The Asian EFL Journal

November 2019

Volume 23, Issue 6.2

Senior Editors:

Paul Robertson

Published by the English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Table of Contents

Women in ELT Associations Leadership: When and Where?

Robert J. Dickey

Keimyung University in Daegu, S. Korea

Bio-Profile:

Robert J. Dickey is Assistant Professor in the School of Public Service at Keimyung University in Daegu, S. Korea. He is a past president of Korea TESOL and has taught English in Korea for 25 years. His research areas include interdisciplinary education & content-based instruction (CLIL), administration of community-based and professional organizations, professional ethics, numerous areas in English language learning and teaching, and various topics related to the public good. Email: robertjdickey@yahoo.com

Abstract

Women professionals often face a "glass ceiling" as well as numerous other disadvantages. This appears to be true also in the field of English language teaching, and more specifically, in TESOL teacher associations, but to date there has been no consolidated data to examine. Historical data collected from 83 ELT teachers associations across the globe suggests that while the trend for women top-leaders has improved, these numbers may not yet reflect the membership of these societies, nor the teachers in the classroom; furthermore, there are distinct differences across geographic regions.

Keywords: Leaders; Women; ELT; TESOL; Teacher Associations; Historical Trends

Introduction

Within the field of teaching, "Women have always been teachers," or so claims Nancy Hoffman (2003, p. xiv). This is not quite the same as declaring that most teachers are women (probably true?), or that women make the best teachers (possibly true?), but it clearly stakes a historical claim for women in the profession. But where are the women leaders?

The issue of women's role in English language teaching (ELT), also known as TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages) has come to the forefront while wider societal

concerns for gender balance and diversity have been rising over the past 50+ years. The phrase "glass ceiling" for women leaders has been in use for at least 30 years (see Morrison, White, White, & Van Velsor, 1987), and while the term is not yet in vogue in TESOL, general studies of educational administration have made use of this descriptor for over 20 years (see, for example, Caffarella, Clark, & Ingram, 1997; Ehrich, 1998; Patterson, 1994; and Reis, Young, & Jury, 1999).

There is a severe lack of data concerning demographics in the teaching field across history: we are left with anecdotal remarks, thin sketches, case studies, and broad overviews. This paper represents part of a larger long-term data collection and research endeavor that explores factual details and analysis from never-before collected data on the historic and current participation of women in the field of ELT as a basis for analyzing their participation in leadership roles. Datapoints for collection include authors in leading journals, and editors in the same, members and leaders in ELT associations and the wider ELT teaching communities they purport to represent, and ELT faculty and administrators in schools. For it is clear that achieving an inclusive leadership that reflects the attitudes, values, and policy choices of women, all racial groups, and other minorities is critical to ensuring that the profession well-represents all those engaged in the field. It must also be understood that the ambition for leadership is itself gender-based, responsive to the environment in which leadership is sought (Maranto, Teodoro, Carroll, & Cheng, 2019).

The (limited) Literature

Sexism in the ELT classroom has been well-documented over the past 40 years, through studies of coursebook texts (Porreca, 1984) and images, teacher-talk and teacher-student interactions, as well as in studies of the learners (Appleby, 2010). Hartman and Judd raised the sexism issue in 1978, and as have many since then (e.g., Sunderland, 1994). In 1996 Willett asked "why has the TESOL profession taken so long to examine gender?" (344), while a survey of progress by Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) focused mostly on the "education" side, and argued that there was far more to do to improve gender equality. In 2010 Appleby pointed out that the role of women in English language teaching had received little attention, despite the fact that female teachers dominate the language teaching profession (p. 5), and then in 2014 Appleby went on to observe that the historiography of ELT is strongly male-oriented, while teaching, particularly in Kachru's (1985) "inner-circle," is strongly feminized (p. 4). This is consistent with Pennycook's description of a hierarchically-gendered workforce in second language education (1989, 611). Similarly, as Shiobara (2016) observes, women in higher

academia, particularly in the expanding circle, are extremely under-represented. This is particularly important since, as Pennycook (1989, 596) pointed out, academics have a one-way relationship with teachers.(For more on studies of gender in ELT, see, for example, Appleby, 2018; Ansary and Babii, 2003; Clark, 2015; Otlowski, 2003; and the contributions in Sunderland, 1994). Adding to the problem, teachers themselves, as Talosa and Malenab-Temporal (2018) observe, bring sexist attitudes to the classroom.

Yet in terms of studies on women in the ELT profession, very little has been done. Florent and Walter (1989), Du Vivier, Freebairn, and Garton-Sprenger (1994), and McMahill (1998) discussed a short-lived Women in TEFL series of conferences (running from 1986-1995, per Sunderland, 2000), and there was also a Womens' newsletter (ETHEL) in the 1980s, and a "Women in EFL Materials" group around the same time (Sunderland, 1994, p. 208) – a women's movement in Europe that remains relatively undocumented and largely forgotten today. Since those reports from more than 20 years ago, little has been written specifically about women's roles in their professional ELT communities.

What is happening nowadays? There is a "Women in ELT" Facebook group (closed group, men – including this researcher – not allowed). Nicola Prentiss has a blog where she tracks the number of women plenary speakers (https://wp.me/p1RJaO-ly9). "The Fair List" (http://thefairlist.org/) began work in 2015 with an aim to encourage gender balance among speakers at UK events in the field of TESOL. The "Women in TESOL" series of conferences & conference strands began in Asia in 2016 and there is a database of women speakers for conferences (https://genderequalityelt.wordpress.com/database-of-women/).

Few studies on ELT teacher associations have been done (Aubrey & Coombe, 2010; Paran, 2016, Stewart & Miyahara, 2016), still less of their leaders, and far less in terms of representativeness of those leaders to their membership, the teaching community, and stakeholders. One reason may be challenges in collecting data, as no comprehensive collection of information on teacher associations, or demographics of TESOL practitioners, exists. On the other hand, several ELTAs have recently celebrated significant historical milestones, such as 50th anniversaries, which have heightened interest in rediscovering their past. Previous studies on the "representativeness" of ELTAs leadership include a preliminary examination of the trends in women leadership of US-based ELT teacher associations (Dickey, 2016) and an intensive look at the match between leaders and the membership of Korea TESOL across 20 years (Dickey, 2018).

Methodology

How many women are members of ELT Associations, what is the ratio of women compared to men, and do the leaderships in these organizations reflect those ratios? Representation, at the crudest level of analysis, starts with numbers. However, membership data is precious, and unfortunately, rare, in the teaching community. Even the history of leaders has been lost in many organizations, or at least never compiled in one place. Local management rules, privacy laws, and loss of historical records make it extremely difficult to identify the number of teachers in the ELT field, particularly those specialists teaching English as a second or additional language (TESOL), i.e., to others than the so-called "native-speakers of English." The data which may be available is regionalized, inconsistently compiled, and frequently does not include many demographic details, such as sex, age, workplace (type), role (job), and teaching qualifications. It was therefore necessary to initiate data collection by contacting various organizations that might have useful data. The contact list started from the affiliate lists of the TESOL International Association (hence "TESOL International"), the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), and organizations known to be missing from these lists (state-level associations in Canada and Australia, national-level organizations in Japan and Korea known to the researcher). As additional groups became known, national-level groups were added to the contact list. As of July15th 2019, there are 235 organizations included in the contacts list, from 121 countries, plus the multinational groups TESOL International and IATEFL. (Three groups are no longer operating, but retained in this list.) Within this list, there are 42 US affiliates of TESOL International and 10 German associates of IATEFL, plus 12 teacher associations in Canada and 9 from Australia, as well as four large associations in the highly-competitive ELT associations community of Korea (where more than 10 nationwide associations are known to exist, each with more than 100 members). Other data being collected includes official figures from governmental licensure offices, graduate's information from teacher training programs, and even newspaper articles describing teacher communities.

The teacher associations (TAs) were contacted by email to request historical data on their presidents and membership demographics. Numerous follow-up emails were required to initiate a response (with many failing to respond despite second or third contact points, including the organization's official Facebook or Twitter). Nine organizations declined to provide data, referring to privacy laws. Few organizations had previously compiled a record of their past presidents, only a very few (Ohio TESOL as a notable example) had comprehensive histories of the organization, some of which were no longer current. Several groups had a

comprehensive listing of past presidents, or even past full executive councils (boards) on their current website. More than half of the organizations that responded to initial inquiries stated that the requested list of past presidents was not available, so the TA's past websites were examined through The Internet Archive (https://archive.org) and past publications posted on various document-hosting platforms (e.g., https://issuu.com, https://www.scribd.com) found through Google searches. Past officials for these groups, as listed in old websites or back-issues of *TESOL Matters*[1] or the IATEFL associates listings recorded on The Internet Archive were contacted, and email group-discussions initiated, which enabled some TA's histories to be compiled. All TAs were provided their completed presidential histories for their future use, some have placed this work on their website or in conference publications. In sum, 83 organizations have provided data to this project, although several have only a short history (less than 5 years). Similar efforts were made to acquire historic membership lists.

The gender of members were identified through common usage of given names. To establish the reliability of the gender identifications of the researcher, a set of 275 names were independently labeled (male, female, indeterminate) by four external raters and this researcher. The observed pairwise agreement average across the five pairings was high (93.4%, Fleiss K was excellent at .864) and interrater reliability was established. Like the researcher, the raters were TESOL professionals familiar with male/female names in North America. In addition, officers' names were compared to local texts (conference program books, newsletters) and social media for gender identification. Finally, gender for Korean names were identified by native-speakers of Korean both educated and currently residing in Korea, Japanese names through a Japanese Name Gender Finder webpage (Japanese Name Gender Finder http://epublishing.nademoya.biz/japan/names_in_japan.php), and names with Arabic and Indian subcontinent heritage were assigned based on similar websites. Where names are not gender-specific (e.g., "Chris") or uncertain (initial only, unrecognized names), or lacking a high degree of certainty (more than 80% of usage being specific to a single gender), names were coded as "undetermined" and excluded from gender ratio calculations.

The gender of the president for each year of each TA was coded as "male" (0), female (1), and "undetermined" (null), and recorded in a spreadsheet. As ELTAs do not all share similar terms of office in each organization the president was assigned for this study's year of record based on the normal reporting of that organization, e.g., 1998-1999 is treated as 1998

---

unless the organization's reports refer to the "1999 president" or similarly). Where there were two presidents in a given year (unscheduled succession or co-presidency), if there were both male and female, then it was coded as 0.5. Thus, we may ascertain the male/female ratio for any given year, based on all the organizations that existed and reported in that year (disregarding the "undetermined" null responses). Historical trends analysis is then conducted on the global level and typological clusters (regional, similar responses, etc.), i.e., if seven of ten presidents are women, the score would be .70 or 70%. Unfortunately, member data is far less available, and such generalizations must be limited to specific groups. Similarly, ELT teacher data is very limited, particularly historically, but where available it is incorporated in summary form for particular group or regions in this study.

Efforts in collecting information on teachers of English beyond ELTAs have also been made, consulting state and national educational agencies (licensing offices, etc.), media sources, and published documents. Historical data is extremely limited – simply unavailable even to government officials in some cases, restricted in others, some government offices have data they will share in summary or full detail, sometimes for a fee. Beyond the K-12 classroom, there is no information available on ESOL teachers in non-licensed settings (colleges, private language schools) except where all language teachers must be registered (e.g., Malta) or where work visas can provide a glimpse at part of the population (e.g., Korea). Within the TAs, I requested percentages of female membership, and an estimate on local ELT profession ratios.

Clustering data across multiple periods of collection in trend analysis provided smoothing across the highly volatile outcomes that can arise from frequent data collections in smaller datasets. In the present study, five years of data are clustered in "half-decades" to smooth and clarify outcomes. Moving trend analysis, where each time block (year, in the present study) is counted multiple times across overlapping time windows (the window in the present study was five years, thus each year would be counted five times, across five different five-year windows) provides a still smother depiction, but the data here is not complex or numerous enough to warrant moving trend analysis (50 datapoints (periods), maximum 83 responses in any given year).

Analysis

Figure 1 displays the compiled and averaged gender scores for83 ELTAs' presidents across each half-decade cluster from 1965 through 2014, plus the stand-alone year 2015. This includes large and decades-old groups such as TESOL International, IATEFL, JALT (Japan), and CATESOL (California), as well as very young and small organizations, e.g., Bulgarian

English Teachers' Association (90 members, since 2015), Honduras TESOL (120 members, since 2014). We see that the number of organizations with long histories have grown 10-fold, while the ratio of female presidents has nearly doubled across fifty years.

Such a broad-scale trendline may not reflect all aspects of the data. In particular, it may be more appropriate to treat the global organizations TESOL International and IATEFL separately. Figure 2 shows that most organizations are under 1,000 members, where the average (mean) group size is 1,120 persons, but the median is only 505. TESOL International (at 14,000 members) surely distorts the mean average, and so will be removed from the next calculations, along with IATEFL, the other global ELTA in this study.
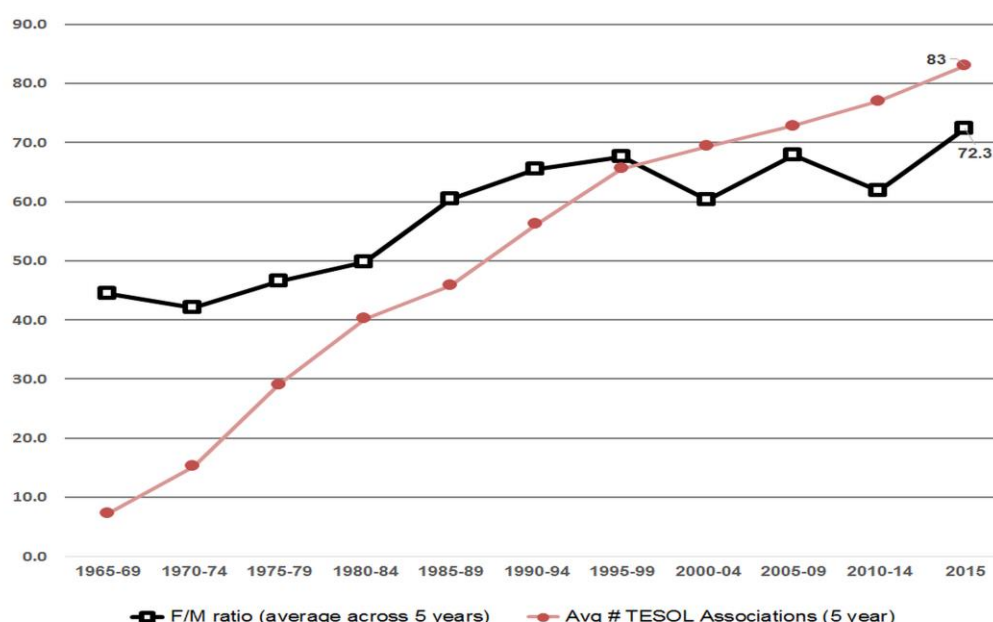
FIGURE 1. Five-year cluster trends in Female/Male presidencies
and number of ELTAs included, 1965-2014, and 2015
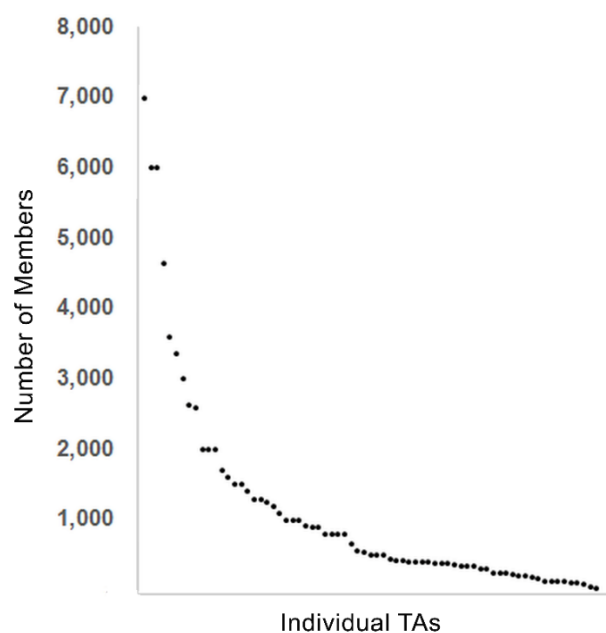
FIGURE 2. Size (Membership Count) of 81 ELTAs included

(excludes TESOL International and IATEFL)

Of the 71 groups providing membership data as well as president data (excluding TESOL International and IATEFL), the 25 largest groups had 1,000 or more members and the 26 smallest groups had less than 400, but still, three oversized groups (outliers) appear to distort things significantly. Nevertheless, the male/female ratio of presidents for each of these sized clusters is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Presidents' Gender 2010-2015 by Group Size

(excludes TESOL International and IATEFL)

Group size	Count	Presidents' F / M ratio
Larger groups ($\geq$ 1,000members)	25	0.60
Mid-sized groups	20	0.73
Smaller groups ($\leq$ 400 members)	26	0.63

The male/female ratio of presidents based on the male/female ratio of the members (38 groups reported current/recent membership gender ratio) is presented in Table 2. Immediately noticeable is the very significant gap in the ratio of male to female presidents between those groups with more than 80% female membership and those with less than 75%, however, when considering the members' ratios for these two groupings, we see is that the presidents' ratios are not so very far from members' ratios.

TABLE 2. Presidents' Gender 2010-2015 by Membership
Gender Ratios (excludes TESOL International and IATEFL)

Group Gender F / M ratio	Count	Presidents' F / M ratio	Members' F / M ratio
≥ 80% female members	18	0.70	0.87
≤ 75% female members	20	0.47	0.54

We may also examine these ratios based on geography. All 81 groups, excluding TESOL International and IATEFL, are listed alphabetically in Appendix 1, and their scores are listed (group names anonymized) in Appendix 2, summarized in Table 3. Group names have been anonymized, based on agreements made during the data collection process ("no shaming").Data from governments for licensed/registered local teachers are provided where available. A bird's-eye view of the data suggests that in North America and Western Europe, the F/M ratio for presidents across the past five years is the same or even higher than each respective group's recent membership ratio. However, the presidents' F/M ratio is far below membership ratios in most South American, African and Asian areas.

TABLE 3. Presidents' Gender 2010-2015 by Region
(excludes TESOL International and IATEFL)

Region	Count	Presidents' F / M ratio
Europe	19	.737
North America	28	.732
Central/South America	8	.659
Asia	20	.468
Africa	6	.412

Note: Mexico has been included in Central & South America
group; Australia and New Zealand included with Europe,
Puerto Rico with North America, Russia with Europe.

Discussion and Conclusion

Geert Hofstede (1980, 1991) reminds us that local cultures vary, thus global studies must deal with a variety of differing standards. ELTAs can be different, in terms of aims and approaches (Paran, 2016, 132). While it might be observed that this study is a counting based on biological sex rather than sociological understandings of gender (Sunderland, 1994), I would suggest that the question of female leadership is a gender expectations issue, not mere biology. Thus, perspectives on gender equity vary across the ELT universe (Appleby, 2007), and numbers (ratios) matter, though it would be unfair to expect all teacher groups to share similar standards. Some organizations have free memberships, some membership organizations do not empower ordinary members with the right to vote for the president, some presidents have very extended terms (7 years or more in a few of the participating groups). Similarly, most groups are overwhelmingly female (see Appendix 2), whereas a few have more male members. It appears that most groups start with more men in leadership roles, whether these ELTAs were started in the 1960s, earlier (see Wheeler, 2018 for a quick history of ELTAs) or at any time in the subsequent 50 years, but information concerning the membership in those early years is largely missing. In many cases, particularly in North America where there is more data available from governmental sources, it appears that the ELTAs are representative of the wider TESOL community, at least in terms of licensed teachers in state schools, i.e., generally 77-92% of local English language teachers, and members in state-level ELTAs, are women. Furthermore, from the limited historical data available, it appears that the ratio of women in ELTAs has increased faster than the ratio of women leaders. According to past issues of *TESOL Newsletter* and *TESOL Matters* and websites of nearly 200 ELTAs located through this study, the number of ELTAs has grown steadily across the decades. No doubt the beginnings of IATEFL and TESOL International roughly 50 years ago inspired the start-up of many regional groups, along with startup support from organizations such as Fulbright/US Embassy, The British Council, local universities and public school systems; and broad social acceptance of egalitarian themes have encouraged more women to serve.

It should be noted that some of the groups have strong expatriate membership and leadership, some of whom are "international nomads" (Motteram, 2016, citing Langford, 1998), which may make geographic delineations less clear-cut. Korea TESOL, for example, is

approximately 70% expatriate, whereas the Korea Association of Teachers of English, the Pan-Korea English Teachers Association, and the Applied Linguistics Association of Korea are almost entirely comprised of Koreans.

The fact that fewer women were included in presidential roles in the years prior to 1985 is perhaps not surprising considering the aforementioned historic "glass ceiling" in education (see also Dickey (2016) for similar results from US-based ELTAs), although a deeper examination of membership registries from that time would be needed to confirm whether women members were under-represented as presidents. As Figure 1 displays, while there are far more women in leadership now than in the 1970s (from 45% to over 70%), things have not improved substantially since the latter half of the 1980s. In simple numbers, it seems women are slightly under-represented as presidents, compared to members of ELTAs in the US.

An assumption here is that leadership in the ELT profession should be representative of the membership. Kaminsky and Yakura (2008) make a similar argument for labor unions, although some teaching professionals may shudder at the comparison. Yet we expect our leaders to be more experienced (and older?) than many members, who may be rather new to the profession, and perhaps those leaders more educated as well. For example, we may find the PhD-professor/teacher-educator president while most "chalk-face" members hold an MA or teaching certificate and work directly with language learners. This may perhaps help to explain why, historically, men held leadership roles – women did not advance to leadership in schools, gain professorships, etc. until more recent times (Shiobara, 2016), although Heyward (1993) suggests this is a recent phenomenon, and that gendered authority has moved back and forth between women and men over the ages. Another consideration might be the number, and roles, of women in the executive roles of ELTAs (vice presidents, secretaries, treasurers, etc), where we might simply count women as representatives of members overall, or consider whether women served only in certain roles, but a glass ceiling (or glass walls) prevented their serving in others. Another way of looking at the phenomenon is known as "glass escalators" (Williams, 1992) and/or "sticky floors" (Booth, Francesconi, & Frank, 2003; Johnson, Long, & Faught, 2014) that promote men faster than women. This merits further study: at present there is a case study of Korea TESOL relevant to this point (Dickey, 2018). Finally, the question of ambition and self-limiting by women was raised nearly 40 years ago by Shann (1982), where she suggested that's women's aspirations, even in traditionally female-dominated professions such as education, were lower than men's in the same professions.

There are important limitations in the data, and thus, this study. Few of the many fledgling ELTAs in Africa and Central Asia have provided data for this study. The data ends

with 2015-2016 year presidents, thus any changes since 2015 are not included. Many organizations have not provided demographic data (e.g., gender) for the current/recent membership. Historical data on membership is not reported here, as very few organizations have the data, and some others are unable (or unwilling) to share it. Wheeler (2018, p.8) observes that language teacher organizations are too busy looking forward to look back. (Look for a forthcoming study by this author on TESOL International Association.) And as noted above, there is very little data on the wider community of English language teachers in TESOL-settings outside of US K-12 schools. Efforts to collect current and historical data from TAs and the broader ELT professionals' communities will continue.[2]

The question of whether passive representation (i.e., merely being of the same gender, race, or socio-economic group) is sufficient or required to establish active representation, is yet unresolved (Capers, 2018). Equal demographic representation, furthermore, does not equate with equal participation, nor vice-versa (Pitkin, 1969). It must be acknowledged, therefore, that studies focused on numerical matching of member/leader demographics need to be complemented by those examining programmatic and policy outcomes specific to the socio-demographics of those groups. Similarly, it is unclear whether ELTAs represent the broader community of English language teachers within their respective geographic locales (Lamb, 2012; Kirkham, cited in Paran, 2016; also Paran, 2016).

