions more effective and friendly (Jiang, 2010), supporting the acquisition of communicative competence in a foreign language (Kasper, 1997; Peng, Xie and Cai, 2014),
and increasing the learner’s motivation (Goatly, 1995). These findings indicate that politeness in the classroom is important.

Research into politeness in a classroom context is still very limited, and has mainly been conducted in a second language learning context (Theodossia, 2001). This paper investigates the kind of politeness strategies applied by a lecturer during three hours of lecturing conducted in an international classroom at a West Midlands University, which only uses English as a teaching medium. It also seeks to ascertain how those politeness strategies are perceived by the students.

**Literature Review**

This study refers to the Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory which is based on the concept of ‘face’ introduced by Goffman (1955), which is defined as ‘the public image that every member wants to claim for himself’. They divided face into two categories: people’s need to be free (negative face) and their need to be appreciated (positive face). From that definition, face in the classroom context can refer to the students’ or teacher’s freedom from disturbance or interference (negative face) and their need to make a positive self-impression (positive face).

All activities or utterances which potentially threaten one’s face are regarded as Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) (Brown and Levinson, 1987). ‘Teacher talk’ which refers to the languages used by the teacher to give feedback (Wallace, Sung and Williams, 2014), give guidance, explain an activity, and check the learner’s understanding (Sinclair and Brazil, 1985) are possibly regarded as FTAs in the classroom context.

As people are mostly aware when they are potentially threatening their own or their hearer’s face through some kind of FTA, he or she will modify their utterances in an appropriate way called a ‘politeness strategy’ (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The same research explains that, by reducing the seriousness of FTAs, the speaker may make their meaning clear (on record) or make it ambiguous (off record). When an utterance is addressed on record, it could be bald (very direct without any additional non-essential words) or redressive (trying to neutralise the potential damage caused by FTA. The effort to counteract any damage to face by applying a redressive strategy can either involve a positive politeness strategy (addressed towards acts that may damage the positive face) or a negative politeness directed towards acts that may harm the negative face) strategy. It may seem quite strange to realise that the words termed as bald-on-record can still be categorised as a politeness
strategy. Therefore, it is worth noted that many kinds of background factors determine whether it could be categorised as polite or not (Leech, 2014).

Research Methods

This study employs qualitative case study to explore the characteristics of the politeness strategies holistically and meaningfully (Yin, 2003) in the classroom. A triangulation method was used to collect data, consisting of: observing the classroom to understand the background situation of each particular sentence, using video and voice recording to assist the researcher in transcribing the utterances and recollecting the background situation, and conducting interviews with four randomly selected students involved in that teaching activity to ascertain their views on the way in which the lecturer used a particular politeness strategy. Because the data analysis must be done by focusing on the choice and use of words and phrases, the discourse analysis technique (Thomas, 2013) was employed to analyse the lecturer’s utterances.

Findings and analysis

Bald-On-Record

Mostly, this strategy was applied to keep order, or used to remind and warn. The lecturer sometimes expressed some words in a very simple way, which represents Grice’s (1975) maxim of quantity: “Don’t say less than is required and don’t say more than is required”, for example:

“Uhh, the product is here ... “

“You just come here to make it four."

These were expressed at the beginning of the class before the lesson had started, when the classroom was still very noisy as the students were finding their seats and preparing everything before studying. It seems that it was the best way to ensure that all the students listened to the lecturer’s utterance by expressing the message in a very simple way, using as little vocabulary as possible.

In some utterances, the instructions were not directly addressed to an individual. However, the initial phrases that were employed, such as “I want you” did not seem to reduce the intensity of FTAs. Indeed, they seem to emphasise that the lecturer had the power to instruct the students.

“I want you to work on your table ...”
In fact, based on the data obtained from interviews, they felt that this is normal and even makes it very easy to understand the message that the lecturer wanted to convey, especially as English is not their first language.

From this, it can be seen that the use of bald-on-record can make students more aware of what the lecturer wants them to do, which of course supports them in improving the quality of their work.

**Positive Politeness**

The lecture was held in a different classroom than the one in which it is usually held, and it seems that the lecturer was afraid to make the students feel uncomfortable or dissatisfied with the facilities provided for studying. Thus, he said:

“Apologise for this condition, X is finding a bigger room for you.”

It shows how humble the lecturer is to deliver a direct apology on the inconveniences occurring in that classroom. This kind of activity has the potential to damage the lecturer’s own face to some degree (Brown and Levinson, 1987). However, it seems that in order to decrease the FTA, he mentioned it in a very short sentence and continued with a statement that someone was finding a solution.