It is clear that there has been significant improvement in the role of women in the leadership of English language teacher associations across the five decades, and also apparent that, at least in many locales, there is more progress to be made. I join with Smith and Kuchah (2016) as well as Aubrey and Coombe (2010), Lamb (2012), and Paran (2016) and many others in calling for more research about ELTAs, about the leaders and members in ELTAs, and about the role of women, so-called "non-native speakers of English," persons of color, and other "minorities" in the TESOL profession and its leadership. As Sunderland (1994, p. 209) suggested, we may look at gender as a metaphor for the many other question of representation across social divisions in ELT, including race, age, and perhaps NEST/non-NEST issues. Another less-discussed demographic for leadership is workplace: few teachers or professors receive support from their employers for their involvement as leaders/managers in ELTAs, and women are already doing more of the unpaid and under-recognized "housework" in academia (Babcock, Recalde, Vesterlund, & Weingart, 2017; Guarino & Borden, 2017). Further studies

---

[2] Please contact the author if you might be able to help!

examining leadership demographics beyond gender, and inclusive of broader leadership roles (not only the presidents, see Stephenson, 2018) should be undertaken, as well as investigations of gender or socio-racial policies and practices.

References

Ansary, H., &Babii, E. (2003). Subliminal sexism in current ESL/EFL textbooks. *Asian EFL Journal, 5(1)*.Retrieved from http://asian-efl-journal.com/march03.sub1.pdf

Appleby, R. (2007). Not my place: Gender politics and language teaching in East Timor. In K Ertuna, A. French, C. Faulk, D. Donnelly & W. Kritprayoch (Eds.), *Trends and Directions: Proceedings of the English in South-East Asia Conference* (pp. 1-9). Bangkok: School of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut's University. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/269693854_'Not_my_place'_Gender_politi cs_and_language_teaching_in_East_Timor

Appleby. R. (2010). *ELT, gender and international development: Myths of progress in a neocolonial world*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Appleby, R. (2014). *Men and masculinities in global English language teaching*. Houndmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Appleby, R. (2018). Addressing sexual moralities in ELT materials: When diverse cultures meet. In H. Widodo, J., Mukandan, L., Canh, M., Perfecto & A. Buripakdi (Eds.), *Situating moral and cultural values in the ELT materials: The Southeast Asian context* (pp. 15–28). London: Springer.

Aubrey, J., & Coombe, C. (2010). The TESOL Arabia Conference and its role in the professional development of teachers at institutions of higher education in the United Arab Emirates. *The Academic Leadership Journal, 8*(3). Retrieved from http://www.academicleadership.org/emprical_research/The_TESOL_Arabia_Confere nce_and_its_Role_in_the_Professional_Development_of_Teachers_at_Institutions_of _Higher_Education_in_the_United_Arab_Emirates.shtml

Babcock, L., Recalde, M.P., Vesterlund, L., Weingart, L. (2017). Gender differences in accepting and receiving requests for tasks with low promotability. *American Economic Review 107*(3), 714–747. doi:10.1257/aer.20141734

Booth, A.L., Francesconi, M., & Frank, J. (2003). A sticky floors model of promotion, pay, and gender. *European Economic Review 47*(3), 295-322. doi:10.1016/S0014-2921(01)00197-0

Caffarella, R.S., Clark, M.C., & Ingram, P. (1997). Life at the glass ceiling: Women in mid-level management positions. *Crossing borders, breaking boundaries: Research in the education of adults [27th Annual SCUTREA conference proceedings]*. Retrieved from http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/000000213.htm

Capers, K.J. (2018). The effect of the external environment on bureaucratic representation: Assessing the passive to active representation link. *American Review of Public Administration, 48*(4), 301–317. doi:10.1177/0275074016686715

Clark, I. (2015). Anyone for tennis?—A case-study on gender bias in a Japanese junior high school English language textbook. *The Journal of English as an International Language, 10*(1), 117-131. Retrieved from https://www.elejournals.com/1297/eilj-2015/eilj-volume-10-issue-2-dcember-2015/

Davis, K.A., & Skilton-Sylvester, E. (2004). Looking back, taking stock, moving forward: Investigating gender in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(3), 381-404. doi:10.2307/3588346

Dickey, R.J. (2016). Glass ceilings? Sticky floors? Women in TESOL leadership. *Fourth Estate, 32*(4), 31-33. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/37014417/Glass_ceilings_Sticky_Floors_Women_in_TESOL_leadership

Dickey, R.J. (2018). Representativeness and development of leaders in Korea TESOL. In A. Elsheikh, C. Coombe, & O. Effiong (Eds.), *The role of language teacher associations in professional development*(pp. 267-282). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-00967-0_20

Du Vivier, M., Freebairn, I. & Garton-Sprenger, J. (1994). Why 'Women in TEFL'? In J. Sunderland (Ed.), *Exploring gender: Questions and implications for English language education*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Ehrich, L. (1998). Women's under-representation in educational administration: Revisiting two solutions. *Australia & New Zealand Journal of Law & Education 3*(1), 49-71. Retrieved from http://www.anzela.edu.au/assets/anzjle_3.1_-_3_lisa_ehrich.pdf

Florent, J., & Walter, C. (1989). A better role for women in TEFL. *ELT Journal, 43*(3), 180-184. doi:10.1093/elt/43.3.180

Guarino, C.M. & Borden, V.M.H. (2017). *Research in Higher Education 58*(6), 672–694. doi:10.1007/s11162-017-9454-2

Hartman, P. L., & Judd, E. L. (1978). Sexism and TESOL materials. TESOL Quarterly, 12(4), 383-393. doi:10.2307/3586137

Heyward, C. (1993). Men and women and the rise of professional society: the intriguing history of teacher educators. *History of Education, 22*(1), 11-32. doi:10.1080/0046760930220102

Hoffman, N. (2003). *A woman's true profession: Voices from the history of teaching* (2nd ed). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Johnson, C., Long, J., & Faught, S. (2014). The need to practice what we teach: The sticky floor effect in colleges of business in southern U.S. universities. Journal of Academic Administration in Higher Education 10(1), 27-3. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1140893.pdf

Kachru, B.B. (1985). Standards, codification, and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk, & H. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the language and the literature* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press and The British Council. Retrieved from https://englishagenda.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/attachments/f044_elt-60_english_in_the_world_-_teaching_and_learning_the_language_and_literatures_v3.pdf

Kaminski, M, &Yakura, E.K. (2008). Women's union leadership: Closing the gender gap. *WorkingUSA: The Journal of Labor and Society, 11*(4), 459–475. doi:10.1111/j.1743-4580.2008.00219.x

Lamb, T. 2012. Language associations and collaborative support: Language teacher associations as empowering spaces for professional networks. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 6*(3), 287–308. doi:10.1080/17501229.2012.725255

Maranto, R., Teodoro, M.P., Carroll, K., & Cheng, A. (2019). Gendered ambition: Men's and women's career advancement in public administration. *The American Review of Public Administration, 49*(4), 469-481. doi:10.1177/0275074018804564

Morrison, A.M., White, R.P., & Van Velsor, E. (1987). *Breaking the glass ceiling: Can women reach the top of America's largest corporations?* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1987.

McMahill, C. (1998). A look at women in education and language learning (WELL). *The Language Teacher, 22*(5) [Online Edition]. Retrieved from http://jalt-publications.org/old_tlt/files/98/may/mcmahill.html

Motteram, G. (2016). Membership, belonging, and identity in the twenty-first century. *ELT Journal, 70*(2), 150-159.

Otlowski, M. (2003). Ethnic diversity and gender bias in EFL textbooks. *Asian EFL Journal,5(3)*. Retrieved fromhttps://www.asian-efl-journal.com/1461/main-journals/ethnic-diversity-and-gender-bias-in-efl-textbooks/

Paran, A. (2016). Language teacher associations: Key themes and future directions. *ELT Journal, 70*(2), 127-136. doi:10.1093/elt/ccw012

Patterson, J.A. (1994, March). *Shattering the glass ceiling: Women in school administration*. Paper presented at the Women's Studies Graduate Symposium (Chapel Hill, NC). (ERIC Document No. ED 383 098). Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED383098.pdf

Pennycook, A. (1989). The concept of method, interested knowledge, and the politics of language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly 23*(4), 589-618. doi:10.2307/3587534

Pitkin, H.K. (1969). *Representation*. New York: Atherton Press.

Porreca, K.L. (1984). Sexism in current ESL textbooks. *TESOL Quarterly, 18*(4), 705-724. doi:10.2307/3586584

Reis, S.B., Young, I.P. & Jury, J.C. (1999). Female administrators: A crack in the glass ceiling. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education 13*(1), 71–82. doi:10.1023/A:1008002221974

Shann, M. (1982, March). *Career plans of men and women in gender dominant professions*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York, NY). (ERIC Document No. ED 212 906). Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED212906.pdf

Shiobara, F. (2016). Where are all the women? *Asian EFL Journal, December 2016 Special Edition*, 60-68. Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/9859/special-editions/women-in-tesol-international-conference/

Smith, R., &Kuchah, K. (2016). Researching teacher associations. *ELT Journal 70*(2), 212-221. doi:10.1093/elt/ccv077

Stephenson L. (2018). Developing leadership capacity through leadership learning opportunities. In A. Elsheikh, C. Coombe, & O. Effiong (Eds.), *The role of language teacher associations in professional development* (pp. 187-200). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-00967-0_1

Stewart, A., & Miyahara, M. (2016). Language teacher associations in Japan: knowledge producers and/or knowledge disseminators. *ELT Journal, 70*(2), 137-149. doi:10.1093/elt/ccv081

Sunderland, J. (1994). (Ed.). *Exploring gender: Questions and implications for English language education*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Sunderland, J. (2000). Gender and language learning. In M. Byram (Ed.), *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning* (pp. 229-232). London: Routledge.

Talosa, A.D., & Malenab-Temporal, C. (2018). Content analysis of sexist language occurrence on written discourse of junior pre-service teachers. *TESOL International Journal, 13*(4), 96-103. Retrieved from https://www.tesol-international-journal.com/volume-13-issue-4-2018/

Wheeler, G. (2018). The history of language teacher associations. In A. Elsheikh, C. Coombe, & O. Effiong (Eds.), *The role of language teacher associations in professional development* (pp. 3-12). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-00967-0_20

Willet, J. (1996). Research as a gendered practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(2), 344-347. doi:10.2307/3588150

Williams, C.L. (1992). The glass escalator: Hidden advantages for men in the female professions. *Social Problems, 39*(3), 253–267. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/3096961

APPENDIX 1.

Organizations included in this study, sorted by country

IATEFL (chief executive was known as "Chairman" until 1997)

TESOL International

Argentina- FAAPI

Bangladesh- Bangladesh English Language Teachers Association (BELTA)

Belarus- BELNATE

Brazil- Brazil TESOL (BRAZ-TESOL)

Bulgaria- Bulgarian English Teachers' Association (BETA)

Cameroon- Cameroon English Language and Literature Teachers Association (CAMELTA)

CANADA- BC TEAL

CANADA- SPEAQ (Societe pour la Promotion de l'Enseignement de l'Anglais, Langue
       Seconde, au Quebec)

CANADA- TEAM Manitoba

CANADA- TESL Association of Ontario (TESL Ontario)

CANADA- TESL Canada

CANADA- TESLNS (Nova Scotia)

Chile- IATEFL Chile

Columbia- Asociacion Colombiana de Profesores de Ingles (ASOCOPI), Colombia

Estonia- EATE (Estonia)

Georgia- English Teachers' Association of Georgia (ETAG), Georgia

GERMANY- ELTAF

GERMANY- ELTAU

Greece- TESOL Greece

Honduras- Honduras TESOL (HELTA)

Hong Kong- Hong Kong Association for Applied Linguistics (HAAL)

Hungary- IATEFL Hungary

INDIA- English Language Teachers' Association of India (ELTAI)

Indonesia- Teachers of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia (TEFLIN)

Iran, Islamic Republic Of- IELTA

Ireland- ELT Ireland

Italy- TESOL Italy

Japan- JACET (Japan)

Japan- Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT)

Kazakhstan- KazTEA

Korea- Applied Linguistics Assn Korea

Korea- Korean Association of Teachers of English (KATE)

Korea- Korea TESOL (KOTESOL)

Korea- Pan-Korea English Teachers Association

Kuwait- TESOL Kuwait

Malaysia- MELTA (Malaysia)

Malta- MATEFL   (only 1 president)

Mexico- Mexican Assn. of English Teachers (MEXTESOL), Mexico

Moldova- META

Mongolia- English Language Teachers' Association of Mongolia (Mongolia TESOL)

Nepal- Nepal English Language Teachers' Association (NELTA)

New Zealand- TESOL Association of Aotearoa New Zealand (TESOLANZ)

Niger- SNELT

Peru- Peru TESOL Association

Philippines- Philippine Association for Language Teaching (PALT)

Portugal- Associacao Portuguesa de Professoresde Ingles (APPI), Portugal

Puerto Rico- Puerto Rico TESOL (PRTESOL)

RUSSIA- FEELTA

RUSSIA- Yakut TESOL (YAKTESOL), Yakut, Russia

Rwanda- ATER

Saudi Arabia- Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Association of Language Teachers (KSAALT)

Slovakia- SCET/SKA - The Slovak Chamber of English Teachers

Slovenia- IATEFL Slovenia

Spain- TESOL Spain

Taiwan- English Teachers' Association, Taiwan

Thailand- GEN TEFL

Thailand- Thailand TESOL (ThaiTESOL)

UAE- TESOL Arabia, United Arab Emirates

Ukraine- IATEFL Ukraine

USA- Arizona TESOL (AZTESOL) [unclear prior 1968]

USA- California and Nevada TESOL (CATESOL)

USA- Carolinas TESOL (Carolina TESOL), North & South Carolina

USA- Colorado TESOL (CoTESOL)

USA- Georgia TESOL (GATESOL)

USA- Illinois TESOL/BE (ITBE)

USA- Indiana TESOL (INTESOL)

USA- Maryland TESOL (MDTESOL)

USA- Massachusetts TESOL (MATSOL)

USA- Michigan TESOL (MITESOL)

USA- Mid-America TESOL (MIDTESOL), Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, Missouri

USA- Minnesota TESOL (MinneTESOL)

USA- New Jersey TESOL/New Jersey Bilingual Educators (NJTESOL/NJBE)

USA- New Mexico TESOL (NMTESOL)

USA- New York State TESOL (NYSTESOL)

USA- Ohio TESOL

USA- Oregon TESOL (ORTESOL)

USA- Sunshine State TESOL (SSTESOL), Florida

USA- TEXTESOL-IV, Houston, Texas

USA- TEXTESOL-V, Dallas, Texas

USA- Washington Area TESOL (WATESOL), Washington, D.C.

Venezuela- VENTESOL

_____

N = 83.

APPENDIX 2.

Presidents' & Members' Gender by Region 2010-2015 – Anonymized ELTAs

(excludes TESOL International and IATEFL)

ELTA ID	Member Count	F / M Ratio Members *	Presidents 2010-2015	F / M Ratio Presidents	Remarks (state or national data from governmental (licensure) authorities) *
NORTH AMERICA					
3			6	0.33	
5	1,500	0.73	6	1.00	
6	120		6	0.17	
7	800	0.73	6	0.67	
10	425	0.88	6	0.67	91% female teachers of ESOL
12	800		6	0.50	84% licensed ELTs are female
13	550		6	0.67	92.2% licensed/endorsed teachers authorized to teach ESOL are female
17	300	0.85	6	1.00	~88.6% of teachers who hold a (this state) teaching certificate in TESOL are female
18	1,500	0.90	6	1.00	87.5% working teachers with ESL cert are female
19	400	0.80	6	0.67	90.3% teachers with valid ESL endorsement are female
20	375		6	0.83	~90% of those teaching ESOL in (this state) are female
21	1,100		6	1.00	~87% of TESOL teachers in (this state) public schools are female
22	1,400	0.89	6	1.00	~77% all state teachers are female
23	120		6	0.17	
24	1,200		6	1.00	87.6% of Bi-ling & ESL teachers in (state) education system are female
26	1,000		6	0.83	
28	400	0.85	6	0.83	84.3% of licensed ESOL teachers in (this state) are Female
31	400	0.85	6	0.83	89.8% Teachers with ESOL K12 Certification 2015-2016
35			6	0.67	90.7% Teachers with ESOL K12 Certification in (this state, specified regions) are female
36	350		6	0.83	
39	350		6	0.83	
43	6,000		6	0.83	

45	890	0.74	6	0.67	
46			6	1.00	
49	187	0.75	6	0.33	
50	4,650		6	0.83	
53	120		6	0.50	
184	390		6	0.83	

SOUTH AMERICA

60	1,600	0.75	6	0.67	
80	1,000	0.70	6	0.33	
84	900	0.89	6	0.17	
87	360	0.60	6	0.67	45 founding members all female
127	120	0.70	2	1.00	
164	1,300		6	0.67	
180	250		6	1.00	
231	3,355		6	1.00	

EUROPE

104	240		6	1.00	
113	380	0.80	6	0.67	
117	27		6	0.67	
122	505	0.86	6	0.83	
129	500		6	1.00	
139	230		2	1.00	
142	300		6	0.67	
165			3	1.00	98% English teachers in this country are female (estimate)
173	423	0.84	6	1.00	
187	450	0.80	6	1.00	
193	350	0.75	6	1.00	more than 70% female teachers in the region?
201	99	0.12	3	1.00	
203	110	0.90	6	1.00	
206	800		6	1.00	
227	408	0.95	6	1.00	
75	200	0.91	6	0.00	
81	90		1	0.00	
161	200		6	0.00	71.4% women teachers in schools for foreign students
183	6,000	0.95	6	0.00	

ASIA

73	2,600	0.48	6	0.83	.50 Board is female
110	176	0.03	6	1.00	
128			6	0.67	
132	2,000	0.51	6	0.00	
137	3,600		6	0.00	
138	1,000	0.65	1	1.00	
144			6	0.00	all male presidents since 1963

145	2,637	0.41	6	0.33	
146	560	0.90	6	1.00	
147	3,000		6	0.33	
148	650	0.44	6	0.50	
149	925		6	0.33	
150	1,700		6	0.17	
158	1,300	0.80	6	0.00	
166			6	1.00	
171	7,000	0.15	6	0.17	
181	500		6	1.00	all female presidents since 1960
212	800		6	0.33	
214	236	0.75	2	0.00	
215	2,000		6	0.83	

AFRICA & THE MIDDLE EAST

83	2,000		6	1.00	
195			6	0.67	
220	1,250	0.54	6	0.50	
151			4	0.25	
175			6	0.00	
194	50	0.25	6	0.00	

————————————

Notes: Female / Male Ratios: 1.0 ratio = 100% female, 0.50 =50% female, 0.10 = 10% female (i.e., 90% male).
Mexico has been included in Central & South America group; Australia and New Zealand clustered with Europe, Puerto Rico with North America, Russia with Europe.

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

The EFL Professional's Written Forum

The Interference of First Foreign Language (German) in the Acquisition of Second Foreign Language (English) by Indonesian Learner

Jufri[1]

Yusri[2]

Mantasiah R.[3]

[1,3]*Department of Foreign Language Education, Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar*
[2]*Department of English Literature, University of Fajar, Makassar*

Bio-Profiles:

Jufri is a Professor of Language Teaching field, and he is working as a lecturer at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Department of Foreign Language. His research interest is on applied linguistics, language teaching and discourse analysis. His email contact is jufri@unm.ac.id

Yusri graduated his master program at Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Gadjah Mada. Yusri is working as a researcher assistant in Research Institute of Universitas Negeri Makassar. He is working also as a lecture at the University of Fajar. His research interest is on applied linguistics, foreign language learning and language politeness. His email contact is yusriugm@gmail.com

Mantasiah R is a Professor of Linguistics field, and she is working as a linguistics lecturer at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Department of Foreign Language. She has officiated as head of Education Development Research Center, Research Institute of Universitas Negeri Makassar. Her research interest is on pragmatics and applied linguistics. Her email contact is mantasiah@unm.ac.id

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar 90222, South Celebes, Indonesia

Fax : (0481)869834 , website : www.unm.ac.id

Abstract

Most of the previous interference studies conducted the influence of the first or second language in acquisition of foreign language. In fact, in acquisition of foreign language, not only first or second language of the speakers influencing, but also another foreign language which is being studied by the speakers. This study focused on investigating the interference of German as the first foreign language to the acquisition of English as a second foreign language faced by Indonesian learners. The participants consisted of 40 Indonesian students of German language department. This study used a qualitative approach. The data were collected using writing and speaking tests. The data shows that the first foreign language (FL 1) which in this case was German tends to affect the learning process of the second foreign language (FL 2) in this case English. There are three forms of interventions found in this study including phonology, lexis, and grammar. Phonological interventions are the most common problem experienced by students. The differences in the pronunciation between German and English are the main factor why the phonological interferences happen.

Introduction

The topic of teaching English as a foreign language or second language has become an important issue to be studied. At the college level, English has become a subject that must be studied by students from various departments apart from the English study program. Basically, there are several important aspects to be studied in supporting the process of learning English, including the learning model (Simarmata et al., 2018; Wu, 2018; Lee, 2018; Yusri et al., 2017), motivation (Henry & Thoersen, 2018; Hedgcock & Ferris, 2018; Chow et al., 2018; Mantasiah & Yusri, 2018), teaching material (Yin, 2018; Babaii & Sheikhi, 2018; Mantasiah et al. , 2018), and the quality of the teacher (Drajati et al., 2018; Borg & Edmett, 2018; Stronge, 2018). These aspects are certainly very important in determining the success of students in learning English as a foreign language.

One of the problems found in the process of learning English other than the aspects previously explained is language interference. Interference is defined as the mistake caused by a tendency to use elements of one language into other languages, including the pronunciation of units of sound, grammar, and vocabulary. Research on interference has been widely conducted, e.g. by Kharisov (2018), Incera (2018), Raheem (2018), and Safa, 2018. Those studies generally examined how the first language influences the acquisition of a second language or a foreign language. Based on the mentioned research, it can also be concluded that

phonological interference is more common than other forms of interference such as lexical and grammatical interferences.

Research on the interferences in English learning that has been carried out by previous researchers mostly examined the influence of the first language (L1) in the learning process of English as a second language (L2) or as a foreign language (Mena & Saputri, 2018; Hartshorne et al., 2018; Octaviana, 2018). One of them which was conducted by Mena & Saputri (2018) compared the affixation process of Indonesian and English and investigated forms of interference that are likely to be experienced by students due to differences in the process of affixation of the two languages.

This research article focuses on studying the forms of two-language interference but does not involve the first language (L1) or the second language (L2). The forms of interference in question were ones that occur due to the influence of the first foreign language (FL 1) in the second foreign language learning process (FL 2). In Indonesia, German is a foreign language that is widely studied both in high school and at the tertiary level other than English. At the tertiary level, especially in the German study program, this is considered as the first foreign language (FL 1) while English is considered as (FL 2) because students learn English after mastering German.

A problem by Indonesian students in learning English at German departments in Indonesian is the lack of learning motivation due to their assumption that mastering two foreign languages is not simple. Also, in the process of learning English, they are unconsciously affected by some features of the German language, especially in terms of pronunciation. For example, the letter "w" in German is usually pronounced as / v /, e.g. in the word "wie" pronounced as "vie." This is certainly not in accordance with the pronunciation method in English, where the letter "w" is still pronounced as / w /. Besides that, there are still several pronunciations of German that are different from English. This is the main cause of why students are often interfered by their German in learning English.

In addition to phonological interference as explained previously, there are other forms of interference found in learning English by students taking German language lessons such as lexicon and grammar. This problem certainly must receive attention from language researchers considering the negative impact it highly brings to the learning outcomes, especially on speaking and writing skills. Some studies discussing methods or strategies that can be applied in overcoming interference problems in language teaching have been carried out by Yusupova (2014), Maniruzzaman (2006), and Yang & Luo (2007). In general, the solution which was

identified was that the teacher had to understand the most common interference experienced by learners and give more attention to that aspect.

Research Method

This study employed a qualitative descriptive approach that aimed to analyze many aspects of the German language that become an interference in learning English as well as the factors that influence the occurrence of interference. The participants in this study were 40 German Language students who were taking English courses. All participants involved were given an assent form and they had expressed the willingness to be involved in the study. Data collection techniques were writing and speaking skills tests. In the writing test, students were instructed to write an English discourse (minimum 200 words) based on a topic. This test aimed to identify the forms of lexical and grammar interference. Then, to know the forms of phonological interference, a speaking test was conducted.

The speaking skills test instrument contained a list of short questions about everyday life. Following are some examples of short questions that are asked to students:

1) Do you have a small or big family?

2) Where is your hometown

3) What is your favourite food?

4) What job would you like when you have completed all your studies?

5) What do you like to do in your free time?

6) Do you want to spend free time alone or with other people?

7) Do you like to travel by train, motorcycle or car?

Before the instrument was used, it had been validated by 2 English lecturers who are experts in English Foreign Language teaching especially in speaking aspect. One of the aspects noticed by validators is relevancy between the test and the curriculum used in the department. The data that has been collected was then analyzed descriptively. There were several stages carried out in the data analysis stage, including 1) Data presentation 2) Data analysis 3) Data categorization, and 4) conclusions. To analyze phonological interference that occurs in students the International Phonetics Alphabets (IPA) and the Oxford Online Dictionary were utilized. Through these applications, the phonetic symbols of English vocabulary can be identified which were then compared to the way students pronounce the vocabulary.

Findings and Discussion

Lexical Interference

One form of interferences found in this study was lexical interference. It occurs when the learner accidentally uses the German lexicon in producing the English. For more details, it can be seen in the following table:

Table 1

The Forms of Lexical Interference

No	The Words		Number of Error
	English	**German**	
1	And	Und	35
2	is	Ist	32
3	Must	Muss	29
4	I	Ich	26
5	Book	Buch	18
6	have	Habe	16
7	Coffee	Kaffee	16
8	Glass	Glas	12
9	One	Ein	11
10	Brother	Bruder	9

Based on the results of data analysis, several forms of lexical interference from German to English were obtained. Basically, there are 37 lexical interferences, but in this study, only 10 most experienced lexical interferences are presented. The 10 pairs of words above were regarded to have similarities in almost cognate, which cause learners sometimes have difficulty in distinguishing these words both in writing and in speaking. Here are some data that show this lexical interference:

(1) *I und my schwester will go to the cinema*

In the above sentence, there are two kinds of lexical interferences. The word "und" and "schwester" are from German which means "and" and "sister". Thus, the correct sentence should be "My sister and me will go to the cinema".

(2) *We muss study English because English ist really important*

In that sentence, there are also two lexical interferences. The words "muss" and "ist" are from German which have the same sound with "must" and "is" in English. This sentence should be "we must study English because English is really important".

(3) *I like reading a <u>buch</u>, and listening a <u>musik</u> <u>auch</u> because the acticities can make me happy.*

This sentence shows three lexical interferences from German which are in this case the words of "buch", "auch" and "musik". The sentences should be "I like reading a book and listening to music because the activities can make me happy". The data shows that German and English have several similar words which are usually termed as "almost cognate". This is a factor that causes lexical interference in learners. Unlike the case with the Indonesian language which has vocabularies mostly different from English, this language does not affect any lexical interference to the students in learning English.

Phonological Interferences

One skill that must be mastered by foreign language learners is the speaking skill. The types of interference found in this aspect are certainly more varied than those found in the aspect of writing because, in speaking, phonological interferences more potentially occur than in writing. The data related to phonological interferences found in this study were divided into 3 categories namely 1) phonological interference in English words that are similar to German or full cognate, 2) phonological interference in English words that are almost the same as German or almost cognate, 3) phonological interference in English words that have nothing in common with German. For more details, it can be seen in the following table:

Table 2

Words in English which are similar to German (Full Cognate)

No	Words	Pronunciation in English	The way students pronouncing it	Changes on sound
1	Butter	bʌt.əʳ	but:e(r)	/ʌ/ → /u/
2	Name	neɪm	name	/e/ → /a/
3	Finger	fɪŋ.gəʳ	fingər	/ŋ/ → /n/
4	Hand	hænd	hand	/æ/ → /a/
5	Orange	ɒr.ɪndʒ	ɒrange	/ɪ/ → /a/ /d/ → /g/
6	Problem	prɒb.ləm	probləm	/ɒ/ → /o/

7	Wind	wɪnd	vɪnd	/w/ → /v/
8	Nation	neɪʃᵊn	nation	/e/ → /a/
				/ɪʃᵊn/ → /tion/
9	Bank	bæŋk	bank	/æ/ → /a/
				/ŋ/ → /n/
10	Inspiration	ɪn.spɪˈreɪ.ʃᵊn	ɪnspɪratɪon	/ə/ → /ɪ/
				/ɪʃᵊn/ → /tion/

Table 2 shows ten words in English which are similar to German (*full cognate*) but has different pronunciation. Based on the data presented in the table above, it can be concluded that German brings phonological interference in English pronunciation. The learners tend to pronounce the words above in the same ways of German. For example, the phoneme /ʌ/ in the word *bʌt. ər* changes in to /u/, so it is pronounced as *but:e(r)*. The same condition applies to the phoneme /e/ in the word *neɪm* and *neɪʃᵊn* which change to the phoneme /a/, so the word id usually pronounced as *name* and *nation*. The data above shows that in English, we differentiate between phoneme /e/ and /æ/ e.g. in the words *neɪm* and *bæŋk*, but most students tend to pronounce both phonemes in a similar way. The word *neɪm* is pronounced as *name*, and *bæŋk* is pronounced as *bank*. Furthermore, table 3 presents some vocabularies in English which are almost similar to German (almost cognate) and the phonological interferences which usually emerge in those words. For more detail, look at the following table:

Table 3.

Some words in English which are similar with German (Almost Cognate)

No	English Words	German Words	Pronunciation in English	Students' pronunciation	Changes in sound
1	Must	Muss	mʌst	must	/ʌ/ → /u/
2	Have	Habe	Hæv	hav/ Haft	/æ/ → /a/
3	Coffee	Kaffee	kɒf.i	kafe	/ɒ/ → /a/
					/i/ → /e/
4	Culture	Kultur	kʌl.tʃəʳ	kultuR	/ʌ/ → /u/
					/ə/ → /u/

5	Direct	direkt	daɪˈrekt	dɪrek	/aɪ/ → /ɪ/
6	Method	Methode	meθ.əd	metodə	/θ/ → /t/
					/ə/ → /o/
7	Music	Musik	mjuː.zɪk	musɪk	/z/ → /s/
8	Doctor	Doktor	dɒk.təʳ	dɔktoɐ	/ɒ/ → /ɔ/
					/(r)/- /ɐ/
9	Machine	Maschine	məˈʃiːn	maˈʃiːnə	/ə/ → /a/
					/-/ → /ə/
10	Brother	Bruder	brʌð.əʳ	bruD ə(r)	/ʌ/ → /u/

Table 3 shows that there are ten vocabularies in English as examples which are similar to German (almost cognate). There are some phonological interferences occurring based on that table. However, the interference of the sound /ʌ/ pronounced as /u/ is the most commonly occurred. For example, in the word "Must" which should be pronounced as "mʌst", commonly pronounced as "must". Also, the word "culture" which should be pronounced as "kʌl.tʃəʳ" is usually pronounced as "kultuR". Next, Table 4 presents some English words which do not have the similarity of German and kinds of phonological interferences occur in those words.

Table 4.

Vocabularies of English which do not have similarities with German

No	English Words	Pronounciation	Students' pronunciation	Changes in Sound
1	soon	suːn	Son	/u/ → /o/
2	Body	bɒd.i	bodi	/ɒ/ → /o/
3	Another	əˈnʌð.əʳ	anotər	/ə/ → /a/
				/ʌ/ → /o/
				/(r)/ → /r/
4	Blood	blʌd	Blud	/ʌ/ → /u/
5	Patient	peɪ.ʃᵊnt	patɪən	/e/ → /a/
				/ɪʃ/ → /t/

6	Candle	kæn.dᵊl	Kandle	/æ/ → /a/
7	Candy	kæn.di	kandɪ	/æ/ → /a/
8	Important	ɪmˈpɔ:tᵊnt	ɪmpɔrtan	/:/→ /r/ /ə/ → /a/
9	Near	nɪəʳ	nea(r)	/ɪ/ → /e/ /ə/ → /a/
10	Small	smɔ:l	Smal	/ɔ/ → /a/

In table 4, it can be seen that phonological interferences that occur are more varied, but in general, it can be seen that students tend to pronounce words in English according to their orthography which is certainly an influence from the German language. Unlike English, most of the pronunciation of the lexicon is not in accordance with the orthography. For example in the word *"soon"* which should be pronounced as *"su:n"*, most students pronounced it as *"son"*. Similarly, the word *"Near"* which should be pronounced as *"nɪəʳ"*, is most pronounced as *"nea(r)"*

Grammar Interferences

There are 2 kinds if grammatical interferences that occur based on the data collected, including the following:

1. *Writing Capital Letters at the beginning of nouns*

> One of the rules in German especially in writing skills, every prefix on nouns must be written in capital letters even though it is not at the beginning of the sentence, for example in the following sentence: I lese ein Buch (I read a book). The word "Buch" which means *book*, is written as *"Buch"*, not *"buch"*. The data analysis shows that a number of students wrote English nouns using a capital letter, e.g. as follows:

- I will go to the <u>*Beach*</u>
- I read the <u>*Book*</u>
- He gives her a <u>*Flower*</u>
- I go to the <u>*School*</u> with my <u>*Uncle*</u>.

The data above shows that some students in writing English sentences were still affected by the rules of writing capital letters at the beginning of nouns like in German, as in the word *Beach, Book, Flower, Uncle*, and some other words.

2. *Errors in Composing Compound Sentences*

German language interference, in this case, is the inversion process when combining 2 sentences using certain prepositions. There are several prepositions in German when are used to connect clauses and parent sentences, inversion processes will occur especially in clauses. Let see the following example:

Mein Auto is kaputt, deshalb fahre ich heute mit dem Zug...............(1)

(My car is broken, therefore I go by train today)

Ich bin krank, also bleibe ich heute zu Hause....................(2)

(I get sick, so I stay at home today)

In the sentence (1), it can be seen that there is the preposition "*deshalb*" which means "*therefore*", which cause the emergence of inversion process, so it is written "*deshalb fachre Ich*" not "*deshalb Ich fachre*". Also in the sentence (2), there is the preposition "*also*" which means "*so*", which also results in an inversion, so it is written "*also bleibe ich*" not *"also ich bleibe*". The process differs between English and German. In the formation of the compound sentence in English, there is no inversion. Following data shows that there are interferences affected from German in making a compound sentence in English:

Almost every morning, I cook my favorite food, then eat I with my friend........ (3)

I like watching movies, therefore spend I my time to go the cinema............   (4)

I do not have much money, aber want I buy a special gift to my friend............ (5)

In sentences (3), (4) and (5) it can be seen that some students tended to apply the inversion process in German when writing compound sentences in English. Although the percentage of students experiencing interference in this aspect was classified to be low, this part of the course also needs to be emphasized in teaching English in the future.

Based on the results of the research that has been previously discussed, it can be concluded that among the 3 forms of interference that occur, phonological interference was the most often experienced by learners. This is supported by several previous studies that specifically examined phonological interference in teaching English (Soni, 2018; Bortolotti & Marian, 2018; Pham, 2018; Khang, 2018). The results of interviews conducted with students indicated that the errors that occurred in the pronunciation of English vocabularies were more complicated to overcome than other errors such as in the lexical and grammatical aspects because students were already accustomed to the pronunciation of sounds in German. The results of this study also showed that German as the first foreign language they mastered more influenced their way of pronunciation in English compared to Indonesian as their first language.

Pronunciation errors in English caused by the influence of the German language make it difficult for listeners or lecturers to understand the intentions expressed by students in speaking. For example, the word "sun" which is pronounced as "*su:n*", is most pronounced as *"son"*, tending to be the word "sohn". Another word like "have" which should be pronounced as "*Hæv*", indeed dominantly pronounced as *"haft"*. *"haft"* has the different meaning which is a kind of sword grip or weapon. This condition absolutely affects the inaccuracy of meaning acquired by the listener. Brinton (2018) and Levis & Wu (2018) stated that pronunciation accuracy is very important to avoid the difference between meaning delivered and meaning perceived.

Besides phonological interference, the findings of the study also shows that some students experienced lexical interferences. Based on the data, it can be concluded that the lexical interference emerges as the result of the existence of a number of vocabularies in English and German which are almost similar (almost cognate) like *and-und, is-ist, must-muss,* and *book-buch*. In contrast, Indonesian Language and English have very few similar vocabularies, therefore, there was no data showed interferences occurring as the result of mastering the Indonesian language before learning English. Research about the cognate word and lexical interferences have also been conducted by Seim (2018) and Li & Gollan (2018). Those two studies are more focused on investigation language lexical interference and cognate representation.

In contrast to the two previous forms of interference, there was not much grammatical interference emerging in the learning process. One reason affecting this is that the grammars of English and German are very different, so they are easy to distinguish by students. The results of the study are in accordance with those written by Chandler (2018) regarding the Language contract and interference in South Africa. Chandler argued that regardless of the status of English that is widely used by Africans, that language has not been able to make Africans lose the attributes of attribute adjectives, change plural formation, or simplify complicated sequences of words. This means that grammatical interference is not really a big problem for bilingual persons.

Conclusion

Interference does not only occur in the process of learning a second language or a foreign language caused by the first language. Indeed, it also occurs when learners who have mastered the first foreign language (FL 1) learn another foreign language (FL 2). The results

of this study indicate that the first foreign language mastered (FL 1) in this case is that German tended to influence the second foreign language learning process (FL 2) in this case English. There are 3 types of interference found in this study i.e. phonological, lexical and grammatical interferences. Phonological interference is the most frequently experienced by students. The difference between the pronunciations of German and English is the main cause of this phonological interference.

In addition to phonological interference, lexical interference was also experienced by many students. The reason was that German has many vocabularies which are almost similar to English which is, in this case, referred to as *almost cognate,* for example, is and ist, have and habe, and *method* and *methode*. This caused students sometimes to use the German vocabulary accidentally in the process of learning English. Grammar interference was not quite often found in this study since their grammar is quite different making it easy to distinguish by students.

Recommendations

Based on the research finding, researcher suggests some recommendations:

1. In developing a teaching material for English learners, it is really important to notice not only the first or the second language of the learners, but also another foreign language which is being studied by the English learners.

2. The next study should be focused on phonological interference, as phonological interference was the most often experienced by learners.

3. This study focused on the German language as first foreign language. Therefore, researcher suggests to other linguists to conduct study which focuses on other foreign languages.

Pedagogical Implication

The findings of this study certainly can be applied globally, because it is very important to support the learning process of English as a second foreign language (FL 2). Teaching English as a second foreign language is certainly not only found in Indonesia but also found in several other countries. Therefore, in teaching English in this context, the lecturer should pay attention to the first foreign language that is already mastered by the learner, because it will influence the acquisition of a second foreign language more seriously compared to the learner's first language. By applying th finding of this study in English learning process especially in speaking class, the errors made by students influenced by another foreign language can be minimized.

Acknowledgment

References

Babaii, E., & Sheikhi, M. (2018). Traces of neoliberalism in English teaching materials: a critical discourse analysis. *Critical Discourse Studies*, *15*(3), 247-264.

Bartolotti, J., & Marian, V. (2018). Learning and processing of orthography-to-phonology mappings in a third language. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1-21.

Borg, S., & Edmett, A. (2018). Developing a self-assessment tool for English language teachers. *Language Teaching Research*, 1362168817752543.

Brinton, D. M. (2018). Teacher preparation for teaching pronunciation. *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching*, 1-7.

Chandler, L. (2018). Language contract and interference in South Africa. *English Usage in Southern Africa*, *6*(2), 13-19.

Chow, B. W. Y., Chiu, H. T., & Wong, S. W. (2018). Anxiety in reading and listening English as a foreign language in Chinese undergraduate students. *Language Teaching Research*, *22*(6), 719-738.

Drajati, N. A., Tan, L., Haryati, S., Rochsantiningsih, D., & Zainnuri, H. (2018). Investigating English language teachers in developing TPACK and multimodal literacy. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *7*(3), 575-582.

Hartshorne, J. K., Tenenbaum, J. B., & Pinker, S. (2018). A critical period for second language acquisition: Evidence from 2/3 million English speakers. *Cognition*, *177*, 263-277.

Hedgcock, J. S., & Ferris, D. R. (2018). *Teaching readers of English: Students, texts, and contexts*. Routledge.

Henry, A., & Thorsen, C. (2018). Teacher-student relationships and L2 motivation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *102*(1), 218-241.

Incera, S., & McLennan, C. T. (2018). The time course of within and between-language interference in bilinguals. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, *22*(1), 88-99.

Ivanova, I., & Kleinman, D. (2018). Multilink for bilingual language production. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 1-2.

Kang, H. (2018). L1 Interference in Koreans' Perception of Released Word-final Stops in English. 언어학, *26*(4), 1-20.

Kharisov, F., Shakurova, M., & Mirzagitov, R. (2018). Native language effect in teaching Tatar as a second language and the ways to overcome language interference.

Lee, G., & Wallace, A. (2018). Flipped learning in the English as a foreign language classroom: Outcomes and perceptions. *Tesol Quarterly*, *52*(1), 62-84.

Levis, J. M., & Wu, A. (2018). Pronunciation—Research Into Practice and Practice Into Research. *The CATESOL Journal*, *30*(1), 1.

Li, C., & Gollan, T. H. (2018). Cognates interfere with language selection but enhance monitoring in connected speech. *Memory & Cognition*, *46*(6), 923-939.

Maniruzzaman, M. (2006). Phonetic and phonological problems encountered by the Bengali speaking EFL learner: How can they be overcome. *Jahangirnagar Review, Part-c*, 45-47.

Mantasiah, R. (2018, June). Pay It Forward Model in Foreign Language Learning to Increase Student's Self Efficacy and Academic Motivation. In *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* (Vol. 1028, No. 1, p. 012178). IOP Publishing.

Mantasiah, R, Yusri. Y., & Jufri J. (2018). The Development of Grammar Teaching Material using Error and Contrastive Analysis (A Linguistic Approach in Foreign Language Teaching). TESOL International Journal, 13 (3), 2-11.

Markov, I., Nastase, V., & Strapparava, C. (2018). Punctuation as native language interference. In *Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Computational Linguistics* (pp. 3456-3466).

Masaoka, S., Kataoka, Y., Masuda, M., & Gunji, A. (2018). P3-1-10. Interference effect of personality characteristics on language processing with background music: An event-related potential study. *Clinical Neurophysiology*, *129*(5), e40.

Mena, V. V., & Saputri, K. (2018). A Contrastive Analysis Between English And Indonesian Prefixes And Suffixes In The Descriptive Texts Of Student's Textbooks. *English Community Journal*, *2*(1), 175-182.

Octaviana, D. W. (2018). Attitudinal Factors To Encourage Learners'capabilities In Learning English. *EEAL Journal (English Education and Applied Linguistics Journal)*, *1*(2), 164-173.

Pham, H. (2018). A Contrastive Analysis of English and Vietnamese Phonology in the Fourth Industrial Revolution. *현대영미어문학회 학술대회 발표논문집*, 101-105.

Raheem, K. J. (2018). The Role of First Language on The Second Language Acquisition. *International Journal of Kurdish Studies*, *4*(1), 110-117.

Safa, A. J. (2018). An Overview of Cross-linguistic Influence in Language Learning. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, *5*(3), 186-203.

Seim, A. E. (2018). *Lexical organization in bilinguals and L2 learners-A study of lexical access and cognate representation* (Master's thesis, NTNU).

Simarmata, J., Dharma, M., Putra Nasution, T., Manurung, R. T., Lubis, M. A., & Kurniasih, N. (2018). Prototype Application Multimedia Learning for Teaching Basic English. *Int. J. Eng. Technol*, *7*(2.12), 264-266.

Soni, M. (2018). Sundanese Language Interference In Pronouncing English Fricative And Affricate Consonants. *EEAL Journal (English Education and Applied Linguistics Journal)*, *1*(1), 92-98.

Stronge, J. H. (2018). *Qualities of effective teachers*. ASCD.

Wu, J. (2018). Application of computer-aided collaborative learning model in English virtual electronic teaching. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, *13*(07), 137-148.

Yang, W., & Luo, W. (2007). On How to Overcome the Interference of the College Students' Native Dialects in Their English Pronunciation [J]. *Journal of Guangxi University for Nationalities (Philosophy and Social Sciences Edition)*, *6*.

Yin, Z. (2018). Principles of Teaching Cohesion in the English Language Classroom. *RELC Journal*, *49*(3), 290-307.

Yusri, Y., Romadloni, A., & Mantasiah, R. Intercultural approach in foreign language learning to improve students' motivation. *Senior Editors*, *61*.

Yusupova, Z. F. (2014). Ways to overcome the cross-language interference at teaching Turkic-speaking attendance in Russian. *Life Science Journal*, *11*(9).

The Role of Bilingualism in Increasing Children's Cognitive Ability at Primary School

Mantasiah R.[1]

Yusri[2]

Jufri[3]

[1,3]*Department of Foreign Language Education, Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar*

[2]*Department of English Literature, University of Fajar, Makassar*

Bio-Profiles:

Mantasiah R is a Professor of Linguistics field, and she is working as a linguistics lecturer at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Department of Foreign Language. She has officiated as head of Education Development Research Center, Research Institute of Universitas Negeri Makassar. Her research interest is on pragmatics and applied linguistics. Her email contact is mantasiah@unm.ac.id

Yusri graduated his master program at Department of Linguistics, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Gadjah Mada. Yusri is working as a researcher assistant in Research Institute of Universitas Negeri Makassar. He is working also as a lecturer at the University of Fajar. His research interest is on applied linguistics, foreign language learning and language politeness. His email contact is yusriugm@gmail.com

Jufri is a Professor of Language Teaching field, and he is working as a lecturer at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Department of Foreign Language. His research interest is on applied linguistics, language teaching and discourse analysis. His email contact is jufri@unm.ac.id

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar 90222, South Celebes, Indonesia

Fax : (0481)869834 , website : www.unm.ac.id

Abstract

Some previous studies about bilingualism or semi-bilingualism have focused on the negative effects related a shift in the mother tongue caused by bilingualism. In fact, there is another benefit of being a bilingual. This study aimed to examine the role of English as an instructional language in increasing children's cognitive ability at primary school. Students who have used English as a main instructional language in learning process can be categorized bilingual or semi-bilingual. This research was quantitative study undertaken with a comparative approach which involved four primary schools. Two of them used English as Instructional Language (group 1) while others used Indonesian Language (group 2). Various jigsaw puzzle were used to measure children's cognitive ability. The shorter the duration students spend in composing puzzle, the better their cognitive skill is. The result showed that there is a significant difference between the cognitive skill of students in both groups. Group 1 tended to finish the puzzle faster proving that the use of English as Instructional Language has a possibility to positively influence children's cognitive ability.

Keywords: English, Instructional Language, Cognitive Ability, Jigsaw Puzzle, and Primary School.

Introduction

English as one of the research topics has been conducted using various approaches like teaching English as a foreign language (Mantasiah & Yusri, 2018; Mantasiah et al., 2018; Yusri et al., 2017), English linguistics (Mukherjee, 2018; Plag, 2018; Sugioka; 2018), English literature (Frederick, 2018; Chau et al., 2018) and other approaches. English also has become a compulsory subject from elementary school to college level in most countries that are not speakers of English. The role of English as an international language requires people to master it as a foreign language. One strategy implemented by several schools to familiarize their students to communicate in English is by using it as the main language of instruction in the learning process. Rules have been implemented by many schools even in Indonesia including elementary schools. The use of English as the language of instruction from grade 1 of elementary school has made students becoming bilingual.