On another occasion, the lecturer asked the students to share the ideas they had discussed in their group in a maximum of nine words. One student who spoke did so in many sentences. The lecturer said:

“I hope nine words, and you make it hard.”

After saying that, all the students in the class laughed. The researcher’s initial assumption was that this had threatened that student’s positive face. However, in the interview, the student stated that it did not bother him at all, especially because he understands that the lecturer has a good sense of humour. He even said that it is far better than the lecturer shooting him because he made a mistake. This shows how the use of humour to make a critique can offset an FTA on positive face.

**Negative Politeness**

In order to maintain the students’ freedom and not make them feel pressured into doing something, some strategies employed by the lecturer, such as the use of the modals ‘could’ and ‘can’, are shown in the script below:

“Could we move to the next table?”

“Can you make it harder?”

Rather than saying “move to the next table” or “make it harder”, the addition of modals before the main point of instruction makes the sentences less intimidating, as it
sounds like the students are being given the freedom to choose whether to move or not, or to make it harder or not.

**Off Record**

Most of *off record* utterances contained an intention to suggest that a student should do something, for example:

“I think if you see the example, there is a substantive paragraph, about how you evaluate it.”

This means that the student should put an evaluation in their assignment, since it is a substantive part of the work.

“I like this room, it’s better shaped, isn’t it?”

The lecturer invited students to agree with his opinion that the shape of the room is better than the one they usually use. This utterance could be interpreted as an attempt to prevent the students from complaining about the condition of the classroom which might threaten to his positive face.

The data from the interviews confirmed that, although the lecturer did not communicate his message in an explicit way, the context makes it quite easy to understand most off record utterances as they are intended to be understood.

From all the interviews conducted, none of the respondents indicated a perception that their cultural background affected the way in which they perceived the politeness strategies employed by the lecturer. It seems that they had adapted the way they think based on how Western people behaving.

**Conclusion**

After analysing the lecturer’s utterances delivered during a three-hour lecture, it was found that he employed four kinds of politeness strategies: bald-on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off record. From the interviews, it was found that, although the teacher was quite assertive in delivering instructions, overall the students felt comfortable receiving them. They also felt that the lecturer had a sense of humour and was very friendly. Furthermore, the way he gave guidance in teaching was challenging and encouraged students to think and analyse subjects more deeply.

This study makes a contribution to both sociolinguistics and the field of education, especially in teaching interactions which can help lecturers be perceived positively by the students and support the quality of teaching and the learning process.
References


Title
Mobile Learning in TESOL: A Golden Bridge for Enhancement of Grammar Awareness and Vocabulary Mastery?

Author
Mozes Kurniawan  
*Satya Wacana Christian University, Indonesia*

Radius Tanone  
*Satya Wacana Christian University, Indonesia*

Bio-Profiles:  
*Mozes Kurniawan* and *Radius Tanone* are lecturers in Satya Wacana Christian University. Mozes’ study background and research interest are in English Language Education particularly in Technology-Enhanced Language Learning while Radius concerns in Information and Technology especially mobile devices. They can be reached at [mailbox.mozeskurniawan@gmail.com](mailto:mailbox.mozeskurniawan@gmail.com) and [radius.tanone@staff.uksw.edu](mailto:radius.tanone@staff.uksw.edu).

Abstract
The objective of this research is to know what if mobile phone is used in TESOL by revealing the concept of mobile learning (m-learning) and the role of m-learning in TESOL to improve English grammar awareness and vocabulary mastery. This research employed a case study design. There were six participants involved in FGD and 11 college students sharing their perspectives on an open-ended questionnaire. The data was analysed descriptively and presented in a form of substantial framework description. The result of this research showed that m-learning enhanced English grammar and vocabulary learning as: 1) Attention catcher in term of easy-to-use media, and 2) Media shaping students’ learning habit.

Keywords: Mobile Learning, TESOL, Grammar Awareness, Vocabulary Mastery
Introduction

The development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) rises the demand of ICT integration toward almost every occupations. One of them is mobile phone which starts to shift the function of the other ICT products and accommodates them within one simple thing whose size is not bigger than a book. One area who gets the impact of ICT development is English language education especially in the field of Teaching English to Speaker of Other Language (TESOL).