Bilingualism has become an interesting phenomenon to study considering its potential positive and negative impact on the person. Bilingualism can be interpreted as the ability to speak two languages or more which normally are the mother tongue (native language) and a foreign language. People who can speak two languages or more fluently are called bilingual

people. Many people who are bilingual since early childhood as they have parents or family who spoke two different languages in their home or in their community, and many people also who are bilingual because of studying foreign language in the school or course (Bialystok et al., 2005). Research on bilingualism has been widely conducted by previous researchers (Thomas-Sunesson et al., 2018; Bialystok et al., 2005; Verhoeven, 2007; Bialystok, 2009; Monaghan et al., 2017). Some of them examined aspects of bilingualism by relating them to several other aspects such as language exposure, language shift, learning skills, language transfer, and phonological awareness. The objects of the study also varied, for example, Thomas-Sinesson (2018) and Verhoeven (2007) had the interest to study bilingual children, while Bialystok et al. (2005) and Monaghan et al. (2017) chose bilingual adults as the subject of their research. In general, based on these studies, it can be concluded that bilingual people tend to experience language shifts, meaning when communicating using the first language, they tend to mix it with a foreign language that they had mastered, whether in terms of lexical or pronunciation aspect.

In addition to the few studies above, there are also several studies focusing on studying the negative effects of bilingualism (Yu, 2013; Titus, 2017; Meakins et al., 2016; Posel & Zeller, 2016). Research conducted by Posel & Zeller (2016) shows that there was a relationship between an increase in the number of bilingual people and a shift in the mother tongue that occurred in South Africa. Bilingualism can be regarded to be one of the factors in the occurrence of many language shifts in people in South Africa. In contrast to the research previously described which tended to study the bilingualism in terms of its negative aspects, Daubert & Ramani (2019), Bialystock & Welker (2017), Peal and Lambert (1962) have examined the relationship of bilingualism to cognitive development, especially in children. Peal and Lambert (1962) showed that bilingual children had better verbal and nonverbal intelligence compared to monolingual children. A similar study was also conducted by Daubert & Ramani (2019) examining the relationship between bilingualism, Working Memory, and numerical abilities. The results showed that bilingual children had greater performance in addition and number identification tasks. Thus, it could be concluded that there were possible cognitive and academic benefits that bilingual children might have.

Finding people who are bilingual is certainly not a difficult thing in the present era. Grosjean (2010) explained that more than half of the human population in the world are bilingual. The importance of mastering a foreign language other than mother tongue or the first language is a factor that causes the number of bilingual people to continue to increase. This phenomenon also occurs in Indonesia where many people have been able to communicate well

using foreign languages, especially English as a second language or foreign language. The results of observations and interviews conducted with several teachers who have taught in bilingual and monolingual schools showed that bilingual students have better cognitive abilities than monolingual students.

The purpose of this study was to compare cognitive abilities between bilingual and monolingual students. Bilingual students in this study were the ones who use English and Indonesian fluently in daily communication. Unlike the case in the previous research which measured the cognitive ability of bilingual children using numerical tests, in this study jigsaw puzzle tests were utilized as the measurement instruments. Jigsaw puzzle is one of tools which can be used to measure cognitive aspect. Studies conducted by Arslan (2000), Aral et al. (2002), and Dodge et al. (2002) showed that the ability to compile puzzles in children can have a positive effect on the development of children's cognitive abilities. Fissler et al. (2018) says that jigsaw puzzling strongly engages multiple cognitive abilities. Moreover, there are some cognitive abilities which can be linked to the skill in composing jigsaw puzzling including visual perception, constructional praxis, mental rotation, cognitive speed and visual scanning, cognitive flexibility, perceptual reasoning, and working and episodic memory (Fissler et all., 2018). Therefore, children who are able to compile puzzles more quickly indicate that they have good cognitive ability. The results of this study certainly greatly contribute later in the world of education especially in the application of bilingual education in elementary school.

Research Method

The type of study was quantitative with the comparative approach. The participants are Indonesian students in primary schools who have used Indonesian Language as their first language. The participants were divided into two groups. The first group consisted of 2 primary schools which have used English as the instruction language in the learning process (symbolized as the group 1). while another group consisted of 2 schools which have only used the Indonesian language as the instruction language (symbolized as the group 2). The total of participants is 60 students, where each group consists of 30 children. The participants were selected using purposive sampling. The main criteria noticed was the level of class, where the students must be in grade 6. Based on the teaching curriculum used by schools in group 1 show that students in the 6th grade should be able to communicate using English fluently.

All participants were given assent and consent forms to declare their readiness for participating in this study. Below is the general description of the number of participants involved in this research:

Table 1

The General Information of the Participants

Group	Male	Female	Total
Group 1	11 (36,67%)	19 (63,33%)	30
Group 2	13 (43,33%)	17 (56,67%)	30

Data were collected through cognitive test and observation. Some puzzles were used as the media to measure the children's cognitive ability. The previous studies showed that puzzles could support the learning process through playing which at the same time positively contributes to the development of some skills which one of them is the cognitive skill (Arslan, 2000; Aral et al., 2002; Dodge et al., 2002; Spodek & Saracho, 2005; Demiral, 1987). The above-mentioned studies concluded that puzzles can be used as a tool to measure children's cognitive skills. This same idea is what this study would like to use to correlate to bilingualism. The less time spent in composing puzzle shows that the children's cognitive skill is better than children who need more time to deal with that game.

The puzzles used had been suited with the 11 or 12-year-old children's developmental characteristics. While designing the puzzles, there were some aspects carefully considered like the clues to connect the interlocking pieces of the puzzles together with their colour, shape, size, composition and the total number of pieces. There are 3 different jigsaw puzzles used:

1. The first puzzle consists of 25 small pieces. The picture from the first puzzle is a cartoon image of Doraemon.
2. The second puzzle consists of 40 small pieces. The picture from the second puzzle is a cartoon image of Mickey Mouse.
3. The Third puzzle consists of 50 small pieces. The picture from the third puzzle is a cartoon image of Pikachu.

Researcher chose Doraemon image cartoon, Mickey Mouse, and Pikachu, because researchers consider that students are familiar with the pictures. It is concluded based on the interview process conducted to the students. The data analysis techniques used consist of inferential statistic and descriptive statistic. Descriptive statistic aimed to calculate the average of time spent by each group in composing provided puzzle, and Statistic inferential used independent sample t-test which aimed to see if there is a significant difference to the time spent by both groups.

Findings and Discussion

In the previous section, it was explained that there were 3 different types of puzzles used to measure the cognitive level of a child. The faster the child completes the puzzle given, the better their cognitive level is. Following is the result of a descriptive analysis of the comparison of time needed in compiling puzzles by children who are bilingual and non-bilingual.

Table 2

Duration needed to compile the Puzzle 1

Duration	Group 1		Group 2	
	Total of Students	**Percentage (%)**	**Total of Students**	**Percentage**
1 < 3 Minutes	-	-	-	-
3 < 5 Minutes	6	20	1	3,33
5 < 7 Minutes	13	43,33	11	36,67
7 < 9 Minutes	6	20	10	33,33
9 < 11 Minutes	5	16,67	5	16,67
11 < 13 Minutes	-	-	3	10
13 ≤ 15 Minutes	-	-	-	-
Total	30	100	30	100
Mean	6,57 Minutes		8,07 Minutes	

Table 2 shows that the average time needed for group 1 (bilingual students) in solving puzzles was around 6.57 minutes, faster than group 2 (non-bilingual) which was around 8.07 minutes. There was a difference of about 1.10 minutes between the two groups. The time needed to prepare the second puzzle is presented in the following table:

Table 3

Duration needed to compile the Puzzle 2

Duration	Group 1		Group 2	
	Total of Students	**Percentage**	**Total of Students**	**Percentage**
1 < 3 Minutes	-	-	-	-
3 < 5 Minutes	-	-	-	-
5 < 7 Minutes	16	53,33	8	26,67

7 < 9 Minutes	9	30	10	33,33
9 < 11 Minutes	3	10	6	20
11 < 13 Minutes	2	6,67	3	10
13 ≤ 15 Minutes	-	-	3	10
Total	30	100	30	100
Mean	7,11		9,01	

Table 3 looks confirming the results presented in table 2, which shows that the group 1 spent a shorter duration than did group 2. The average time required by group 1 was 7.11 minutes, while group 2 took 9.01 minutes. These results indicate that there was a difference of 1.9 minutes between the two groups. The time needed to compile the third puzzle can be seen in the following table:

Table 4

Duration needed to compile the Puzzle 3

Duration	Group 1		Group 2	
	Total of Students	Percentage	Total of Students	Percentage
1 < 3 Minutes	-	-	-	-
3 < 5 Minutes	-	-	-	-
5 < 7 Minutes	8	26,67	1	3,33
7 < 9 Minutes	16	53,33	11	36,67
9 < 11 Minutes	4	13,33	10	33,33
11 < 13 Minutes	2	6,67	3	10
13 ≤ 15 Minutes	-	-	5	16,67
Total	30	100	30	100
Mean	8,18		10,10	

In general, table 4 also shows that group 1 was better compared to group 2 regarding the speed in compiling puzzles. Group 1 took 8.18 minutes, while group 2 took 10.10 minutes. The third puzzle was more difficult than the first and second ones because the time needed to arrange this puzzle was longer. The comparison of the two groups, in general, can be seen in table 5.

Table 5

The comparison of Bilingual and Non Bilingual Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	Bilingual	30	7,1667	1,76733	,32267
	Non-Bilingual	30	9,0637	2,19785	,40127

In table 5, it can be seen that of the 3 types of puzzles given, group 1 spent an average time of 7.16, while group 2 took an average time of 9.06. These results indicated that in general, the bilingual group was faster in preparing the three puzzles compared to the non-bilingual group. To find out whether the time difference between the two groups was significant, an independent sample t-test analysis was performed. For more details, look at table 6 below.

Table 6

The Result of the Independent Sample T-Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Mean	Equal variances assumed	1,203	,277	-2,907	58	,005	-1,49700	,51491	-2,52771	-,46629

49

Equal variances not assumed	-2,907	55,446	,005	-1,49700	,51491	-2,52872	-,46528

The results of the analysis of independent sample t-test indicated that the significance value obtained was 0.005. This shows that there were significant differences related to the time needed to arrange puzzles by bilingual and non-bilingual groups because the significance value was smaller than the specified standard value of 0.05. This was also supported by the comparison between t-count values and t-tables which in this case, the t-count value (2.90) was greater than the t-table value (2.04). Based on the data analysis, it can be concluded that the cognitive abilities between bilingual and monolingual children were significantly different. Bilingual children were regarded to have better cognitive abilities compared to monolingual children.

The results of this study are in line with research conducted by Fissler et all. (2018), Lupien et all. (2009). Gelfo et all. (2018), Dyken (2002) which explained that there was a strong relationship between skill in composing jigzaw puzzle and the cognitive abilities. Finding of this study shows bilingual children have a better cognitive skill, as they can compose jigzaw puzzle faster than monolingual children. This finding is in line with previous studies conducted by Marian (2012), Prior & MacWhinney (2010), Barac & Bialystok (2011), Engel (2012), Adesope (2009), and Blom (2014) which explained that there was a relationship between bilingualism and the cognitive abilities. Several studies in the 19s era also showed the same finding, e.g. Cummins & Mulchacy (1978) and BenZeev (1977) which explained that bilingual children showed a better analytical orientation than monolingual children. They found that bilingual children tended to use hermeneutics in interpreting sentences containing double meanings better than monolingual children. The difference between this research and previous studies lied in the instruments used to measure children's cognitive abilities. This shows that differences in instruments or methods used in comparing the cognitive abilities of bilingual and monolingual children do not affect the consistency of the findings.

Based on the results of interviews conducted with several teachers who had the experience of teaching students who were bilingual and non-bilingual, generally bilingual children had a better ability than monolingual children in aspects of memorization, understanding, concentration, analysis, conception, verbalisation, and flexible thinking. One of

the factors that cause bilingual children is superior in these aspects is because of the use of English as the language of instruction in the learning process. Teaching English to young children as also means starting to teach the children with something complex. Once children are getting used to deal with something complex in their childhood, this will certainly affect their cognitive skill. This is in line with what was stated by Bialystock (2007) that the ability of bilingual children to use two languages encourages them to think of complexes, boosts their metacognitive and metalinguistic skills, and also affects their growths into adults (Abutalebi et al., 2011; Stocco & Prat, 2014).

The results of the above research proved that teaching foreign languages which in this case was English from childhood is very important for children. This is the reason why in the present era, the use of English as the language of instruction in learning is not only applied in the English department at the college level, but also in many schools, both high schools, and even elementary schools. The introduction of English in childhood is not only intended to enable students communicating with a foreigner or competing in the workforce in the future but also to boost their cognitive aspects.

More importantly, the findings of this study confirmed that teaching English to children who are not native speakers of English through the right method certainly will not make the child experience language disorders or delay in speaking as some people generally think. Introducing children English early means training children to think complexly since childhood. This certainly will have a positive impact on children's cognitive abilities as described previously. However, it should be emphasized that in this case foreign language teaching from childhood certainly must apply methods favoured by children so that they do not feel compelled to learn.

Conclusion

Based on the data analyzed in the previous section, it can be concluded that bilingual students have the ability to compile puzzles much faster than monolingual students. The results of inferential analysis using the independent t-test sample, indicating that the speeds of bilingual and monolingual children in preparing puzzles were significantly different. Therefore, it can be concluded that the cognitive ability of bilingual children is better than monolingual children specifically related to the ability in composing puzzles. Bilingualism is considered as one of the factors that can increase or trigger children's cognitive abilities because that was the only variable significantly different between the two research groups. The results of this study certainly have some weaknesses including the measurement of cognitive abilities

which was only conducted using the puzzle compilation. Therefore, further research applying a direct cognitive ability test is required. In addition, this study only compared 2 groups and no treatment like in the experimental research was applied. As a result, other disruptive variables had likely influenced the results.

Recommendation

Based on the research finding, researcher suggests some recommendations:

4. The next study should provide data related the English skill of students and compare it with the time needed by students in composing the puzzle.
5. This study used jigsaw puzzle as instrument to measure student's cognitive skill. Therefore, the next study can use different instrument to measure cognitive skill of students
6. This study shows that teaching English from an early age can positively affect to the cognitive development of children. Therefore, primary schools or kindergarten can consider using English as instructional language in their learning process.

Acknowledgement

References

Abutalebi, J.,Della Rosa, P.A.,Green, D.W.,Hernandez, M.,Scifo, P.,Keim, R.,Cappa, S.F.,& Costa, A. (2012).Bilingualism tunes the anterior cingulate cortex for conflict monitoring. Cerebral Cortex, 22, 2076-86.

Adesope, O. O., Lavin, T., Thompson, T., & Ungerleider, C. (2009). Systematic review and meta-analysis on the cognitive benefits of bilingualism. In the *annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA*.

Aral, N., Kandir, A. & Can Yasar, M. (2002). *Early childhood education and early childhood education curriculum* (Second Edition Developed According to 2002 Early Childhood Education Curriculum). Istanbul: YA-PA Publishing.

Arslan, F. (2000). Explanation of 1-3 year old children's play and toy characteristics in terms of developmental theories. *C.U. Hemsirelik Yüksek Okulu Dergisi*, 4(2), 40-43.

Barac, R., & Bialystok, E. (2011). Cognitive development of bilingual children. *Language Teaching*, *44*(1), 36-54.

Ben-Zeev, S. (1977). The influence of bilingualism on cognitive strategy and cognitive development. *Child development*, 1009-1018.

Bialystok, E. (2007). Acquisition of literacy in multilingual children: A framework for research. Language Learning, 57(1), 45-77.

Bialystok, E. (2009). Bilingualism: The good, the bad, and the indifferent. *Bilingualism: Language and cognition*, *12*(1), 3-11.

Bialystok, E., & Werker, J. F. (2017). The systematic effects of bilingualism on children's development. *Developmental science*, *20*(1).

Bialystok, E., McBride-Chang, C., & Luk, G. (2005). Bilingualism, language proficiency, and learning to read in two writing systems. *Journal of educational psychology*, *97*(4), 580.

Blom, E., Küntay, A. C., Messer, M., Verhagen, J., & Leseman, P. (2014). The benefits of being bilingual: Working memory in bilingual Turkish–Dutch children. *Journal of experimental child psychology*, *128*, 105-119.

Chau, H. S., Chong, W. S., Wong, J. G. W. S., Hung, G. B. K., Lui, S. S. Y., Chan, S. K. W., ... & Jones, P. B. (2018). Early intervention for incipient insanity: early notions from the 19th century English literature. *Early intervention in psychiatry*, *12*(4), 708-714.

Cummins, J., & Mulcahy, R. (1978). Orientation to language in Ukrainian-English bilingual children. *Child development*, 1239-1242.

Daubert, E. N., & Ramani, G. B. (2019). Math and Memory in Bilingual Preschoolers: The Relations Between Bilingualism, Working Memory, and Numerical Knowledge. *Journal of Cognition and Development*, 1-20.

Demiral, Ö. (1987). *Home-making of educational toys for preschoolers*. Istanbul: Esin Publishing.

Dodge, D.T., Colker, L.J. & Heroman, C. (2002). *The creative curriculum for preschool*. USA: Printed and Bound.

Dykens, E. M. (2002). Are jigsaw puzzle skillsspared'in persons with Prader-Willi syndrome?. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *43*(3), 343-352.

Engel de Abreu, P. M., Cruz-Santos, A., Tourinho, C. J., Martin, R., & Bialystok, E. (2012). Bilingualism enriches the poor: Enhanced cognitive control in low-income minority children. *Psychological science*, *23*(11), 1364-1371.

Fissler, P., Küster, O. C., Laptinskaya, D., Loy, L. S., von Arnim, C. A., & Kolassa, I. T. (2018). Jigsaw puzzling taps multiple cognitive abilities and is a potential protective factor for cognitive aging. *Frontiers in aging neuroscience*, *10*, 299.

Frederick, J. (2018). Weaving Words and Binding Bodies: The Poetics of Human Experience in Old English Literature by Megan Cavell. *JEGP, Journal of English and Germanic Philology*, *117*(4), 526-528.

Gelfo, F., Mandolesi, L., Serra, L., Sorrentino, G., & Caltagirone, C. (2018). The neuroprotective effects of experience on cognitive functions: evidence from animal studies on the neurobiological bases of brain reserve. *Neuroscience*, *370*, 218-235.

Grosjean F. (2010). Bilingual: Life and reality. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Lupien, S. J., McEwen, B. S., Gunnar, M. R., & Heim, C. (2009). Effects of stress throughout the lifespan on the brain, behaviour and cognition. *Nature reviews neuroscience*, *10*(6), 434.

Mantasiah, R, Yusri. Y., & Jufri J. (2018). The Development of Grammar Teaching Material using Error and Contrastive Analysis (A Linguistic Approach in Foreign Language Teaching). TESOL International Journal, 13 (3), 2-11.

Mantasiah, R. (2018, June). Pay It Forward Model in Foreign Language Learning to Increase Student's Self Efficacy and Academic Motivation. In *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* (Vol. 1028, No. 1, p. 012178). IOP Publishing.

Marian, V., & Shook, A. (2012, September). The cognitive benefits of being bilingual. In *Cerebrum: the Dana forum on brain science* (Vol. 2012). Dana Foundation.

Meakins, F., Jones, C., & Algy, C. (2016). Bilingualism, language shift and the corresponding expansion of spatial cognitive systems. *Language Sciences*, *54*, 1-13.

Monaghan, P., Chang, Y. N., Welbourne, S., & Brysbaert, M. (2017). Exploring the relations between word frequency, language exposure, and bilingualism in a computational model of reading. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *93*, 1-21.

Mukherjee, S. (2018). Linguistic Relativity and Grammatical Gender: A Study of Bangla-Hindi and Hindi-English Bilinguals. *Aabhyantar: SCONLI 12 Special Edition*, *1*(6), 152-161.

Peal, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1962). The relation of bilingualism to intelligence. *Psychological Monographs: lecturer and applied*, *76*(27), 1..

Plag, I. (2018). *Word-formation in English*. Cambridge University Press.

Posel, D., & Zeller, J. (2016). Language shift or increased bilingualism in South Africa: Evidence from census data. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *37*(4), 357-370.

Prior, A., & MacWhinney, B. (2010). A bilingual advantage in task switching. *Bilingualism: Language and cognition*, *13*(2), 253-262.

Spodek, B. & Saracho, O. N. (2005). *Handbook of research on the education of young children*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Stocco, A., & Prat, C.S. (2014).Bilingualism trains specific brain circuits involved in flexible rule selection and application. Brain and Language, 137, 50-61.

Sugioka, Y. (2018). *Interaction of derivational morphology and syntax in Japanese and English*. Routledge.

Thomas-Sunesson, D., Hakuta, K., & Bialystok, E. (2018). Degree of bilingualism modifies executive control in Hispanic children in the USA. *International journal of bilingual education and bilingualism*, *21*(2), 197-206.

Titus, A. (2017). *The effects of bilingualism on prejudicial tendencies in unimodal bilinguals* (Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers University-Camden Graduate School).

Verhoeven, L. (2007). Early bilingualism, language transfer, and phonological awareness. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *28*(3), 425-439.

Yu, B. (2013). Issues in bilingualism and heritage language maintenance: Perspectives of minority-language mothers of children with autism spectrum disorders. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*.

Yusri, Y., Romadloni, A., & Mantasiah, R. (2017). Intercultural approach in foreign language learning to improve students' motivation. *Senior Editors*, *61*.

Process and Genre Integration as a Mediation of Learning to Write: Students' Voices

Astri Hapsari[1], Diah Agustina Ratu[1]

[1]*Department of English Language Education, Universitas Islam Indonesia*

Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Corresponding author:

astri.hapsari@uii.ac.id

Bio-Profiles:

Astri Hapsari is a lecturer in the Department of English Language Education, Universitas Islam Indonesia, DI Yogyakarta, Indonesia. She had her Master of TESOL from The University of Melbourne, Australia. Her research interest includes writing in EFL context, multiliteracies in language education, and intercultural competence in language teaching.

Diah Agustina Ratu is an undergraduate student from Islamic University of Indonesia/Universitas Islam Indonesia (UII) majoring in English Education. As a student, she has a high willing of teaching as she often participates in a variety of events, such as volunteering or attending a workshop. She also has a great interest in research starts to write a scientific paper to be presented in conferences.

Abstract

The intertwine of process and genre-based approach enables writers to develop genre or text-type awareness while they were learning to write. While much research has been conducted in English as Foreign Language (EFL) context, only a few studies describe how process and genre integration in teaching paragraph writing leads to activities that play the role

as a mediation of learning. This paper elaborates students' voices on their experience to use paragraph writing pedagogical tools, such as paragraph planning template and five steps paragraph drafting template to write first draft of paragraph writing. A narrative inquiry with three participants was set for this study. Data analysis revealed that three themes emerged: changing assumptions that writing is merely individual expression, enhancing language awareness, and nurturing habit that writing is a process.

Keywords: genre-based pedagogy, paragraph writing, pedagogical tools

Introduction

In language education, writing in a foreign language has been a concern by many writing instructors (Abdon, 2018; Abrams & Byrd, 2016; Alqadi, 2016; Guan, Ye, Wagner, & Meng, 2012; McKinley, 2019; McKinley, 2015; Talosa & Maguddayao, 2018 ;Thirakunkovit, & Chamcharatsri, 2019; Wingate, 2012). Started from the debate of product or process-based approach in teaching writing, the way teachers teach writing has shifted from pure process-based to process and genre integration (Bae, 2012; Chaisiri, 2010; Hyland, 2003; Yasuda, 2011).The intertwine of process and genre-based approach enables writers to develop genre or text-type awareness while they were learning to write (Lee, 2012).

A qualified English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher shall write effectively in their professional teaching practice and their professional development. Wingate (2012), citing Turner (1998) considers the process of developing, implementing, and evaluating different approaches in teaching writing as a journey because of the implication of values system such as challenge, overcoming obstacles, and exploration. Referring on Wingate's (2012) on journey in teaching academic writing, this study was conducted at the time of first author's first experience in implementing process and genre integration as a mediation of teaching paragraph writing for EFL university students. This study is narrative inquiry. It discusses students' voices who enroll first author's paragraph writing coursework through sociocultural perspective lens.

In EFL higher education, especially in the department of English language education whose graduates profile will be EFL teachers in secondary education context, knowledge of developing a good paragraph is fundamental for students' writing skills. The ability to write a good paragraph can be used to teach English writing during their field study program on their third year in junior and senior secondary schools. As pre-service teachers, this teaching

internship program requires them to teach writing in accordance to Republic of Indonesia National Education Ministry Regulation Number 22/ 2006. Thus, the rationale of developing paragraph writing course content for the first year university students in the department is highly related to the demand of knowledge mastery of genre or text type in the regulation. Panjaitan (2013) states that there are five types of genres taught in junior secondary curriculum (recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, and report) and twelve types of genres taught in senior secondary curriculum (recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive, report, news item, analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, spoof, explanation, discussion, and review). Table 1 describes the summary of twelve types of genres taught in senior secondary curriculum in Indonesia, which is also known as *Kurikulum 2013*.

The text types/ genres of paragraph writing in Indonesia's secondary education context is taught to the students explicitly to support their process in writing the first draft of the paragraph. This summary is introduced at session 5 of the coursework after the students have finished to build the prior knowledge on how to write sentence- as the building blocks of a paragraph - and how to identify sentence problems. In addition to explicit text types/ genre introduction, they also perform step by step process in writing from ideas generating, narrowing topic, and writing a paragraph outline. The outcomes, indicators, and assignments of the paragraph writing coursework in this research context are formulated as described in Table 1:

Table 1. Learning Outcome, Indicators, and Assignment of Paragraph Writing Coursework

Learning Outcome	Indicators	Assignment
Demonstrating knowledge on English sentence structure as the foundation of writing a paragraph	Ability to write English phrases, clauses (*Independent Clauses and Dependent clauses; Adverb Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Noun Clauses), connectors, and* sentences accurately and identify	Writing simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex English sentences

	Parallelism and Sentence Problems	Task : Samples of individual writing on sentence level
Demonstrating logical, critical, systematic, and innovative thinking in writing English as a Foreign Language (EFL) paragraph by using *process-based and genre based EFL writing*	1. Appropriateness of *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing	Task :Paragraph Writing First Draft

-Pedagogical tool 1: Five Steps of Paragraph Writing Template |
	2. Consistency of discussion on the topic in the paragraph ; unity and coherence of inter sentential relationship in the paragraph	-Pedagogical tool 2: Paragraph Planning Template
	3. Paragraph development through details with relevant examples.	-First Draft of Paragraph Writing
	4. Accuracy in grammar, lexical resource, the use of capital letters and punctuation.	
Mid Semester Assessment		

		Task: Paragraph Writing Final Draft
Peer-Review Process 1: *Paragraph Coherence* *1.repetition of key nouns,* *2.use consistent pronouns* *3.transition signals* *a. sentence connectors* *b. clause connectors* *c. logical order*	Peer-Review Process 2: *Genre/Text type, Social Function, Audience, Generic Structure, Language Structure*	Self-reflection *Genre-based approach* *Genre/Text type, Social Function, Audience, Generic Structure, Language Structure* Revision Revised Final Draft of Paragraph Writing
Learning Outcome	**Indicators**	**Assignment**
Be able to use English in creating appropriate written communication accurately and fluently on paragraph writing in accordance with level A2-B1 in *CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages)*	1. Appropriateness of *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing 2. Consistency of discussion on the topic in the paragraph ; unity and	Task: Paragraph Writing Final Draft as Final Assessment of Paragraph Writing Coursework

	coherence of inter sentential relationship in the paragraph	
	3. Paragraph development through details with relevant examples.	
	4. Accuracy in grammar, lexical resource, the use of capital letters and punctuation.	

Review of literature

Process and genre integration in teaching paragraph writing

Teaching writing approach in English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) context roots from teaching writing in English as a native language context. Historically, a product-based approach was mostly implemented in teaching writing in 1960s. Students are required to create a text which resembles a model text presented and analyzed at the beginning stage of learning. For example, they are required to fulfill the standards of the model text and imitate it in their own writing (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). This approach views that learning to write is the product of habit formation, which emphasizes formal accuracy (Silva, 1990), and organization of ideas are considered to be more important than the process of generating ideas (Hasan & Akhand, 2010). In 1970s and 1980s, there is a paradigm shifting on in the teaching of writing to a process-based approach. This approach focuses on non-linear thinking of the writer and points out that repeated thinking in learning to write (Flower & Hayes, 1981; Jordan, 1997; Nagao, 2018), which means, writing is not seen as a single draft as the product but rather an improvement of the first draft during the teaching and learning process. Kroll (1990) highlights on students' engagement on cyclical writing tasks and the need to stages of drafting, peer/teacher feedback, and revision in a writing assignment in a process-based writing approach.

In 1990s the genre-based approach starts to appear as a response of critics among genre theorists, who argue that process-based approach does not give enough attention to text types' linguistic features (Cope & Kalantzis,1993; Freedman & Medway, 1994; Kress, 1993) or socio-cultural activity of text production (Bazerman, 1994; Russell, 1997). Price & Price (2002) highlight that writers should identify generic form and language features within the text in order to be aware of socio-cultural aspect of a text. Genre-based pedagogy is a social response to process-based writing (Hyland, 2003) which elaborates rhetorical patterns of a specific discourse (Hyland , 2004; Hyland, 2007). In nowadays EFL teaching writing, process and genre integration is seen as a better mediation in teaching writing (Bae, 2012; Chaisiri, 2010; Yasuda, 2011).

Process and genre integration as a mediation of learning to write

The concept of mediation comes from sociocultural theory, first proposed in 1920s-1930s by L.S. Vygotsky and his followers in the field of psychology. The core of Vygotsky theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Vygotsky, 1981; Vygotsky, 1986) is rejection on "any attempt to decouple consciousness from behaviour and searched from the explanation of consciousness through interaction" (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). It has been used by researchers and scholars to explain language learning process (Bakhtin, 1986; Bazerman, 1994; Bazerman, 2012; Bazerman & Prior, 2004; Engeström, 1999; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; Lantolf, 2000, Lee, 2011, Thompson, 2013; McKinley 2019; McKinley, 2015; Wertsch, 1985; Wertsch, 1991; Wertsch, 2007).One of essential points of sociocultural theory is the concept of mediation "and the related notion of mediational means" (Lee, 2011, p. 26). As Wertsch (2007) argues, mediation is a central theme throughout Vygotsky's writing:

> In his view, a hallmark of human consciousness is that it is associated with the use of tools, especially "psychological tools" or "signs." Instead of acting in a direct, unmediated way in the social and physical world, our contact with the world is indirect or mediated by signs. This means that understanding the emergence and the definition of higher mental processes must be grounded in the notion of mediation. (p. 178)

Through sociocultural lens, learners are considered to be actively engaged in learning process by "mediating themselves to other people and other learning tools" (Lee, 2011, p.25). He highlights that a variety of semiotic mediational tools- either psychological or symbolic ones- were introduced by Vygotsky, such as :

...language; various systems of counting; mnemonic techniques; algebraic symbol

systems; works of art; writing; schemes, diagrams, maps and mechanical drawings;

all sorts of conventional signs and so on (p. 26).

In addition, Thompson (2013) notes that sociocultural theorist (Wertsch, 1985) and activity theorist (Engeström, 1999) "use the term cultural tool to refer to both physical tools (e.g.,pen, computer) and psychological tools such as language (p.249)". In a writing coursework, for example, process and genre integration can be seen as psychological mediations, while the use of templates in learning process can be understood as physical tools that serve as mediations of learning.

EFL writing is a complex form of sociocultural activity. Thompson (2013) on reference of Vygotsky (1986) argues that "writing involves high level of abstraction as pupils attempt to communicate meaning" (Thompson, 2013, p. 247). and "deliberate semantics- deliberate structuring of the web of meaning" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 186), in which

...social and cultural interaction leading to the translation from inner speech, or internalized

thought, to outer speech in the form of writing (Thompson, 2013, p.247)

In paragraph writing, EFL learners should be able to recognize the abstraction of what certain genre or text type' s purpose and generic structure are in order to further identify specific language features needed to master for writing a good paragraph that fits its communicative purpose in appropriate context.

Another essential concept of sociocultural theory is the concept of zone proximal development (ZPD). According to Vygotsky (1978), the ZPD is

the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (p. 86).

During the writing process, they are given feedback to revise their first draft of and create the better version of final draft. This writing process can be facilitated by setting the right learning environment and using mediations. The assessment rubrics used by peer-reviewer to review the first draft and final draft is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Criterion and Grading in Paragraph Writing Assessment Rubrics

Criteria	Grade A and A-	Grade A/B and B+	Grade B and B-	Grade B/C and C+	Grade C and C-
1.Appropriateness of *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing	Demonstrating paragraph development which reflects appropriateness of *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing attentively and accurately	Demonstrating paragraph development which reflects efforts on adjusting *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing attentively but less accurately	Demonstrating paragraph development which reflects efforts on adjusting *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing less attentive so that it can cause misunderstandings on text generic structure and readers	Demonstrating paragraph development which reflects efforts on adjusting *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing less attentive so that it can cause misunderstandings on social	Demonstrating paragraph development which reflects efforts on adjusting *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing less attentive so that it can cause misunderstandings on genre/ text type, social function, text generic

				function, text generic structure,and d readers	structure,and readers
2. Consistency of discussion on the topic in the paragraph ; unity and coherence of inter sentential relationship in the paragraph	Demonstrating ability to sequence information and ideas with clarity and logic progressively and manage cohesion aspects well	Demonstrating efforts to organize information and ideas logically and progressively by using various cohesive device , but often too few or too many	Demonstrating efforts to arrange information and ideas coherently and progressively by using *cohesive device* intrasentencially or intersentencially but sometimes inappropriate, reference is not always used correctly	Demonstrating efforts to present information with some arrangements but not progressive, using cohesive device but inappropriate and not enough, repetition of sentences because lack of referencing and substitution	Demonstrating efforts to present information but organize incoherently and not progressive in responding, using some repeated inappropriate cohesive device

3. Paragraph development through details with relevant examples.	Presenting evidences which logically and correctly link to writer's ideas and make information and ideas become clearer and more progressive	Presenting evidences which logically and correctly link to writer's ideas and make information and ideas become clearer and more progressive, even though less accurate	Presenting evidences which less logically and correctly link to writer's ideas so that information and ideas becomes unclear and less progressive	Presenting evidences which less logically and correctly link to writer's ideas so that information and ideas becomes less clear and unprogressive	Presenting evidences which less logically and correctly link to writer's ideas so that information and ideas becomes unclear and unprogressive
4. Accuracy in grammar, lexical resource, the use of capital letters and punctuation.	Using structure and vocabulary in a broad scope, the majority of sentences are error-free, only make a few mistakes and inaccuracies, use vocabulary fluently and flexibly to	Using structure and vocabulary in a broad scope, the majority of sentences are error-free, only make a few mistakes and inaccuracies, use vocabulary fluently and	Using structure and vocabulary in a broad scope, the majority of sentences are error-free, only make a few mistakes and inaccuracies, use vocabulary fluently and flexibly to	Using structure and vocabulary in a broad scope, the majority of sentences are error-free, only make a few mistakes and inaccuracies, use	Using structure and vocabulary in a broad scope, the majority of sentences are error-free, only make a few mistakes and inaccuracies, use vocabulary fluently and flexibly to

	convey meaning correctly, use unfamiliar vocabulary skillfully but sometimes there are inaccuracies in choices and combinations word (collocation)	flexibly to convey meaning correctly, use unfamiliar vocabulary skillfully but sometimes there are inaccuracies in choices and combinations word (collocation)	convey meaning correctly, use unfamiliar vocabulary skillfully but sometimes there are inaccuracies in choices and combinations word (collocation)	vocabulary fluently and flexibly to convey meaning correctly, use unfamiliar vocabulary skillfully but sometimes there are inaccuracies in choices and combinations word (collocation)	convey meaning correctly, use unfamiliar vocabulary skillfully but sometimes there are inaccuracies in choices and combinations word (collocation)
5. Originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by academic citation clarity	Demonstrating the originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by clarity of academic citations	Demonstrating the originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by clarity of academic citations	Demonstrating the originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by clarity of academic citations	Demonstrating the originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by clarity of	Demonstrating the originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by clarity of academic citations

				academic citations	
6. Commitment and communication skill	Demonstrating commitment to work and constructive communication excellently	Demonstrating commitment to work and constructive communication very well	Demonstrating commitment to work and constructive communication well	Demonstrating commitment to work and constructive communication with some inconsistencies	Demonstrating commitment to work and constructive communication with a number of inconsistencies

Therefore, the premise in this paper is formulated in a statement: As a sociocultural activity, learning EFL paragraph writing is mediated by pedagogical tools in a learning environment designed by process and genre integration. In this research context, the mediational means involved in the learning environment designed by first author are two pedagogical tools use in paragraph writing coursework: (1) paragraph planning template involving 12 genres in Indonesia secondary education curriculum framework and (2) five-step paragraph drafting template. The paragraph planning template guides the students to identify text type/ genre, social function, generic structure, language feature and topic before they start to implement five steps of writing process in creating first draft. Meanwhile, the five steps paragraph drafting template require students to: (1) brainstorm ideas by clustering or sub listing in order to develop the topic into supporting details; (2) create preliminary outline; (3) formulate topic sentence (if the genre of the text requires explicit main idea in a sentence form); (4) creating outline; (5) writing first draft of a paragraph.

Method

Research Design

A narrative inquiry with three participants was set for this study. Mendieta (2013) asserts that in Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) field, narrative inquiry tradition explored participants' past experience as an exploration to explain language teaching and learning matters. A narrative inquiry design is an approach in qualitative research that involves eliciting and documenting stories of individuals' life experiences (Barkhuizen, 2008; Murray, 2009). Barkhuizen (2011) calls for attention to the extent of interactional context and how the participants and researchers perform their identity in narrating the story. Mendieta (2013) citing Polkinghorne (1995) highlights that, narrative descriptions exhibit human activity as purposeful engagement in the world: "Narrative is the type of discourse that draws together diverse events, happenings and actions of human lives" (p.5). The data presented and discussed in this paper aims to analyze and discuss students' voice in experiencing in paragraph writing coursework through sociocultural lens. Bazerman & Prior (2004) states that one aspect which is important when analyzing students' writing is the mediational tools that help to scaffold their development in learning environment.

Participants

For this study, the participants were taken from the English education department of Universitas Islam Indonesia. Three students from batch 2018 participated in this study, they are Safiyya, Mutmaina, and Prameswari. At that time of the study, the participants were first year university students who took paragraph writing coursework. As they will practice what they learn as pre-service English teachers, the pedagogical tools serve as mediators of their perception as writers and future teachers of writing (Zimmerman, Morgan, & Kidder-Brown, 2014). Three of them decided voluntarily to be the participants. They are from different parts of Indonesia: Lampung, Bengkulu, and Manado and has prior knowledge on experiencing twelve types of genres in English in their Indonesia secondary education curriculum. As language educators working with learners from other cultures, it is significant it is to be conscious of cultural differences and their expression in the learning environment.

Data Collection and Analysis

Individual interviews and group interview were conducted to collect data. Three participants were chosen among the students who enroll in Paragraph Writing Coursework.

The consideration of choosing the participants was because they were willing to participate in the research and were able to tell their experience in details during their enrollment in paragraph writing coursework. The types of interview in this study is semi-structured interview. Murray (2009) states that semi-structured interview is one where the interviewer has a clear picture of the topics that need to be covered (and perhaps even a preferred order for these) but is prepared to allow the interview to develop in unexpected directions where these open up important new areas. The key topic that need to be covered and to a large extent what questions need to be asked were first identified. The interview includes 12 questions, as follows:

1.   Does the genre-based approach by reading various genres followed by quizzes make it easier or harder for you to know about genre types?

2.   Do you feel any difficulty while working on the quiz?

3.   What is your suggestion for the 5th meeting?

4.   At the 6th meeting, knowledge of the genre given at the previous meeting was implemented by giving a new text. From these activities, what did you learn about the genre?

5.   Do you think Paragraph Writing Tools are useful for planning paragraphs?

6.   What are your challenges when making paragraphs?

7.   Does the paragraph writing tools help you to know the text structure and the language structure in making paragraphs?

8.   What are the benefits of knowing the types of text?

9.   What is your thought when read some genre of text? Will you automatically analyze the type of text type?

10.   Does knowing the types of text genres have an impact on your thinking?

11.   Does the genre-based approach have an impact on writing activities?

12.   Do you think of the audience when writing activities?

This study uses one primary data source, interview transcripts, from individual and group interview. The secondary data sources is document from student task. Following Murray's (2009) practice, data were collected through conversation –which is based on mutual respect and trust by explaining: the purpose of the study, the role of the participant, the time needed for the conversation, and participants' protected confidential. The conversation was audio recorded, transcribed, analyzed using inductive coding, developing themes, and identifying core narrative elements with each theme. The researcher also informed consent of participants for the ethical conduct of research. In this interview, participants are as fully informed about the study's purpose. Research credibility is achieved through evidence of experience during the coursework from more than one participant's perspective. Meanwhile, as Edge & Richards' (1998) suggestion on the notion of dependability and confirmability, both are achieved through documentation of the paragraph writing process. The collected and transcribed data were validated in terms of construct and content related validity by the first author who also designed the course content.

Findings and Discussion

The purpose of this study is to discuss students 'voice about their experience in paragraph writing course design using two pedagogical tools. Three themes (changing assumption that writing is merely individual expression, enhancing language awareness, and nurturing habit that writing is a process) emerge relating to the three participants' experience in using paragraph writing pedagogical tools to write the first draft. Sample of a student's assignment output (pseudonym : Parameswari), which was peer-reviewed by her friend (pseudonym: Melati) in process and genre integration of paragraph writing coursework is illustrated as followed:

Paragraph Planning Template

Type Text	Descriptive Text
Social Function	To describe a particular person, place or thing.

Generic Structure	Identification : contains about the introduction of a person, place, animal or object will be described.
	Description : contains a description of something such as animal, thing, place or a person by describing its feature, forms, colors, or anything related to what the writer described.
Language Features	Specific Participant : has a certain object, is not common and unique (only one).
	The use of the Adjective (an adjective) to clarify the noun.
	The use of Simple Present Tense : the sentence pattern used is Simple Present because it tells the fact of the object described.
	Action Verb : verbs that show an activity.
Topic	Ariana Grande
Audience	Age range : Middle schooler and above.
	Gender : All gender
	Publication Plan : Magazine and Online Article.

Figure 1. Student's work on paragraph planning template

Parameswari

18322000

Ariana Grande

Ariana Grande was born on June 26th 1993 in Boca Raton, Florida, U.S. She is a singer and also actress. She began her career in 2008 and grande was cast in theNickelodeon television show and getting a good role on one of the television shows in Nickelodeon and then Ariana got an offer to play in the series *"Cat Valentine"*. Many people said that Ariana Grande has a body goals. The body proposition that Ariana has is not too thin and not too fat so many people want to have a body like her. Ariana's skin color is brownish ans she also has dimples.[U1] On

2011, she began her music career and she released her first album *"Yours Trully"*. After her first album was successful, Ariana finally released other albums such as *"The Ways", "My Everything", "Problem", "Dangerous Woman", and "Sweetener"*. Ariana gets a lot of achievemens in the music field and she entered in several music nominations in the world and won because of her success which has released many worldwide albums. Some of the awards she got were Favorite TV actress award at Nickelodeon Kids Choice Awards, American Music Awards, And Teen Choice Awards.[U2]

Draft 1. Reviewer: Melati

On Dec 25th, 2018 (Rubric Criteria and Descriptor refer to Table 3)

Criteria	A & A-	A/B & B+	B & B-	B/C & C+	C & C-
1.Appropriateness of *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing		(V) Demonstrating paragraph development which reflects efforts on adjusting *genre* or text type, social function, purpose, generic structure and language features of text type in paragraph writing attentively but less accurately			
2. Consistency of discussion on the topic in the paragraph ; unity and coherence of inter sentential relationship in the paragraph		(V) Demonstrating efforts to organize information and ideas logically and progressively by using various cohesive device , but often too few or too many			

3. Paragraph development through details with relevant examples.		(V) Presenting evidences which logically and correctly link to writer's ideas and make information and ideas become clearer and more progressive, even though less accurate			
4. Accuracy in grammar, lexical resource, the use of capital letters and punctuation.	(V)Using structure and vocabulary in a broad scope, the majority of sentences are error-free, only make a few mistakes and inaccuracies, use vocabulary fluently and flexibly to convey meaning correctly, use unfamiliar vocabulary skillfully but sometimes there are inaccuracies in choices and combinations word (collocation)				
5. Originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by academic citation clarity		(V)Demonstrating the originality of individual and group assignments accompanied by clarity of academic citations			
6. Commitment and communication skill	(V)Demonstrating commitment to work and constructive				

	communication excellently				

Figure 2. Student's first draft of paragraph writing was reviewed by a peer

Ariana Grande

Ariana Grande was born on June 26th 1993 in Boca Raton, Florida, U.S. She is a singer and also an actress. She began her career in 2008 and Grande was cast in Nickelodeon television show and got a good role on one of the television shows in Nickelodeon and then Ariana got an offer to play in the series called *"Cat Valentine"*. Many people said that Ariana Grande has a body goals. The body proposition that Ariana has is not too thin and not too fat that makes many people want to have a body like her. Ariana' s skin color is brownish and she also has dimples.[U3] On 2011, she began her music career and she released her first album *"Yours Trully"*. After her first album was successful, Ariana finally released other albums such as *"The Ways", "My Everything", "Problem", "Dangerous Woman", and "Sweetener"*. Ariana gets a lot of achievements in her music career and she got into several music nominations in the world and won then because of her success which has released many worldwide albums. Some of the awards she got are Favorite TV actress award at Nickelodeon Kids Choice Awards, American Music Awards, And Teen Choice Awards.[U4]

[U1]Identification
[U2]Description
[U3]Identification
[U4]Description

Figure 3. Student's Final Draft of Paragraph Writing

From the peer-review process of the first draft of paragraph, pedagogical tools help the students to enhance their language awareness. Paragraph planning template that require them

to study references on text-type, social function, generic structure, language features before choosing a topic to be followed up by process-based approach have made the three participants became more aware of the need to master language features needed to write certain text-type. Prameswari related her experience to plan the language features needed to write first draft paragraph to her grammar class.

> Not really notice the change on the verb on my grammar class, but then in language features I notice on recount text ..it is not always love…it is sometimes loved the verb. (Excerpt 3 Conversation)

This finding is in line with Yasuda's (2011) finding that genre-based writing develops linguistic knowledge of EFL writers. Before taking paragraph writing coursework Safiyya, Mutmaina, and Prameswari thought that writing was the process of finding an interesting topic through brainstorming activity then writing what they like without considering social purpose or sense of audience who will read their writing. Their awareness on generic structure of certain text types was limited on their experience in identifying text types in reading materials but they did not realize that each text type has its social purpose intended to certain audience. Paragraph writing pedagogical tools make them realize that writing is social activity that is intended for expressing individual aspiration in social context.

> Before being introduced by the template, writing was about brainstorming your ideas freely and just write. It is for sharing our story to the readers, no…not really thinking about social purpose (Excerpt 1 Conversation)

> I became more aware of types of text and their generic structure…for example, which one that should have arguments? Ehmm… hortatory text , so this hortatory text also has specific generic structures and language features… and if it is report text it would be different…And also think about the language expression for specific audience.. (Excerpt 2 Conversation)

This first finding aligns with Hyland's (2003) notion that literacies are social rather than individual's struggle of expression. In addition, McKinley (2015) asserts that the incorporation of sociocultural conventions of academic discourse allows the students establish writer identity and develop critical argument in EFL writing.