In learning English, vocabulary and grammar are important parts since those have been the foundation. Students may feel that learning English vocabulary and grammar particularly in conventional way by using paper or whiteboard written by so many words is so boring and reducing their motivation (Huang, Yang, Chiang & Su, 2015) and comprehension due to different cognitive styles (Taki & Khazaei, 2011). Then, there appears one idea about what if mobile phone is used in TESOL-grammar and vocabulary- to get the best result. Hence, this journal aims to provide the concept of m-learning including challenges faced by students and the role of m-learning in TESOL to improve English grammar awareness and vocabulary mastery.

Literature Review

Mobile learning concept

Mobile learning known as m-learning is a teaching and learning methodology (Pilar, Jorge & Cristina, 2013) where the learners take the advantage of using easy going device in improving teaching learning process. M-learning supports learning to be personalized, ubiquitous, efficient, usable and flexible based on the learners’ needs (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012). Learning through mobile technology enables learners to have their education wherever and whenever they are (Huang et al, 2016). In language learning, especially TESOL, there are some areas of mobile-based language learning like vocabulary, reading, speaking, grammar, phonetics, etc. Those areas were entrusted taking the benefits of m-learning method though there are also challenges.

Challenges in learning vocabulary and grammar

Vocabulary, according to Hatch and Brown (in Rohmatillah, 2014), refers to a a list of words that language speakers might use for a particular language. Besides, grammar is meant by a syntactical system which decides the order of words (Thornbury, in Elturki, 2014) and governs how sentences in a certain language are formed (Close, 1982 in Elturki, 2014). It believed as the most difficult aspect in learning language especially English.
There are challenges in learning English vocabulary. First, there are a large amount of vocabulary to learn causing difficulties (Saengpakdeejit, 2014). Second, vocabulary mastery is not limited to only know or match the word(s) in the second language to the meaning in the first language (Oxford & Croocal, in Saengpakdeejit, 2014) but the relation among words (Rohmatillah, 2014). Third, language speakers have their own ways to learn vocabulary like speak out, silent way, write down words but the others may use annotations. Students might also face problems in learning grammar related to idiosyncratic- regular and irregular form- (Rohmatillah, 2014). Those obstacles become worse for those who have weakness in memorization and in hard-to-put attention situation (Thornbury, 2000 in Elturki, 2014).

**Benefits of using m-learning in TESOL**

Based on those conditions, here comes the idea of using m-learning as a teaching learning strategy that benefits students in case of learning English vocabulary and grammar. Mayer (2005) who developed Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) stated that learning word or a string of words will be easier if it is linked with pictorial and verbal annotation. Students are able to memorize vocabularies well when they have picture in mind representing the new English word(s). To have a complete memorization and comprehension in learning vocabulary and grammar, students are also offered by verbal annotation (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012). For grammar, the challenge of idiosyncratic might be reduced by integrating mobile technology since it provide a clear picture that differenciate one grammar rule and the others.

**Methodology**

This research used data gathered from Focused-Group Discussion (FGD) and open-ended questionnaire conducted in Satya Wacana Christian University, Indonesia. There were six participants of FGD come from different background and eleven college students joining English class who participate in filling out the questionnaire. The data gathered was analyzed to get the whole perspective toward the concept of m-learning including challenges and the role of m-learning in TESOL to improve English grammar awareness and vocabulary mastery.

**Findings & Discussion**

**M-learning as an attention catcher**

Based on the data, m-learning method really catch students’ attention. Almost all participants in this research chose to use m-learning method in English course. The frequency
of m-learning was around three up to four days a week. They could develop their individual learning since m-learning gave them flexibility and creativity in understanding English vocabulary and grammar through making sentence while chatting to their friends. The intelligent algorithms within mobile technology might correct miss-type words so it was really helpful in learning second language. The others also shared that m-learning gave a psychological attraction so that students’ motivation and willingness to learn English, particularly vocabulary and grammar, might be improved consciously or unconsciously by online mode as well as easiness and portability by offline mode. It was proven by eight out of eleven college students showed their positive attitudes.

M-learning as a habituation

Six students stated that by using mobile technology in learning English, they are accustomed to check everything they found difficult without waiting for anything and get the material prior to the teaching learning process. Some of them also changed their old habit of printing every material given by the lecturer into a new habit of accessing material directly personally from their own gadget. They could also learn new English patterns through ‘LINE’ program. This habituation brought students to the improvement of their linguistic competence especially in vocabulary mastery and grammar awareness. As often as they access learning material using their mobile technology, they unconsciously learn through English-related applications and/or conversation. It will stimulate their awareness of English grammar and mastery of vocabulary.