Lastly, the pedagogical tools nurture the participants' habit in writing. They learned that arranging ideas to write a good paragraph needs several steps to do. Safiyya said that the challenge was to transfer the ideas in brainstorming process to outline.

> It helps me to be aware of process in writing but I am still confused on how I should choose the words for my ideas on brainstorming to outlining…for example, I already have the topic, feminism in Islam, I still need to think my ideas and the words in English and how they should be arranged…and I just remember the things I read in the internet words by words it is so hard to arrange the words by myself (Excerpt 4 Conversation)

She admitted that she needed to improve her skill in building phrases and clauses. She also admitted that maintaining originality of her ideas in a paragraph is difficult because she had the habit to remember words by words the reading materials which she read before writing the paragraph.

Safiyya's experience was a note to pay attention for writing instructors. Vygotsky's concept on ZPD which is often called scaffolding in learning process maintains that it is only through interaction with more experienced or knowledgeable other person "learners participate in the development of their own skill to reach higher competency" (Donato, 1994 as cited in McKinley, 2015). Therefore, heavily assisted instruction in the early writing stages is necessary (Hyland, 2003). However, during the learning process, some students skipped the early writing stages of brainstorming and outlining and jumped to the paragraph planning template once they found the topic. They have problems with originality of their writing because they rely heavily on the sources they read on the internet. It will not create a writer who is, as McKinley (2015) describes, autonomous, critical, and able to construct pieces on their own.

Conclusion

Lesson learned from using paragraph writing pedagogical tools is that they help EFL students plan their first draft of paragraph writing. However, the tools still have limitation in scaffolding students' writing activity, such as: the tools do not really help low English proficiency students deal with the microstructure of writing skill (accuracy on language features) and becomes an autonomous and critical writers. In addition, because of easy access of finding model text-type through internet, there was a challenge for EFL students to maintain the originality of their writing. Therefore, the use of a plagiarism

checker software, such as: *Turnitin or Crossref*, can help students to maintain their academic integrity to create original content.

Pedagogical Implication

The pedagogical implication from the research is that language educators in English as a foreign language context should build a strong foundation of sentence building before they use the tools as scaffolding instruments for paragraph building. In addition, supportive classroom interaction from the instructor is also needed in order to scaffold the learning process.

References

Abrams, Z.I., & Byrd, D.R.(2016). The effects of pre-task planning on L2 Writing: mind-mapping and chronological sequencing in a 1st-year German class. *System*, 63, 1-12.

Abdon, M. (2018). Students' writing proficiency and level of anxiety toward academic English writing. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles,* 20 (12.4), 30-52.

Alqadi, H.M. (2016). The effects of using portfolio in writing activities aimed at developing the Arabic language discourse competence of 1st secondary grade students in Housha Secondary School for girl in Jordan. *European Scientific Journal,* 2 (22), 240-248.

Bae, H.J. (2012). The effectiveness of genre-based L2 writing instruction on Korean middle school students' writing ability. *English Teaching,* 67(3), 147-180.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1986). *The problem of speech genres.* In Speech genres and other late essays (pp. 60-102). Austin: University of Texas Press.

Barkhuizen, G. (2008). A narrative approach to exploring context in language teaching. English Language Teaching Journal, 62(3), 231–239.

Barkhuizen, G. (2011). Narrative Knowledging in TESOL. TESOL Quarterly, 45(3), 391-414. doi: DOI 10.5054/tq.2011.261888.

Bazerman, C., & Prior, P. (2004). Introduction. In C. Bazerman & P. Prior (Eds.), *What writing does and how it does it: An introduction to analyzing texts and textual practices* (pp. 1-10). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bazerman, C. (2012). Writing, cognition and affect from the perspectives of sociocultural and historical studies of writing. In V. W.Berninger (Ed.), *Past, present and future contributions of cognitive writing research to cognitive psychology* (pp. 89-104). New York: Taylor and Francis.

Bazerman, C. (1994). Systems of genres and the enactment of social intentions. In A.Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.). *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp.79-101). London: Taylor & Francis

Chaisiri, T. (2010). Implementing a genre pedagogy to the teaching of writing in a university context in Thailand. *Language Education in Asia,* 1(1), 181-199.

Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (1993). Introduction: How a genre approach to literacy can transform the way writing is taught. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *The powers of literacy: A genre approach to teaching writing* (pp. 1-21). Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J.P. Lantolf and G.Appel (Eds.), Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research (pp.33-56). Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing.

Edge, J., & Richards, K. (1998). May I see your warrant, please? Justifying outcomes in qualitative research. *Applied Linguistics 19/3* (pp. 334-356). Oxford : Oxford University Press

Engeström, Y. (Ed.). (1999). *Perspectives on Activity Theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Flower, L., & Hayes, J. R. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication,* 32(4), 365-387. https://doi.org/10.2307/356600

Freedman, A., & Medway, P. (Eds.). (1994). *Learning and teaching genre.* Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.

Guan, C.Q., Ye, F., Wagner, R.K., & Meng, W. (2012). Developmental and individual differences in Chinese writing . *Reading and Writing* 26 (6), 1031-1056.

Hasan, M.K., & Akhand, M.M. (2010). Approaches to writing in EFL/ESL context: balancing product and process in writing class at tertiary level. *Journal of NELTA* 15(1), 77-88.

Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based Pedagogies: a social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12, 17-29.*

Hyland, K. (2004). Social interactions in academic writing. In *Disciplinary discourses, Michigan classics*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press. https://doi.org/10.3998/mpub.6719

Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16(3), 148-164.* https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005

Kress, G. (1993). Genre as a social process. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *The powers of literacy: A genre approach to teaching writing* (pp. 22-37). Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Kroll, B. (Ed.). (1990). *Second language writing: Research insights for the classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lantolf, J. P., & Appel,G. (Eds.) (1994). *Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research.* Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Introducing sociocultural theory. In J. P. Landolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 1-26). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lee, I. (2012). Genre-based teaching and assessment in secondary English classroom. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique,*11(4), 120-136.

Lee, E.J. (2011). *Exploring L2 Writing Strategies from a Socio-cognitive Perspective : Mediated Actions, Goals, and Setting in L2 Writing* (Dissertation). Ohio: Ohio State University.https://etd.ohiolink.edu/!etd.send_file?accession=osu1306898143&disposition=inline

McKinley, J. (2019). English L2 writing in international higher education. In Barkhuizen, G. (Ed.). Qualitative Research Topics in Language Teacher Education. Routledge

McKinley, J. (2015). Critical argument and writer identity: Social constructivism as a theoretical framework for EFL academic writing. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies,* 12(3), 184-207.

Mendieta, J.A. (2013). Narrative research : an alternative approach to study language teaching and learning. *Folios* . Segunda época (37) .Primer semestre de 2013 (pp. 135-147).

Murray, G. (2009). Narrative inquiry. In J. Heigham & R.A. Crocker, (Eds.), *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction,* UK: Palgrave Macmillan, 45-65.

Nagao, A. (2018). A genre-based approach to writing instruction in EFL classroom contexts. *English Language Teaching,* 11(5), 130-147. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1177087.pdf

Panjaitan, M.O. (2013). Analysis of content standards for English in junior secondary school and senior secondary school. *Jurnal Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan,* 19 (1), 140-155.http://jurnaldikbud.kemdikbud.go.id/index.php/jpnk/article/viewFile/113/110

Polkinghorne, D. E. (1995). Narrative configuration in qualitative analysis. In J. A. H. A. R. Wisniewski (Ed.), Life history and narrative (pp. 5–24). London: Falmer Press.

Polkinghorne, D. E. (2007). Validity issues in narrative research. Qualitative Inquiry,13(4), 471–486.doi:10.1177/1077800406297670.

Price, L., & Price, J. (2002). *Why genres matter: hot text.* (pp. 272-279). Berkeley, CA: New Riders. http://www.webwritingthatworks.com/HT03genres.pdf

Russell, D. R. (1997). Rethinking Genre in School and Society: An Activity Theory Analysis. *Written Communication*, *14*(4), 504–554. https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088397014004004

Silva, T. (1990). Second language composition instruction: developments, issues, and directions in ESL. *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom*, 11-23.https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524551.005

Talosa, A.D., & Maguddayao, R.N. (2018). Evaluation of second language learner's syntactic errors in ESL writing. *TESOL International Journal,* 13 (4). https://www.tesol-international-journal.com/volume-13-issue-4-2018/

Thirakunkovit, S., & Chamcharatsri, B. (2019). A meta-analysis of effectiveness of teacher and peer feedback:Implications for writing instructions and research. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles,* 21 (1), 140-170.

Thompson, I. (2013). The mediation of learning in the zone proximal development through a co-constructed writing activity. *Research in the Teaching of English,* 47(3), 247-276.

Turner, J. (1998). Turns of phrase and route to learning : the journey metaphor in educational culture. *Intercultural Communication Studies, VII*(2), 23-36. Special Issue on Learning: East and West.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman (Eds.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1981). The instrumental method in psychology. In J.V Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 134-143). Armonk, NY: M.E.Sharpe.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1986). *Thought and Language* (A. Kozulin Ed.). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Wertsch, J.V. (1985). *Vygotsky and the Social Formation of the Mind.* Cambridge, MA:Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, J. V. (1991). *Voice of the mind: A sociocultural approach to mediated action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, J.V. (2007). Mediation. In H. Daniels, M.Cole, & J. Wertsch (Eds.). *The Cambridge companion to Vygotsky* (pp. 178-192). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Wingate, U. (2012). Using academic literacies and genre-based models for academic writing instruction : a 'literacy' journey. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes,*11, 26-37.

Yasuda, S. (2011). Genre-based Tasks in Foreign Language Writing: Developing Writers' Genre Awareness, Linguistic Knowledge, and Writing Competence. *Journal of Second Language Writing,* 20, 111-133.

Zimmerman, B.S., Morgan, D.N., & Kidder-Brown, M.K. (2014). The Use of Conceptual and Pedagogical Tools as Mediators of Pre-service Teachers' Perceptions of Self as Writers and Future Teachers of Writing. *Action in Teacher Education,*36:141-156.

Contextualization in English Language Education: Navigating the Place of Maritime Culture in Philippine English Language Teaching

Jessie L. Labiste, Jr.

University of the Philippines Visayas

Iloilo City, Philippines

Jessie L. Labiste Jr. is an Assistant Professor of English and Education at the Division of Professional Education, College of Arts and Sciences, University of the Philippines Visayas. He completed his degree in Secondary Education major in English from West Visayas State University, Iloilo City, Philippines and his Master of Education in English as a Second Language from UP Visayas, Iloilo, Philippines. His interests are in contextualization of learning and instruction, language and culture, and second language acquisition. *(Email Address: jllabiste@up.edu.ph)*

Abstract

In Philippine language teaching context, teachers are encouraged to use local contexts and situations to approximate real-world language use, as mandated by RA 10533. Through an in-depth analysis of teacher beliefs and practices among secondary school teachers, it was found that maritime culture is embedded in the second language education in coastal communities in the Philippines, with three main docks: the primacy of student needs, the importance of maritime culture immersion, and the repertoire of techniques to incorporate the local culture. Teachers find contextualization as key to the development of students' language skills while incorporating a culture ensures a meaningful language experience both for the teachers and the students. Integrating local culture in the design of language materials and in the preparation of language assessment is recommended. Navigating local culture in language classes and understanding the relationships and the complex factors that facilitate learning among students with varied experiences dictated by local culture are implied.

Keywords: contextualization, local culture, maritime culture, English Language Teaching (ELT)

Introduction

English Language Teaching (ELT) in the Philippines is demanded by a wide range of programs to address the needs of English Language Learners (ELL), but the very challenge many teachers are confronted under the K-12 program is the contextualization component of language teaching and learning. The Department of Education defines contextualization as teaching principle in language education that gives emphasis to meaning-making through authentic and meaningful activities and tasks designed to facilitate the use of related language skills, grammatical structures, and appropriate vocabulary to suit the context or culture of the learner (K-12 English Curriculum Guide, 2016). With this, learners are expected to hone their "sociolinguistic and sociocultural understanding", crucial in the holistic development of 21st-century learners.

To achieve this understanding, the Enhanced Basic Education Program Act of 2013 or the RA 10533 abetted the institution of the Mother Tongue as medium of instruction in the kindergarten and in the primary years for elementary pupils. This prompted teachers to provide instruction, utilize materials, and assess learning using the learners' first language (L1). This led to massive curriculum calibration followed by trainings for teachers to address the requirements of the Act. As a result of these innovations, the language curriculum in the Philippines demanded a more "culture-sensitive" and contextualized language education program across the country that utilizes local culture and indigenous contexts. By utilizing local culture, it means that DepEd promotes a language education curriculum focused on the appropriate language use mindful of the values, actions, beliefs, and affairs of the community where the students belong. Furthermore, localized contexts may be included in language education to making sense of the natural and physical environment where the target language is learned. This will in turn help in constantly protecting, conserving, and maintaining of the the local culture, particularly the maritime cultural goods (Baron, 2008), since the Philippines is surrounded by bodies of water.

The real questions, however, are whether language classes today are religious about the inclusion of contextualization in the curriculum and whether the local culture of the school community is actually integrated into the language curriculum. The follow-up question should focus on how do teachers include local culture as an integral part of their contextualized curriculum. This study, therefore, traced where and how maritime culture, as specific local culture in the Philippines, is embedded in ELT as a way to capture how contextualization is integrated into Philippine language education. This study focuses on the following questions:

1) Do English teachers integrate maritime culture in their language lessons? 2) In which part(s) of the instructional sequence do English teachers integrate maritime culture? 3) What are the ways in which maritime culture is integrated into the language lesson?

Literature Review

Contextualization in Pedagogy.

Contextualization came about as a procedure in teaching and learning which fuses the lesson or the learning content with the real-world environment. In a more practical definition, Mazzeo, Rab, and Alsid (2003) defined contextualization as a pedagogical strategy in instruction that facilitates the connection of basic skills to work-related content through teaching and learning with the aim of relating instruction to real application. This means that teachers must make sure real-life tasks are simulated in the classroom to make the learning experience for the students authentic, relevant and meaningful.

In the Philippines, through its RA 10533 or the Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013, contextualization refers to the means by which students can develop both sociolinguistic and sociocultural understandings so that they may be able to *"apply the language conventions, strategies, principles, and skills in 1) interacting with others, 2) understanding and learning other content areas, and 3) fending for themselves in whatever field of endeavor they may engage themselves in"*.

According to Leve and Wenger (1991), learning is a change of behavior in a context where learning is situated. The learner looks at the meaning of the "novel data" through the lens of the learner's previous knowledge and experiences. Berns and Erickson (2005) added that this "novel data" is viewed to be valuable only by using the learner's own frame of reference making learning contextual. Furthermore, by contextualizing learning, it provides a means to develop not only knowledge of the content but as well as applying them to future use, like career-related opportunities.

As a pedagogical process, contextualization happens in three phases: 1) inviting students into the lesson, 2) making the necessary connections, and 3) making sure that the academic goals are met (Wyatt, 2014). These steps can assist teachers who opt to use a contextualized learning experience in the implementation of the strategy. However, Kalchick & Oertle (2010), found that as contextualization is considered a process that will benefit both the students and the teachers from a particular culture, there is no single procedure that can be considered across the use of local culture in the instruction.

The steps suggested by Wyatt (2014) are flexible such that they allow the teacher to use contextualization despite the varied factors that may come along the instruction. These factors include the level of diversity among the students, their varied experiences and background, and the myriad cultural understanding. In an Iranian study on the effect of contextualization to performance in reading tasks, Moghaddas (2013) cited different sources of the elements of contextualization. These sources include the interdisciplinary content introduced in the class, the learner's prior experiences, the collaboration in the development of learning materials, the learning styles of the students, the strategies employed in the instruction and the authentic assessment to determine how far a learning content can be applied in real-world tasks. These sources provide an opportunity for the teacher to utilize contextualization as a means of achieving a more culture-sensitive, meaningful and authentic education.

Contextualization in Language Teaching and Learning.

In the past, the teaching of language is considered simple. It is understandable since the utilization of a second or foreign language is limited (Hutchinsons & Waters, 1987). Now, language teaching aims more than the utilization of language. Lightbrown and Spada (2006) advanced that in language teaching, there should be an incorporation of cultural understanding to the learning of linguistic input to facilitate the development of communication skills appropriate for the language users' environment. This cognitive and social aspects of language learning can lead to Sociolinguistic Competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) necessary in the construction of language based on the situation, input and purpose (Savignon, 1983, 2018; Byram, 1997). In so doing, language teachers are concerned as to how a particular culture is embedded in instruction. With all these, it appears that researches on local culture characterized the effective use of contextualization, as in Galloway (1992) when he suggested that to make the language experience effective, a "judicious balance" (Visoi, 2010) between the linguistic input and the context be considered in integrating language and culture in the classroom. This means that language teachers should put the target communication skill in an authentic situation to make the process of language construction significant to the learner. What seems to be lacking are resources on practical mechanisms as to how a particular local culture can be integrated into a language class. Through these resources only can teachers bridge the gap between the theoretical underpinnings and the practical applications in contextualizing language teaching and learning experiences. Hence, curricular innovations led to the production of local materials, the use of authentic tasks for learning activities, and the employment of real-life assessment techniques. These innovations bridge the student across

the learning content through relevant and meaningful links. This process of contextualization links academic knowledge with personal and cultural experiences (Mazzeo, 2008).

The concept of relating the subject matter content and the meaningful experience of the learners in their own particular situations offers an effective means of improving communication skills. Galloway (1992) emphasized that a language class that integrates the learner context can give students a better understanding of the cultural aspect of the target language. This language class should include activities that stimulate the motivation of the learners because of the presence of real-life oral communication tasks like debates, oral presentations, and interviews (Seelye, 1984), as well as written activities that reflect real-world texts like short compositions, letters, travel brochures, and others (Berns, 1990). This inextricable link between language and culture in ELT proves an interdependent relationship between learning a language and learning a particular culture. Kramsch (1998) believes that *"the learner brings their culture in language learning while the language brings its culture"*.

Therefore, cultural context should be the main ingredient in any language instruction as it is instrumental in shaping communicative competence (Savignon, 1983). In fact, as Bernes (1990) puts it, the definition of an appropriate communicative competence is when there is an understanding of the context of language use. It is in this premise that the use of contextualization, particularly in language, can build Sociolinguistic Competence (Savignon, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Byram 1983) as a strand of Communicative Competence (Habermas, 1970; Hymes, 1974; Savignon, 1983) Sociolinguistic competence was developed to characterize the ability of language users to interact with others, make meaning and utilize linguistic and non-linguistic resources for communication tasks. A learner who is sociolinguistic competent is able to extend the linguistic forms to an interdisciplinary field considering the social norms of language use (Canale, 1983). With this, the learner must have an understanding of the social context which includes the role of the individual, the information being shared, and the communication functions. Since language variations in style and form are usually the subject of study in contextualized language teaching and learning. Therefore, language users in a multicultural and diverse language environment are keen in the appropriateness of the language, value of the content, nonverbal language, tone, turn-taking, as well as the cultural implications attached in the language use, among others. Choudhury (2014) advanced the idea that in English language teaching, langauge and culture should go together, or else the other one remains incomplete.

Florentino (2014) saw the significant role of the local culture in the plans or lesson guide issued to teachers. This integration of local culture was a welcome innovation that benefited

the learners since their lessons were rooted from their cultural heritage, thus attaining the objective of the language curriculum.

Since the development of communication skills is connected to how local culture is used in teaching, contextualized teaching can be adopted at varying degrees using different kinds of contexts. One of the concerns the teacher may be confronted with is how a particular local culture can be embedded in the teaching and learning of a language, what components can be found in the process of contextualization, and what principles should be considered while incorporating a particular local culture, in this case, maritime culture.

Methodology

The study used a qualitative approach to explore this complex area of research in language education. This qualitative method having multiple cases (Yin, 2009) offers the researcher an opportunity to bring the different practices of teachers in integrating maritime culture on the instructional sequence.

The goal was to capture the teaching principles and practices of language teachers in integrating maritime culture in their language classes. The research locale is in Estancia, Iloilo, dubbed as the "Alaska of the Philippines", which is a predominantly coastal municipality located in Northern Iloilo with an active fishing industry. Their economic, social and cultural engagements revolve around their dynamic fishing activities and their sustainable coastal resource management.

The participants, who agreed to be part of the study, were 14 Junior High School English language teachers from Estancia National High School. This is a public secondary school located in the northern part of Iloilo province and situated in northern coastal communities of Panay Island, Philippines. As part of their In-Service Training (INSET), these teachers attended local, division and regional level lectures and workshops in contextualization. Their attendance to these training and seminars ensured that the participants are those who could give the most information regarding the use of contextualization and the integration of maritime culture in their instructions.

Of the fourteen (14) teachers interviewed during the Focus Group Discussion (FGD), there was only one male faculty, while the rest are female faculty members. The participants' length of service varies considerably ranging from 1 year to 22 years, with a mean of 7.2 years. All of these teachers, but one who is proficient in Bisaya/Cebuano, speak Hiligaynon as their L1. Nine (9) teachers are graduates of BSEd English degree from different colleges and universities in Iloilo, while two (2) are AB graduates. Three (3) of the participants have earned a master's

degree. All these teachers consider themselves to have the same cultural background as the students saying that they too come from the same municipality or from another coastal municipality. However, only half of them shared that they have full knowledge and immersion to the maritime culture they have in their municipality. These teachers teach English to different students from different grade levels. Each class has a good mix of male and female students: it is noticeable however that the female students outnumbered the male students in most classes. Being a coastal community, most students live in the coastal area, either along the coastline of Estancia or in the nearby island barangays. A small percentage of the students considered themselves to be living in the upland. The summary of respondents versus the number of students is provided in Table 1.

Table 1.

The distribution of teachers per grade level grouped according to sex, including the number of students per grade level.

	Total Number of English Teachers in JHS			Total Number of Students
	Male	Female	Total	
Grade 7		4	4	1,292
Grade 8		4	4	1,034
Grade 9	1	2	3	886
Grade 10		3	3	952
Total Number of English Teachers	1	13	14	4,164

The study utilized the multiple-case study approach (Yin, 2009) to gather a wide range of information through an FGD, lesson plan analysis, and individual interviews. For the FGD, a semi-structured interview helped in gathering information focusing on where and how contextualization is integrated into their language classes. It aims to obtain data as to what language teaching principles, beliefs in contextualization and the experiences of teachers in integrating local culture in their language classrooms. Teachers were asked as to how language classes were designed, how the materials were selected, prepared and utilized, and how what assessment techniques were employed.

Prior to FGD, all teachers were asked to submit the lesson plans of their English language classes. This was done to ensure that teachers are not prompted to present lesson plans with contextualization. This ensures that the lesson plans for this study are not pre-selected to add merits to the study. The selection of lesson plans were analyzed using the Activity Setting Analysis (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988) to capture the whole picture of the class. Activity Setting Analysis can be an effective means of *"unpackaging"* the cultural aspect of the lessons (Farver, 1999). This method of analysis allows the researcher to look at each lesson by obtaining the who, what, when, and where of the lesson. After the data obtained from the lesson plans and learning logs were organized, traces of maritime culture were then identified. The different traces of maritime culture identified in the lesson plans were based on the definition of maritime culture suggested by Baron (2008) *"as a group or set of features and of material and immaterial cultural expressions such as traditions, beliefs, practices, discourses and customs that are constructed as a result of the continuous, flexible and changing relationship between society and sea/land"*, and to that of Taylor's (1992) definition of maritime culture as *"practices, among others, such as fishing and the construction of vessels; with beliefs on navigating; with knowledge that facilitates forecasting the climate and phenomena such as storms; and with perceptions about the sea as a tourism space"*. However, as per the lesson plan analysis, only six (6) teachers were observed to have included maritime culture as the local context. The six (6) teachers with lesson plans identified to have maritime culture were interviewed to further analyze how the local context on maritime culture was integrated into their classes and as to what were the reasons why certain steps and aspects of the instruction were carried out. The individual interview allowed the teachers to clarify segments of the class that integrated maritime culture. According to Farver (1999), the interview will facilitate a better understanding of how maritime culture was integrated into the lessons. The summary of the background information of the six (6) teachers who acted as key informants is provided in Table 2.

Table 2.

The demographic data of the six (6) teachers who used maritime culture as their local context.

Teacher*	Sex	Composition of Class based on student residence & sex	Highest Educational	Teacher's First Language	Length of Teaching Experienc e	Grade Level

			Attainment		*(in years)*	
Alice	Female	Coastal Area (86.3%) Upland (13.7%) Male (36.1%) Female (63.9)	BSEd Eng	Hiligaynon	8	8th Grade English
Noli	Male	Coastal Area (63%) Upland (37%) Male (53.8%) Female (46.2%)	BSEd Eng	Hiligaynon	2	9th Grade English
Celine	Female	Coastal Area 57.5% Upland 42.5% Male (36.7%) Female (63.3%)	BSEd Eng	Hiligaynon	16	7th Grade English
Mariz	Female	Coastal Area (76.2%) Upland (23.8) Male (53.1%) Female (46.9%)	BSEd Eng	Hiligaynon	1	7th Grade English
Jasmin	Female	Coastal Area 75.0% Upland 25% Male (39.3%) Female (60.7%)	AB Eng	Bisaya/ Cebuano	2	10th Grade English

| Jona | Female | Coastal Area 63% | BSEd Eng | Hiligaynon | 10 | 9th Grade English |
| | | Upland 37% | | | | |

Male (42.3%)

Female (57.7%)

---

* Not their real names

Open coding was used in organizing the gathered information, and axial coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) was used to make connections between information. Guide questions were prepared to help frame the axial codes.

Results

The results of this study using qualitative methods yielded varied responses with regard to the integration of maritime culture in second language classrooms. Among the fourteen (14) teachers interviewed during the FGD for this local study, responses about the integration of maritime culture as a local culture were analyzed and categorized. For discussion purposes, the words "few", "some", "many" and "all" were used to allow efficient reporting of the narratives of the teachers. However, these narratives, even though were counted how many times they were mentioned in the interview, are not meant to be interpreted quantitatively. The data were read to determine the general ideas said by the teachers, the tone of their ideas, and the impression of the overall depth, credibility, and usefulness of the information. A language expert, both having good command of Hiligaynon and English languages verified the translation of the responses. For the purpose of presentation, the results are presented based on the sequence of the research questions.

Do English teachers integrate maritime culture in their language lessons?

As a start, all teachers who participated in the FGD agreed that contextualization is used in their classrooms as a meaningful and culturally relevant way of presenting new language-based concepts and rehearsing students with language-related skills relevant in their language use inside and outside the school. However, contextualization, with the use of maritime culture, is understood differently by teachers having attended various training, seminars, and workshops provided. One teacher even revealed that the training is limited only to providing

concepts about contextualization and not on the actual integration of local culture to language instruction:

> *"Pag in-service training, gin hambal siya (contextualization), pero wala na sila nag-dwell. Daw overview about contextualization, daw summary lang siya nga wala bala gin padalman."*
>
> ("During the in-service training, it (contextualization) was mentioned, but they did not dwell much on it. It was like an overview of contextualization, just like a summary, which was not elaborated further.")

Their use of maritime culture as the local context is limited since trainings and seminars only focus on contexts which are familiar to the trainers and not from local cultural contexts. One teacher exemplified this by saying:

> *"Kit-an ta man nga ga-effort man sila in delivering contextualization, pero… ang nakita ko gid… is the lack of sufficient literature. Kumbaga, ga-tudlo sila sang contextualization from a foreign context, wala sang contextualization using our local context. Ti, hindi nana contextualization in the first place."*
>
> ("We can see the effort when they deliver contextualization (during seminars), but …what I can see… is the lack of sufficient literature. It is like, they teach (us) contextualization based on a foreign context, nothing about contextualization using our local context. With that, it is not contextualization in the first place.")

In which part(s) of the instructional sequence do English teachers integrate maritime culture?

As to where in English language classes can maritime culture is integrated, it was revealed that despite being limited, the integration of maritime culture is based on three accounts: 1) contextualization usually happens at the start of the class. 2) contextualization is integrated through varied learning activities, and 3) contextualization is limited in the assessment stage of the lesson. Table 3 presents an example of how teachers' responses were organized into major themes and the number of teachers who gave the same ideas.

Table 3.

Teacher responses as to where maritime culture is integrated in contextualized language classrooms.

Emerging Themes	Teacher Responses
Language Instruction Starter	The lesson begins with situation in which students can relate with. (8)
	The lesson will start with a familiar context for the students. (6)
	Lessons will start with something they can find around their community. (5)
Contextualization and the Various Activities	Local contexts are used in drills and skills practice activities. (7)
	The context is embedded in the writing/speaking activities to master the lesson. (5)
Contextualization and Assessment	It is difficult to put context in the assessment. (10)
	There are no techniques available. (7)
	The assessment techniques suggested in the guide are good enough. (5)

Contextualization as Language Instruction Starter

All teachers admitted that most of their language classes begin with starters that can speak about maritime culture. One teacher even shared when asked about the integration of maritime culture as a lesson starter:

> *"My students… will read a feature article about a fish vendor. This is an article full of adjectives. Pagkatapos read sang article about a fish vendor, they will be instructed to look for the adjective phrases used in the sentence or in the paragraph."* ("My students… will read a feature article about a fish vendor. This is an article full of adjectives. After they read the article about a fish vendor, they will be instructed to look for adjective phrases used in the sentence or in the paragraph.")

Most of the teachers agreed that in integrating maritime culture as a springboard for grammar instruction, pictures can also become effective ways to start the lesson. One teacher shared that when she introduced a lesson in English grammar with stories of love as the main theme, she used a photo of a fisherman and his wife by the beach with their catch. She said:

> *"Una, gin-gamit ko ang love story ni Romeo and Juliet. Paano ko ni ma contextualize? Gin-show ko ang picture sa baybay nga ara didto ang mangingisda nagasakay sa iya nga bangka, nga ginaduhol sa iya asawa ang bañera nga may mga isda. Gin pangalanan ko ang lalaki kay Romeo, ang asawa kay Juliet. Just to show a love story."*
>
> ("At first, I Romeo and Juliet's love story. How can I contextualize this? So, I showed a picture of a beach where a fisherman aboard his banca tries to hand to his wife the *bañera (*literally means "bath"); used as fish containers full of fish. I named the man Romeo, the wife, Juliet. Just to show a love story.)

For most teachers, using maritime culture at the beginning of the lesson would already situate the students to the context for which the language skills they need to learn in class are to be used in the future. One teacher elaborated this by saying:

> *"It is easier for them to grasp the lesson… kay makarelate sila. May difference nga ginahatag ang contextualization. Sa umpisa pa lang, nakabalo na dayun ang mga students kung diin nila gamiton ang lesson sa English sa future."*
>
> ("It is easier for them (the students) to grasp the lesson… because they can relate. There is this difference when we use contextualization. Right from the start (of the lesson), students would know right away when in the future they will use their English lesson.")

These views on the use of maritime culture used as local context at the beginning of the lesson supports the claims of Galloway (1992) when he emphasized that by integrating the learner context, students can understand better cultural aspect of the target language because they make the necessary links between the culture and the target language knowledge they need to learn.

Contextualization in Various Learning Activities

During the actual instruction, all teachers claim that maritime culture is integrated with the language classes in various learning activities. Results revealed that aside from using reading materials and pictures with maritime contexts, teachers would also integrate maritime culture in different strategies and techniques that will facilitate group work, guided practice, improvisations, and application activities. Most of the teachers shared that the maritime culture they integrate depends on the activities they need to carry out the learning objectives of a particular lesson. One teacher, who handles the star section, shared her activity when she needs to form groups among her students. She shared that her students were grouped according to different kinds of fish. She share:

> *"Usually kung mag-groupings, ma-count-off man lang na sila. Pero pwede man ang teacher maka-bitbit sang… daw gamay nga pukot nga kawayan… cut-out nga isda. Tapos grupuhon ang tanan nga bangrus, ang tanan nga pisogo, ang tanan nga sapsap. Daw parehas lang nga nag gabut-gabot sila."*
>
> (Usually, in forming groups, students do the 'count-off'. But instead, the teacher can bring… what do fishermen bring when they fish, some kind of a small trap made of bamboo? They will draw fish cut-outs from this small trap. Then all the *'bangrus'* will group together, all *'pisogo'*, all *'sapsap'*.")

When doing drills and practice exercises, maritime culture was integrated when one teacher shared that she facilitated speech drills by using terminologies present in the maritime context. The teacher clarified this by saying, *"Nag-drill kami on stress and accent kag nag-use kami sang words like 'paddle', 'fishnet', and 'coastal'."* ("We had drills on stress and accent and we used words like *'paddle', 'fishnet', and 'coastal'."*)

True to those who handle higher sections, teachers encouraged students to include maritime culture in improvisation and application activities of the students. Some teachers admitted that when they did role-play activities and improvisation tasks, they observed that students would enjoy including activities present in coastal communities like fishing, fish selling and coastal clean-up campaigns in the script and speeches they produce. One teacher summed up the results by saying:

> *"Ang iban ya naga-enjoy kay it's something different kag something they can relate kay gina-sulat nila sa script kag dialogues nila sa*

role-play or improvisation tasks ang mga ginabuhat nila sa kilid baybay."

("Others are enjoying because it's something different and something that they can relate to since they write in the scripts and dialogues for role-playing or improvisation tasks the things they do in the coastal area.")

(The Lack of) Contextualization in Assessment

Fourteen teachers agreed that in their lessons, it is hard for contextualization to come in assessment, as one teacher claimed that *"assessment is controlled by the recommended output, usually by what is required by the teacher guide."* Many teachers said that contextualizing assessment is limited, though they are given leeway because they feel they are bound to follow the expected assessment tool in the English Curriculum Guide. One teacher even shared:

> *"Most of the tools I used in assessing student learning, wala na naka-contextualize. Purely ang context gingamit lang sa pag-motivate sang students nga mag-participate sa class."*
> ("Most of the tools I used in assessing student learning, they were not contextualized. Purely, the context was used only to motivate the students to participate in class.")

When asked whether the lesson objectives were achieved, one teacher honestly claimed that

> *"Naga-depende man gihapon sa students. Kung star-section sila te, ma achieve nila sang dasig, pero pag lower section, it takes time."*
> (It depends still on the students. If (the students belong to) star section, then they will achieve it fast, if, from the lower section, it takes time.")

Another teacher even admitted:

> *"Mabudlay para mag (one) hundred percent; maka seventy-five percent, good, pwede na mga isa ka semana. Puro lang kamo mass noun mong kay ti, I mean lowest section. It will take it a bit slower compared to the star, three days makuha na na nila."*

97

("It is difficult to make it (one) hundred percent; to make it seventy-five percent, good, maybe in one week. You can have mass nouns (the whole week) because I mean (they are from the) lowest section. It will take a bit slower compared to the star, in three days, they can get it.")

What are the ways in which maritime culture is integrated into the language lesson?

The qualitative analysis of this study, generated from the individual interviews with six English teachers, revealed three general and overarching themes. These themes will be labeled in this study as docks. In the maritime context, a dock is considered a place for loading or unloading of materials for the reception of ships. Like a dock, these themes serve as an entry point for which the results of the study were analyzed. Through an in-depth interview conducted with the identified six (6) teachers who use maritime-culture contextualized lessons, three docks are highlighted: the analysis of students' needs, the engagement of teachers to local culture, the need for a repertoire of techniques to integrate maritime culture. Table 4 presents sample responses of teachers on how maritime culture was integrated into their language classes including how many teachers interviewed mentioned the same idea.

Table 4.

Teacher responses on how maritime culture is integrated in contextualized language classrooms.

Emerging Themes	Teacher Responses
Dock 1 - The Primacy of Student Needs	Students' life goals are varied. (4)
	Students are knowldgeable as to which situations they will need to use English. (3)
	Different sections (students from different sections) have different language proficiency. (3)
Dock 2 - The Importance of Maritime Cultural Immersion	The use of contextualization depends on how much knowledge teachers have about the local culture. (5)
	Less cultural expressions were identified by the teachers. (3)
	There is limited resources as to where maritime cultural markers can be culled. (3)

| Dock 3 - The Repertoire of Techniques to Incorporate Maritime Culture | Limited techniques in integrating maritime culture in language classes. (3) |
| | Production of learning materials with maritime culture is hampered because of time and resources.(3) |

The Primacy of Student Needs.

It has to be noted that all teachers referred to learner needs as an arbiter in the decision making as regards the use of contextualization. They believe that since learners come from a diverse background with different interests, learners also have different learner needs, thus contextualizing the language class should also be based on what the needs of the students are. One teacher typified this to describe that students have different life goals:

"Lain-lain man abi, Sir, ila gusto. Ang iban gusto nga dire lang sila sa Estancia. Pero kalabanan subong naga-gwa na gid kag nag try mangin lain sa ubra sang pamilya nila."

("They have different wants, Sir. Others would want to stay here in Estancia. But mostly, now, they go out and try other professions not similar to their family's.")

One teacher even said that when they integrate maritime culture, they must ensure how students differ in their life goals:

"Ang sa star section, kalabanan daan Sir, bal-an na nila kung ano na klase ka English kinanglan nila, so naga focus gid na sila."

("The (students from) star section, mostly, Sir, they know what kind of English they need, so they really do focus.")

It was emphasized, still, that the opportunities in contextualizing the lessons in English language classes are dictated by the students' level of language proficiency. One teacher shared that:

"Galain-lain ang pag-gamit namon sang local context kay may ara man daan nga they're good enough nga ma express ila self using English language, pero may ara man ya section nga medyo mahina-hina."

("The use of local context differs since there are those who are good enough in expressing themselves using the English language, but there those sections who are slightly slow.")

Most usually, the basis for contextualizing the lessons are the students from the lower sections. One teacher said:

"In terms of contextualization, ang priority namon ya sa pag-obra sang lesson, ang lower section. Kay no matter what the material is kaya na ya sang star section."

("In terms of contextualization, our priority are the students from the lower section. Because no matter what the material is, the star section can do it.")

In addition, few teachers mentioned that students' learning styles, interests, and attitudes to the subject speak about how maritime culture is integrated into the class.

The Importance of Maritime Cultural Immersion.

One issue raised by most teachers is the availability of cultural markers and expressions needed to contextualize their language classes. It was shared that the place seemed to have a limited resource of maritime context that restrained the teachers in the preparation of contextualized learning materials making it difficult for the teachers to contextualize their lessons. One teacher mentioned that in their municipality,

"Amo pa gid nabudlayan kami gawa, like for example sa mga heroes, we only have one hero nga nabal-an. Amo lang to ang sa boy scout."

("That is also why we find it difficult, like for example about heroes, we only have one hero we all know. The one about the boy scout.")

This experience prompted teachers to design learning activities that will allow students to immerse themselves with the community to gather stories that they can utilize for their contextualized classes.

The lack of prepared materials with the local culture was seen by teachers as an opportunity for collaboration. They saw that it is important that they have exposure to local cultural markers, particularly on the maritime context. One teacher highlighted that it is even the school's task to provide teachers the opportunity for this kind of cultural immersion. She said:

"The school should do this to support the teachers. In terms of collaboration the teachers of English should collaborate those who work for within the maritime culture like do you collaborate with fishermen, fish vendor, tourist guides."

Most teachers mentioned that if given the chance, they would want to do cultural mapping activity in their locality. They shared that by doing this, they can focus on the local culture and not use the ones provided in the teaching guides or modules. The head teacher of the department expressed that teachers should be immersed with the local culture since *"hindi tanan nga teachers kabalo gid sang parte sa dagat"* ("not all teachers are knowledgeable about the sea".) Another teacher even confessed, "*Wala man ko kabalo ano ang kontexto sang pag-pangisda kay ako man ako ya anak sang mangingisda."* (I do not know the context of fishing because I am not a daughter of a fisherman.")

The Repertoire of Techniques to Incorporate Local Culture.

In contextualizing their lessons, all teachers agreed that the training provided to them should not only introduce the critical contents prepared by curriculum designers commissioned by the agency, but also train the teachers how to use strategies that can allow them to contextualize the lessons. One teacher, who has attended a training in contextualization expressed that even after attending the training, the question she still asked was "how".

"Daw summary lang siya nga wala bala gin padaluman. Ina bala nga still at the end of the training, the question is 'Paano?' Wala man japon na sabat ang pamangkot nga 'paano?'."
("It was like a summary because it was not delivered in depth. It seems like still at the end of the training, the question is 'How?' The question 'how?' was still not answered.")

Most teachers revealed that they depend on their own creativity to integrate the local culture in their lessons but, oftentimes, such practice does not seem to prove effective. They claimed that they do it to at least put context in their lessons. One participant expressed that they would need training how to integrate the local culture in their language classes and a collection of strategies would be better.

Most teachers also agree, that there should have materials that are contextualized in the local contexts since contexts used in the available materials provided are national cultural

markers and not that of their own local culture. Despite that teachers underwent contextualization training, most of the teachers interviewed said that these were not enough. One teacher exemplified this by saying *"because we don't seem to follow a certain framework for contextualization, pag-present mo sang local culture, nag veer away ka na sa lesson of the day."* ("Because we don't seem to follow a certain framework for contextualization when you present the local culture, you tend to veer away from the lesson of the day.")

Overall, the findings generated from the teachers who were identified to use maritime culture in their language lessons described how contextualization is integrated with the consideration of students' needs and the need for teachers to be immersed in the local culture. They also emphasized the need for the provision of techniques and strategies they can apply every time they attempt at contextualizing the lessons. They also emphasized that most contextualization happens at the start of the class, but observed to be limited in the assessment part of the lesson. The teachers expressed that contextualizing lessons will require different teaching strategies that can help design various activities to ensure an authentic and meaningful language learning experience.

Discussion

Key findings suggest that maritime culture is integrated as a lesson starter, either to motivate the students or to help students situate themselves in the lesson using a familiar context. In 2014, Wyatt advanced that through contextualization, the teacher may be able to invite the attention of the learners, because the context is within the frame of reference of the students, making concepts and information relevant for the students. This is also true with the teachers in this study as they mentioned that with contextualized lessons, the students are able to see the connection of their language lesson to the real-life application of the knowledge and skills they are learning in class. The use of varied activities made it also easy for contextualization to be integrated into the drills and skill practice of the students. However, it was generated from the study that contextualizing the assessment of student learning seems to be limited and difficult for the teachers since they lack the necessary techniques in doing so.

The findings of the study also revealed that in using maritime culture as a local context can address the local needs and accommodate local situations of the learners and the teachers. This particular point of consideration in contextualizing lessons can support different principles of language learning, particularly the cultural and linguistic underpinnings in language education. This is in consonance to a research recommendation of Ali & Walker (2014) when they suggested that local contexts must be collated to come up with materials that can facilitate

language learning using learners' "home culture". Researchers also suggest that with this, it would be fitting that instead of language students adjusting to the lessons, lessons are designed to fit the needs of the students (Nunan, 2012). The critical implication of this finding challenges the preparation, utilization and the implementation of the teachers in integrating local culture in the lessons to ensure culturally relevant teaching (Gay, 2000) since culture and language are linked with each other (Risager, 2007; Predmore, 2005; Kramsch, 1993; Newton, et.al, 2010; and Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009).

Moreover, since learner needs are of primary concern as revealed in the study, there is a gap that needs to be filled. It can be gleaned that teachers may not be very knowledgeable of the local culture since not all teachers are exposed to the same context as that of the students. Here we see that even teachers believe that they lack the necessary techniques and strategies to effectively incorporate the local culture in their language lessons.

Furthermore, the results of the study drew attention to the various understanding, thoughts, feelings, and behaviors toward the use of contextualized lessons in their language classes. While some teachers are creative and resourceful, saying they are keen in integrating the local culture in their lessons, the teachers, in general, feel the need for training and support activities to effectively integrate culture in their lessons. To illustrate, teachers claim that training programs are not enough to make them ready and prepared in their supposed to be culturally-relevant language classes. The docks or points of entry for a contextualized classroom can be a means to address issues and concerns surrounding the integration of maritime culture in language education.

Conclusions

This study presents how maritime culture is integrated into the language classroom as a way to capture how contextualization is implemented in coastal communities where a dominant local culture is the main character. Primarily, results from the study suggest that teachers have a different understanding as to the meaning of contextualization and how should teachers integrate maritime culture in their contextualized language classes. These differences in the understanding of contextualization are reflected on where in the English language class and how English language teachers integrate maritime culture in the lessons. Nevertheless, teachers turn to their creativity and resourcefulness since no specific guide or framework was provided on how to actually incorporate a local culture. Subsequently, this leeway for teachers how to use maritime culture in their contextualized lessons opens an opportunity for the teacher to explore techniques and strategies that may be effective. These techniques and strategies

differ depending on students' needs and teachers' exposure to the local culture. It is the view of this research, however, based on teachers' accounts, that despite the lack of appropriate study on what technique or strategy is best to contextualize English language lessons, students enjoy and become motivated to learn since they see the connection of what is inside the classroom and what is in their environment.

Pedagogical Implications

Teachers find contextualization as key to the development of students' language skills, while incorporating the local culture ensures a more meaningful language experience both for the teachers and the students alike. Teachers also believe that students are enjoying with contextualization, thus teachers must not only use maritime culture as engagement activity in English classes but throughout the English language instructional sequence. Therefore, there is a compelling reason that the need to contextualize lessons can benefiting the teaching and learning process. Although this study did not dwell on the factors that limit the use of maritime culture in the lessons, nevertheless, the results suggest that these factors may consider the amount of preparation the teacher allows for each lesson. Research on the association of different factors and the implementation of contextualization in the language classroom may be noteworthy.

Recommendations

Notably, looking at how local culture is integrated into the language classroom provides an opportunity to see how contextualization is embedded in Philippine language education. However, as this study suggests, there is a need to look into how teachers can be provided with strategies and techniques in integrating local culture in the design of language materials and in the preparation of language assessment. This can guarantee that the entire lesson, from presentation to assessment, is rich in a culturally-responsive language learning experience.

This study did not attempt at identifying an effective method in integrating a local culture, therefore, it may be useful to look into which methods, guides, paradigms or frameworks are used by the teachers. There is also a need to navigate the local culture in language classes and understand the relationships and the complex factors that facilitate learning among students with varied experiences. An abundance in the local cultural markers, artifacts, and materials on maritime culture can guide teachers in coastal communities in the framework they will utilize, language learning experience they will design and the varying cultural spaces they can create.

While special allocations can initiate innovations in integrating maritime culture in the language classroom, strategic planning and strong support from concerned government agencies like the Department of Education and the local government units are critical to long-term institutionalization. Emerging research in contextualization advanced that making use of alternative approaches like contextualization may result in continued communicative competence improvement.

References

Ali, M. M. & Walker, A. (2014). From home culture to intercultural knowledge base: Implications for TESOL materials design. *The Asian EFL Journal Professional Articles 78,* 27-36.

Baron, A. T. O. (2008). Constructing the notion of the maritime cultural heritage in the Colombian territory: Tools for the protection and conservation of fresh and salt aquatic surroundings. *The United Nations-Nippon Foundation Fellowship Programme.* Division of Ocean Affairs and the Law of the Sea, Office of Legal Affairs. United Nations. New York.

Berns, M. (1990). "Contexts of competence: Social and cultural considerations in communicative language teaching". In Teaching culture in the foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals, 1,* 204-217.

Berns, R. G. & Erickson, P. M. (2001). Contextual teaching and learning: Preparing students for the new economy. *National Dissemination Center for Career and Technical Education.*

Bonganciso, R. T. (2016). Effects of contextualization on the reading comprehension performance of Filipino learners. *Asia Pacific Higher Education Research Journal (APHERJ), 3* (1).

Byram, M. (1997). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence. *Multilingual Matters*.

Canale, M. (1983). On some dimensions of language proficiency. Centre de recherches en éducation franco-ontarienne, Institut d'études pédagogiques de l'Ontario= *The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.*

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied linguistics, 1*(1), 1-47.