Conclusions

As the conclusion, this research proposed some key points. First, students found that m-learning really helpful in learning vocabulary and grammar since they put their attention to access learning material continuously repeatedly. Though there are some challenges in learning English vocabulary and grammar, students are able to cope with them by this method. Second, m-learning becomes a positive habit builder. Students as well as lecturers found that this method could make students accustomed with continuous and repeated language learning so every time they face problems, they are able to handle and overcome them by using their personal mobile gadget. Hopefully, this research broadens the paradigm and become the grounding of further research in the field of TESOL.
References


Title

English Students’ Perceptions on the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching Material at Akademi Bahasa Asing Universitas Muslim Indonesia

Author

Muhammad Yunus, S.S.,M.Pd.

Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI) Makassar Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Muhammad Yunus is a lecturer at Fakultas Sastra Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI) Makassar in Indonesia. His research interest is in the area of English education and language teaching methodology. He can be contacted at yunus_sastra@yahoo.com.

Abstract

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is one of the teaching methods organizing the sequence of tasks generating the language to be used. In TBLT, teachers’ ask students to carry out series of tasks which they will require and recycle some specific items of language. This research aimed to obtain the information about English Students’ Perceptions on the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching Material at Akademi Bahasa Asing (ABA) Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI). This research used descriptive qualitative method. The data were collected using questionnaires and interviews. The result expected is that how the students’ reacted about the implementation of Task Based Language Teaching Material at Akademi Bahasa Asing Universitas Muslim Indonesia.

Keywords: Implementation of TBLT, English Students’ Perceptions, ABA-UMI

Affiliation Address: Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI), Jln. Urip Sumoharjo km 05 Telp. (0411) 453308-453818 Fax. (0411) 453009 Makassar 90231, Sulawesi Selatan, Indonesia.
Introduction

Task-based language teaching is not new (Willis, 2005). The arrival of task-based language teaching (TBLT) started in the early 1970s in Bangalore, Southern India, Prabhu originated a long-running project which used task-based learning in a very different context (Harmer, 1991). Willis (1994) suggest three basic stages: in the pre-task stage, the teacher investigates the topic with the class and may label useful words and phrases, assisting students to catch on the task instruction, during the task cycle stage, the students perform the task in pairs or small groups while the teacher monitor from a distance, and on the post-test, the students then design how they will inform the rest of the class what they did and how it went, they then review on the task either orally or in writing.

The concept of TBLT which entered the field of second language acquisition as a model for how to create a process-oriented syllabus and design communicative tasks to promote the use of actual language by the learners. In various interpretations, it related to the classroom practice which are compatible with the philosophy of learner-centered education (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003; Johnson, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 1993; Nunan, 2005; Shehadeh, 2005). TBLT is composed of specific components such as goal, procedure, results (Nunan, 2004; Skehan, 2001), and TBLT suggests content oriented meaningful activities rather than linguistic forms (Carless, 2002; Littlewood, 1981).

The tasks intended are the sequence of activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome (Sidek, 2012; Priyana, 2001; Samuda and Bygate, 2008). The activities proposed by some authors are everything which a learner engages in order to attain an objective, which necessitates the use of language, which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language, which the learners have to do for non-instructional purposes outside the classroom as opportunities for language learning, and which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought and which allow teacher to control and regulate that process was regarded as a task (Long, M. and Richards, 2006; long, 1985; Crookes, 1986; Carrol, 1993; Bachman & Palmer 1996, Krahneke, 1987; Breen, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Ellis, 2003).

For the last two years, the TBLT approach at Akademi Bahasa Asing (ABA) Universitas Muslim Indonesia (UMI) is one of the approaches which was maximally applied on the course of reading comprehension despite the fact that it has actually been applied also to the other ones, but it is just as likely to focus on the language form not on the language function to be learnt. This approach is still evaluated to determine whether to provide a
significant contribution to language learning, especially in the course of reading comprehension or not.

Based on the above mentioned, this study considerably needs to look at the English students’ perception on the implementation of the TBLT approach to the course of reading comprehension at ABA UMI. This is important to review periodically in order to be able to know the development of teaching and learning processes based on TBLT through the students’ perception by considering the aspects of strengths and weaknesses, so that we can see the strengths which should be kept and the weaknesses which should be improved.

In addition, the results of this study may be a consideration for policy makers at ABA UMI to further develop this approach by conducting training on a regular basis to the teachers to improve their professionalism in managing the classroom, so that the teacher can apply it to subjects that fit in teaching and learning process. Thus, the system of classroom learning could take place; that is, the teachers with the TBLT approach owned can create a system of meaningful learning through a variety of tasks. This is the primary consideration to conduct this study; that is, to determine the English Students’ Perceptions on the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching Materials at ABA UMI.

**Literature Review**

Based on constructivist teaching theory and methodology of communicative language teaching, TBLT has evolved in response to some of the limitations of traditional language teaching approaches. The development of language teaching is shown by the presentation of procedures, practices, and implementation (Ellis, 2003; Long & Crookes, 1991). The task-based teaching has substantial implications for teaching through a process of development by encouraging communication and social interaction. With task-based instruction, students learn the target language more effectively because they perform these activities naturally; occurred in the eighties when language teaching developed various task approaches (Breen, 1987; Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987).

In the nineties, the language teaching developed into a detailed practical framework for the communicative classroom. Through the focus of language, learners perform activities based on a series of tasks starting from the pre-task preparation, task performance, up to the post-task feedback (Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996). Although the use of tasks in language teaching is common, there are some significant challenges behind the design of syllabi and authentic materials based on the tasks. The challenge according to Ellis (2003) lies in the different perspectives including verbal, writing, and assessment ability. In response to these
challenges, many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers today distract their attention from the tasks of conceptualization to the tasks of implementation based on observations of TBLT methodology’s practical usefulness in the classroom practice.

In order to formulate useful tasks for communicative classes, it is first necessary to provide a precise definition of ‘task’ related to its properties and parts. In various discussions and interpretations related to the definition of tasks, Nunan (1989) suggests that the tasks can be conceptualized in relation to the specific objectives of the task purpose, input data, which became the starting point of the tasks, and related procedures the students did in completion of the task. Willis (1996) provides a definition of a task as an activity in which the target language is used for communicative purposes in order to achieve an outcome. Skehan (1998) suggests the main properties of the task in four criteria: there are goals to be worked on; activity is evaluated; meaning is the main matter; and there is a connection with the real world. Candlin and Murphy (1987) assert that these tasks can be done effectively by systematic components including objectives, inputs, settings, activities, roles, and feedback. In short, the goal refers to a general purpose for that task, and input represents the verbal and non-verbal material in which the participants work for the tasks. The setting refers to the environment in which the task was done, and activities involve cases where participants will work on those tasks in a given setting. The role of the teacher and students are intimately associated with the successful execution of those tasks, and feedback regarding the task’s evaluation. Framework of tasks components provide researchers of SLA in a task-based syllabus design and development of authentic material a starting point for designing task-based activities.

Methodology

In an effort to investigate the English students’ perceptions on TBLT reading materials, this research investigates about the English students’ perceptions on the Implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching reading material. Based on the aspect mentioned above, the proposed research questions is how well are the English students’ perceptions on the implementation of TBLT reading materials at ABA-UMI?

In this research, the instrument used consisted of the questions designed to find out English students’ perceptions on the implementation of Task-Based Language Teaching reading material at ABA-UMI. Those questions were formulated in a simple questionnaire which consists of three parts of the questions based on the response percentage of respondents. The first part of the question (question 1) contains the aspects of the sorts of
tools available used to obtain information about teaching material, coursebook, teaching aids, workbook, classroom atmosphere, and lecturer’s method in teaching. The second part (number 2) is related to the students which were interested to attend the lecture using TBLT coursebook in the future. The third part of the section (number 3) is associated with the coursebook and workbook the students have used. The questions are partially adapted and modified from Long’s (2015) checklist to evaluate the English students’ perceptions on the implementation of TBLT reading materials.

The populations in this research were the first and the second year of English students of the English Department at ABA-UMI which consisted of seven classes, A-G. The first comprised four classes of 105 students, and the second had three classes of 245 students. Therefore, the total number of the populations were 245 students. Then, the samples randomly taken were 5 students from each of the classes A-G. Thus the total number of the samples were 35 students.

Data collection in this research, the questionnaires were distributed to the samples of 35 students in the classes in January 2016. Before the students filled out the questionnaires, the researcher first explained the purpose of the research and asked them to answer the questionnaires. Within one hour, the questionnaires had been completed by all the students to provide answers to each according to what they have experienced and were known about the implementation of TBLT reading materials in the classroom.

The data obtained were analysed by the simple percentage of students’ responses. The students’ responses intended in this research were as follows: (a) a positive response; that is, students’ statement in the category of fun, new, and interested in the components of learning activities, and (b) a negative response; that is, students’ statement in a category of not fun, not new, and not interested in the components of the learning activities.

Results and Discussion

Results

Table 1 presents the English students’ perceptions on the implementation of TBLT reading materials. To facilitate the assessment, the simple percentage of English student perception was used.
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Aspects of Assessment</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What is your opinion about</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Teaching Materials</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Coursebook</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Teaching aids</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d. Workbook</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e. Classroom atmosphere</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f. Lecturer’s method in teaching</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>In the future, are you interested to attend the lecture using TBLT reading coursebook</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Give your comments about the coursebook and workbook you have used.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Do you agree that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read?</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Do the coursebook and the workbook use the familiar English?</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c. Do you agree that the coursebook and workbook are interesting?</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Average</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discuss the first question for the teaching materials showed 85%, for the coursebook 90%, for the teaching aids 90%, for the workbook 84%, for the classroom atmosphere 90%, and for the lecturer method in teaching 86% of respondents interesting respectively. On the second question, in the future are you interested to attend the lecture using TBLT coursebook, showed 90% of respondents interesting. The last question for item (a) 85% of the respondents agreed that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read, item (b) 90% agreed that the coursebook and the workbook use the familiar English, and item (c) 80% agreed that the coursebook and workbook are interesting. So, the total average of the respondents who showed fun, new, and interesting is 87.5%

**Discussion**

First, the question 1 for item (a), 85% of the respondents perceived positively when asked about teaching material. The respondents stated that the teaching materials contain the themes which related to the real world life of daily activities. Thus the themes made us fun.
Item (b), 90% of the respondents perceived positively when asked about the coursebook. The students asserted that the coursebook could facilitate us to improve our knowledge through simple reading text materials. Besides, the coursebook provided the visual and auditory which assist us in the learning teaching process. Item (c), 90% of the respondents noted positively when questioned about the teaching aids. The students stated that the teaching aids, such as LCD, whiteboard, boardmaker, and rods made the learning teaching process easier. Item (d), 84% of the respondents explained positively when questioned about the students’ workbook. The students informed that the workbook assisted to more understanding the reading text material because in the workbook was prepared a variety of exercises which could improve the reading comprehension. Item (e), 90% of respondents affirmed that the classroom atmosphere provided a relaxed condition in learning teaching process. This is because the classrooms have the quite large spaces to arrange the chairs according to the teaching activities. Item (f), 86% of the respondents stated that the lecturer’s method in teaching provided the various approaches which stimulated the students to more active interaction in the classroom. In conclusion, most of the sorts of tools available used to obtain information about teaching material, coursebook, teaching aids, workbook, classroom atmosphere, and lecturer’s method in teaching made the students very enjoyable and exciting.

Second, the question 2 showed that 90% of the students were interested to attend the lecture using TBLT reading materials. They perceived that this approach was suitable for various group works, provided the variety of students’ interaction in learning teaching process, encouraged the students’ motivation, created a collaborative learning environment, promoted the students' academic progress, was suitable for the classroom setting, and promoted the use of the target language.

Third, the question 3 for item (a) 85% of the students agreed that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read. The respondents explained that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read because the reading material contents related to the real world lives. Item (b), 90% of the students noted that the coursebook and the workbook used the familiar English. The vocabulary used in the coursebook and the workbook is easily recognized because the vocabulary consists of the simple words. Besides, the sentences are simple and compounds. Item (c), 80% of the students stated that the coursebook and workbook are interesting. The coursebook and the workbook which make interesting are the impressive book’s cover, the interesting themes, and the attractive illustration.
Conclusion and Suggestion

Conclusions

In conclusion, the overall findings of this research indicated that the students had the positive perception, especially on the teaching materials, the teaching aids, the workbook, the classroom atmosphere, and the lecturer method in teaching. Besides, the students also were interested to attend the lecture using TBLT coursebook and agreed that the coursebook and the workbook are easy to read, the coursebook and the workbook use the familiar English, and the coursebook and workbook are interesting. Therefore, this approach should be maintained because the students had positive perception which make them fun and interesting in learning English.

Suggestions.

It is suggested that the policy makers at ABA UMI should develop this approach by conducting the workshop on a regular basis to the teachers to improve their professionalism in managing the classroom, so that the teachers can apply it to subjects that fit in teaching and learning process. In addition, the teaching aids and other facilities which make the teaching and learning processes conducive should be improved either in quantities or in qualities.

References