Choudhury, R. U. (2014). The role of culture in teaching and learning of English as a Foreign language. *Express, an International Journal of Multi Disciplinary Research* 1(4).

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research (3rd ed.).* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Farver, J. A. M. (1999). Activity setting analysis: A model for examining the role of culture in development. *Children's engagement in the world: Sociocultural perspectives,* 99-127.

Florentino, L. O. (2014). Integrating local culture in teaching English to first grades under K-12 curriculum. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies 4* (7), 1344-1351.

Frommer, J. G. (1998). Cognition, context, and computers: Factors in effective foreign language. *In:* J.A. Muyskens, ed., New Ways of Learning and Teaching: Focus on Technology and Foreign Language Education. *AAUSC Issues in Language Program Direction.* Boston,MA: Heinle&Heinle.

Galloway, V. (1992). Toward a cultural reading of authentic texts. *In:* H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Languages for a multicultural world in transition* (pp. 87-121). Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Co.

Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Habermas, J. (1970). Towards a theory of communicative competence. *Inquiry, 13*(1-4), 360-375.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes.* Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, D. (1967/1974) Linguistics, language, and communication. *Communication, 1*(1), 37-53, 74.

Kalchik, S., & Oertle, K. M. (2010). The theory and application of contextualized teaching and learning in relation to programs of study and career pathways. *Transition Highlights, 2,* 1-6.

Kramsch, C. (1993). *Context and culture in language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press

Kramsch, C. (1998). The privilege of the intercultural speaker. *In:* M. Byram & M. Fleming (Eds.), *Foreign language learning in intercultural perspective* (pp. 16–31). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Introducing sociocultural theory. *Sociocultural theory and second language learning, 1*, 1-26.

Lave, J. (1991). Situating learning in communities of practice. *Perspectives on socially shared cognition, 2*, 63-82.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation.* Cambridge University Press.

Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. (2006). How Languages are learned 4ed. *Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers.*

Mazzeo, C. (2008). Supporting student success at California community colleges. Prepared for the Bay Area Workforce Funding Collaborative by the Career Ladders Project for California Community Colleges.

Mazzeo, C., Rab, S. Y., Alssid, J. L. (2003). *Building bridges to college and careers: contextualized basic skills programs at community colleges.* Workforce Strategy Center, Brooklyn: NY.

Moghaddas, B. (2013). The effect of contextualization on the iranian EFL learners' Performance in reading tasks. *International Journal of Educational Science and Research (IJESR). 3*(2), 11-20.

Newton, J., Yates, E., Shearn, S., & Nowitzki, W. (2010). *Report to the Ministry of Education* (No. ISBN 978-0-478-34248-2). Wellington, New Zealand: School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies and the Jessie Hetherington Centre for Educational Research, Victoria University of Wellington

Nunan, D. (2012). Learner-centered English language education: *The selected works of David Nunan.* Routledge.

Predmore, S. R. (2005). Putting it into context. *Techniques.* Retrieved July 31, 2018, from http://www. acteonline.org.

Risager, K. (2007). Language and culture pedagogy: From a national to a transnational paradigm (Vol. 14). *Multilingual Matters.*

Savignon, S. (1983). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice.* Reading, MA. Addison-Wesley.

Savignon, S. J. (2018). Communicative competence. *The TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching,* 1-7.

Scarino, A., & Liddicoat, A. J. (2009). *Teaching and learning languages: A guide.* Carlton South Vic, Australia: Australian Government.

Seelye, H. (1984). *Teaching culture: Strategies for inter-cultural communication,* Revised edition. Lincolnwood, IL: National Textbook Company.

Taylor, D. (1992). Documenting maritime folklife: An introductory guide. *Publications of the American Folklife Center, (17).*

Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). R*ousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Visoi, M. A. *Contextualized Foreign Language Instruction: Effective Classroom Strategies and Blackboard-Based Virtual Learning.*

Vygotsky, L. (1978). M*ind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Wutun, A. A., Arafah, B., & Yassi, A. H. L*ocal Culture in English Language Teaching: Learners' Perspectives.*

Wyatt, T. R. (2011). Atuarfitsialak: Greenland's cultural compatible reform. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 25*(6), 1–18.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods (4th ed.).* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Compensatory Communication Strategies Employed
by EFL Students in Taking Turns Talking of a Speaking Class

Syarifudin

Universitas Islam Negeri Mataram

Bio-Profile:

Syarifudin is an associate professor at Education and Teacher Training Faculty, Mataram State Islamic University. His Master and Doctor in English Language Education field. His interests are in TEFL, Research Methods in ELT, and sociolinguistics. Affiliation Address: Jl. Gajah Mada No. 100 Jempong-Mataram, Indonesia, FTK-UIN Mataram. Email: syarif@uinmataram.ac.id.

Abstract

The present study explored verbal and nonverbal compensatory communication strategies (CCSs) employed by EFL students both in encoding of message (speakers) and in decoding of message (listeners) to surmount communication problems in taking turns talking of an English speaking class. Taking turns talking is one way of practicing and learning of speaking in order to habituate and familiarize students on spoken English. Students circulate the message in process of spoken communication are both as message productive and message receptive who convey and receive the message in taking turns talking.

This study was carried out by employing a qualitative approach with an ethnography of communication design in a limited setting. Thirty students taking Speaking for Everyday Communication Course at English Language Education Program of Mataram State Islamic University were selected as subjects of research by using a purposeful technique. Techniques used to collect data were non-participant observation, video recording, and interview.

The research findings showed that there were ten verbal CCSs employed by speakers, including approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, language switch, appeal for assistance, paraphrase, self-correction, comprehension check, and self-repetition. Meanwhile, nonverbal CCSs employed by speakers consisted of six strategies comprising smiling, head nodding, head shaking, hand moving, thumb up, and drawing something. Furthermore, on

students' strategies to deal with communication problems encountered by listeners were found seven verbal CCSs, including language switch, appeal for assistance, asking the speaker for clarification, asking the speaker for repetition, asking the speaker to add language, guessing the speaker's message, and specifying the speaker's message. Seven nonverbal strategies were found, consisting of smiling, gazing towards the speaker, head nodding, head shaking, hand moving, forward position.

Key Words: communication strategy, strategy competence, speaking strategy, speaking class

Introduction

On the strength of EFL students' assumption that speaking proficiency is very imperative of learning English, and the success of it is measured by the ability to use English in spoken communication. Many EFL students consider that speaking ability is one of their primary purposes of studying a language, they assume that it would derive some personal satisfaction from being able to speak English and it would be useful in pursuing a job and other activities (Hadley, 1993). However, to gain speaking proficiency is not easy for EFL students because it needs mastery of some components of communicative competence, including grammatical competence as a linguistic system comprising phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexical (vocabulary) as well as other English competencies like discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic underlying speaking proficiency. Shumin (2002) stated that "speaking language is especially difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interaction". It may indicate that EFL students encounter problems in using TL in spoken communication if they lack of TL communicative competence underpinning spoken language.

Speaking requires the ability to utilize the appropriate, acceptable and comprehensible spoken language through communication in many kinds of opportunities. Opportunities are available for students who want to communicate in spoken English both inside and outside the classroom activities, but in fact that some of students are sometimes reluctant and inhibited to participate in spoken English. In a speaking class, students are encouraged to communicate both monologue and dialogue speaking activities in order to habituate and familiarize them on spoken communication in the target language. However, a speaking class is one way of learning and practicing of speaking, but multitudes of opportunities for using spoken communication exist in context in which English is used.

Taking turns talking in a speaking class promotes students to engage in interaction activity leading them to enhance spoken language. Grice (1975) as cited by Arellano-Tamayo (2018) argued that "conversational turn-taking helps the classroom becomes interactive, this is composed of two utterances by two speakers, one after the other." Furthermore, he stated that "this is the set of signals used by the speakers to introduce and manipulate different referents in a communicative event." This statement indicates that students' engagement in interaction is absolute needed in teaching speaking. Nevertheless, some of students still have problems in interaction leading them to use of communication strategies. Their problems consist of problem both as speakers in encoding of message and problem as listeners in decoding of message, then they try to face down the problems during communication by employing compensatory communication strategies either verbal or nonverbal.

With reference to the setting of English-speaking course instruction at English language education program of Mataram State Islamic University, where this study took place, it is essential to document some of perceived problems by students and their strategies to surmount problems when they are engaging in taking turns talking. Because of the independency between the background of knowledge and personal ability of English communicative competence making students faced different problems, as well as different strategies in facing down those problems. Those problems encountered leading students use communication strategies in order their spoken communication is reached. In accordance with the context of the study, the present study addresses the major discussion focus on compensatory communication strategies both verbal and nonverbal employed by students as speakers and as listeners in taking turns talking of a speaking-class.

Review of Literature

Compensatory communication strategy is a conscious attempt of both speaker in encoding of message and listener in decoding of message to agree on a meaning employing to cope with communication problem that they encounter to achieve communication goal. This coincides with Tarone's (1980) statement on CCs that a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structured are not shared. Tarone's perspective of communication strategies may be seen as attempts to bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of speaker and listener to TL in real communication situation. By using a compensatory strategy, speakers and listeners attempt to overcome communication problem by "expanding their communicative resource, rather than by reducing their communicative goal" (Corder, 1980). Communication problems to be overcome by means of CCS may occur at all

linguistic levels, but mostly problems concentrated on problems face by students at lexical level.   Most of Problems in communication occur in the planning phase and some to retrieval problems in the execution phase. Similar to Tarone (1980), Corder, (1980), Bialystok (1983) defined communication strategies as "all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication." This coincides with Luoz & Weil (2014) who stated that "Compensation strategies are actions taken by a learner to overcome limitations in his/her L2 knowledge, e.g., in the vocabulary or grammar necessary for comprehending or communicating". Bialystok's perspective about communication strategies may be seen as demeanors for those cases in which communication is disrupted because of an inadequate linguistic knowledge and an impasse in minds of what they are talking in TL of both speakers and listeners.

Theoretical bases from some concepts which are adopted as the theoretical underpinning in this research are compensatory communication strategies from interactional and psycholinguistic perspectives. Those theoretical bases are mainly based on a model of the popular studies on compensatory communication strategies are proposed by Tarone (1983) acknowledged as an interactional approach, and Faerch and Kasper (1983) acknowledged as a psycholinguistic approach. Those theoretical bases of compensatory communication strategies proposed are going to be delineated more detail in the further explanation.

Tarone's (1983) research is in the form of analyzing transcripts of the students' attempts to refer to a number of objects and events depicted. The students' productions are interactional, which reflect student's attempts to make themselves understood by their interlocutors. By focusing on interactions, Tarone regards compensatory communication strategies as any attempts at avoiding disruptions of communication. Tarone (1983) further categorized the existence of compensatory communication strategies that happen in students' speaking-interaction into seven categories.

1. Approximation: student uses of a single TL term which speaker knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired term to satisfy the listener.
2. Word coinage: student makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept.
3. Circumlocution: student describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate TL term.
4. Literal translation: student translates word for word from the native language.
5. Language switch: student uses the native language term without bothering to translate.
6. Appeal for assistance: student asks for the correct term or structure to any capable peers.

7. Mime: student uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) adopted psycholinguistic approach in analysis compensatory communication strategies in which they locate communication strategies within a general model of speech production. Somewhat similar with Tarone (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983) developed compensatory communication strategies into ten categories, as follows.

1. Code switching: Student uses a form in the non-TL language.

2. Interlingual transfer: Student makes use of other than the TL.

3. Intralingual transfer: Student makes use of alternative TL forms.

4. Generalization: Student replaces one TL form with another.

5. Paraphrase: Student replaces a TL item by describing or exemplifying it.

6. Word coinage: Student replaces a TL item with an item made up from TL forms.

7. Restructuring: Student develops an alternative constituent plan.

8. Cooperative strategies: These involve a joint problem-solving effort by the student and his interlocutor.

9. Non-linguistic strategies: Student compensates, using non-linguistic means such as mime, gesture, and sound-imitation.

10. Retrieval strategies: Student attempts to retrieve in some ways from achievement strategies in order to get at the problematic item. These strategies comprising of waiting for the term to appear, appealing to formal similarity, retrieval via semantic fields, searching via other languages, retrieval from learning situations, and sensory procedures.

Knowing that both compensatory communication strategies proposed by Tarone (1983), and Faerch and Kasper (1983) have similarity and dissimilarity. The similarity is in which some of those strategies seem not only to exist explicitly in each of category, but also to exist into each other, such as word coinage, language switch, and non-linguistic strategies. Furthermore, classifying the differences of both categories are focused on the strategy's perspectives and strategies types.

The differences come from the fact that Tarone (1983) views communication strategies from a discourse analytical perspective through interactional approach, which is believed that students' speaking in interaction of real communication context is the one way to know the interaction process between speakers and their interlocutors, what strategies which are students employed to cope with the problems in communication. Faerch and Kasper (1983) esteemed communication strategies verbal plan within a speech production through psycholinguistic

approach, which is considered that mental processes of students underlying their language behavior when dealing with problems of communication in speaking acts.

Research Method

The present study employed a qualitative approach with an ethnography of communication design in a limited setting to students of English Language Education Program, Mataram State Islamic University as accessible subjects. It aims at fulfilling data of research focus on students' compensatory communication strategies in taking turns talking both as message sender (speaker) and as message receiver (listener) to cope with their problems in spoken communication. Thirty students taking Speaking for Everyday Communication Course in one class at the program were taken as subjects by employing purposeful technique.

Techniques used to collect data consisted of non-participant observation: observing the students' utterances and acts when taking turns talking; and video recording: recording the students' performances in taking turns speaking. To know the students' problems leading to use CCSs, they were asked to speak in a pair based on given topics at the course meetings.

In analyzing field notes and videos recorded, the following steps were done:

1. Making two lists of students' utterances/verbal and acts/nonverbal showing the attempts to cope with problems as the way of using compensatory communication strategies in taking turns talking.

2. Grouping the speakers' utterances/verbal and acts/nonverbal employed by the speakers as attempts to cope with problems, considering the similarities of a part of utterances and acts being made. It was found that the attempts which made to achieve a particular purpose in their speaking (compensatory strategies).

3. Grouping the listeners' utterances/verbal and acts/nonverbal employed by the listeners. In this case, it might be found the particular attempts to understand the message (compensatory strategies).

4. Classifying the initial reported verbal and nonverbal strategies into communication strategies types of the speakers.

5. Classifying the initial reported verbal and nonverbal strategies into communication strategies types of the listeners.

6. To establish the credibility of the research, the researcher applied two techniques, including persistent observation and triangulation techniques. Persistent observation was done by observing and video recording of spoken communication among the subjects.

During observations, field notes and reflective descriptions were considered to identify relevant data that supported research focuses. Then, this research applied three types of triangulation comprising sources, methodological, and theoretical triangulations. Sources triangulation was conducted by including verbal and nonverbal CCSs among the students. Methodological triangulation was done by employing three different data collection modes (observation, video recording, and interview) on both the same and different occasions. Furthermore, theoretical triangulation was theories which were relevant to the research foci were selected.

Data Display

The data display presented in two sections, including description about types of verbal and nonverbal compensatory communication strategies employed by speakers and types of verbal and nonverbal compensatory communication strategies employed by listeners.

Compensatory Communication Strategies Employed by Speakers in Conveying Messages

Verbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

Data display emphasizes on verbal CCSs employed by speakers, including approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, literal translation, language switch, appealing for assistance, foreignizing, paraphrase, self-correction, comprehension check, and self-repetition.

'Approximation' is the first compensatory strategy used twenty times by speakers of sixteen different pairs in dialogue. Even though the alternative words that students used sound inappropriate, they seemed successful help interlocutor to catch the general meaning of what the speaker said, *[e.g. S: I think may general tourists /./ I think they feel good beach to visit].*

'**Word coinage**' is the second compensatory strategy utilized ten times by eight different pairs. The example of this strategy: *[S: Many politic people and so many leader officeworker do corruption].*

The third compensatory strategy is '**circumlocution**' which considered as one of good solutions to cope with students' problem in spoken English. It used nine times by nine different pairs in dialogue. The example of this strategy is [S: *I don't know in English but like this when people marry, there is a man and a woman who married].*

The fourth compensatory strategy is **'literal translation'** employed ten times by ten different pairs in dialogue. Example of this strategy: *[S: "It so many tourists there, and do you know in Selebrana beach there many villas, bungalos*, oleh-oleh /em./ handicraft restaurant too many"]*.

'**Language switch'** is the fifth CCS. Speakers of twenty-five pairs substituted sixty times their utterances to NL words because they did not know TL words when articulating their utterances. Its sample: *[S:May be is very good/./because UIN Mataram is second perguruan tinggi negeri in NTB]*.

'Appeal for assistance' is the sixth compensatory category, which employed ten times by ten different pairs as speakers. Its Sample: *[S: What is the small ship running to Gili Trawangan]*.

'Foreignizing' appertainned as the seventh compensatory category only employed twice by one pair. Its sample: *[S: Senggigi beach is the most famous place. There many villas, gilis, barugas like Gili Trawangan, Gili Meno, and Gili Air.]*

The eighth CCS in this study is *'**Paraphrase'.*** It appeared six times of six different pairs in dialogue. Its sample: [S: '…*gili air is a small island; I said small island because in small island there are not many people, there are not many villas, but there are many tourists.]*

The ninth compensatory strategy in this study was **'self-correction'**. It employed seventeen times by sixteen different pairs. Its sample: *[S: I am new comer here, I want ask about what is good place /./ I mean the interesting place there.]*

 'Comprehension check' appertainned the tenth CCS was used eight times by seven different pairs in dialogue. Example of this strategy: *[S: …I know many places, may be one of beautiful beach is Kuta beach. Do you know Kuta beach?].*

 'Self-Repetition' was utilized nineteen times by seventeen speakers of different pairs, and it is included in the twelfth CCS. For example *[S: You may visit there, you can visit there location is far but very good to visit, white sand, beautiful panorama]*.

Nonverbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

Nonverbal CCSs appearing in spoken communication took place through facial expression (smiling), gestures (head nodding, head shaking, hand raising, hand moving, pushing hands down, thumb up, and drawing something).

'Smiling' is the first nonverbal CCS employed by speakers in this study. It occurred five times of five different pairs in dialogue. Its sample: *[S: ...Lots tourist enjoy Kuta /em./*

{smiling}in Kuta beach]. The speaker smiled when saying "… *Lots tourists enjoy Kuta /em./ {smiling} in Kuta beach].*

'Head nodding' which employed five times by five speakers of different pairs was categorized as the third nonverbal CCS. An example of it: *[S: ...very good panorama because /eh…/{head nodding} so/--- //.../].* By nodding of his head, it indicated that speaker has a message through nonverbal.

'Head shaking' which appeared four times by four speakers of different pairs was categorized as the fourth nonverbal CCS. Speaker's utterance *[S: 'I think nyongkolan like /em…/I do not know* while *head shaking}],* was an example of this strategy.

'Hand raising' which appeared five times of five different speakers was the fifth nonverbal CCSs. The speaker said */Eh…/ in Lombok, there are traditional houses. The first is in Central Lombok Sade village while {raising of right index hand}* is an example of this strategy.

'Hand-moving' which categorized as the sixth nonverbal strategy was employed seventeen times by seventeen different speakers. Its sample: *[S:In Lombok there are many mosques, for example you can visit Islamic Center because there is /eh…/ you may/---/*], while {moving of both spread hands forwards body}.

In spite of its appearance only three times by three speakers of different pairs in dialogue, '**thumb up'** is categorized as the seventh nonverbal strategy in this study. Its sample: [S: Okay, I am from CNA. I am/---/ a journalist {thumb up}].

'Drawing something' is the ninth nonverbal strategy in this study. It used five times by five speakers of different pairs in dialogue. Its sample: *[S:Ya, ujian nasional /.../ may be test in the end of school use /---/ test and /---/ test].*

After displaying all findings of CCSs employed by speakers, researcher needs to reveal the frequency and percentage (%) of CCSs used across all fifteen pairs of two parts of dialogue extracts in this study. The following are summary of CCSs covering all dialogue extracts parts: 1 (tourism) and 2 (education) through pairs one to thirty.

Distribution of CCSs Employed by Speakers

No	Types of Verbal Compensatory Communication Strategies	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Approximation	20	11.69
2	Word coinage	10	5.84

No	Types of Verbal Compensatory Communication Strategies	Frequency	Percentage (%)
3	Circumlocution	9	5.26
4	Literal translation	10	5.84
5	Language switch	60	35.08
6	Appeal for assistance	10	5.84
7	Foreignizing	2	1.16
8	Paraphrase	6	3.50
9	Self-correction	17	9.94
10	Comprehension check	8	4.67
11	Self-repetition	19	11.11
	Total	**171**	**100**
No	**Types of Nonverbal Compensatory Communication Strategies**	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
	Face Expression		
1	Smiling	5	11.36
	Gestures		
2	Head nodding	5	11.36
3	Head shaking	4	9.09
4	Hand raising	5	11.36
5	Hand moving	17	38.63
6	Thumb up	3	6.81
7	Drawing something	5	11.36
	Total	**44**	**100**

Compensatory Communication Strategies Employed by Listeners in Receiving Messages

Verbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

In coping with the communication problems in taking turns talking, listeners used eight verbal CCSs, including language switch, appeal for assistance, asking the speaker for clarification, asking the speaker for repetition, asking the speaker to add message, guessing the speaker's message, and specifying the speaker's message.

The first CCS employed by listeners in taking turns speaking is **'language switch'**. Listeners used it seven times of seven different pairs. Its example: [*L: Coba diulangi lagi!*].

The second CCS was **'Appeal for assistance',** employed three times of three pairs as listeners. The listeners employed this strategy because they still need more messages from the speakers. Its sample: *[L: Help me! What you say!].*

'**Asking the Speaker for Clarification'** was the third verbal CCS for listeners. It appeared fifteen times of fifteen pairs in dialogue. Its sample: *[L: As you say, the excellent higher education is what aspect?].*

'**Asking the speaker for repetition'** is categorized the fourth compensatory strategy for listeners. Six listeners of different pairs used six times this strategy. Its sample: *[L: .../am./ /am.../ question again, do you mean tourism place/eh.../!].*

The fifth compensatory strategy used by listeners was 'a**sking the speaker to add message'**. It employed seven times by seven listeners of different pairs in dialogue. Its sample: *[L: So, how about tourism place?].*

The sixth CCS used by listeners was **'guessing the speakers' messages**. It used nine times of nine different pairs. Its example: *[S: Do you know...? Do you know... some...! L: tourism place...!].*

'**Specifying the Speaker's Message'** was categorized as the seventh strategy for listeners. It appeared four times by four different pairs. Its sample: *[S: Where is wonderful place makes you happy? L: Tourism place...!].*

Nonverbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

There were nine nonverbal CCSs employed by listeners in this study, including facial expression (smiling), eye contact (gazing towards the speaker), gestures (head nodding, head shaking, hand raising, and hand moving), and posture (forward position).

Facial expression in forms of **'smiling'** was the first nonverbal CCS employed by listeners. It used twenty-five times of nineteen different pairs. Its sample: *[S:...location is very good to white sand, beautiful panorama. L: Very good to visit...! {smiling}].*

'Gazing towards the speaker' was categorized as the second nonverbal CCS for listeners in this study. It employed four times by four different pairs in dialogue. Its sample: *[S: What make Gili Trawangan beautiful? L: Wow...beautiful...!{gazing towards the speaker}].*

Gestures that appeared in forms of head nodding, head shaking, hand raising, and hand moving were nonverbal CCSs. **'Head nodding'** which employed twenty times by twenty different pairs was categorized as the third CCS. Its sample*: [S: I am very-very happy /./ /ah./ because the beach /eh.../L: why/---/ {head nodding}].* Next, **'head shaking'** employed ten

times of ten pairs was the fourth CCS. Its sample: *[S: /Ah…/ what do you think/---/ knowledge of student in our university? [L: {head shaking} Can question repeat again?].* Furthermore, **'hand raising'** appeared twice of two different pairs was categorized as the fifth CCS. Its sample: *[S: /-/ May be from Mataram /…/ , [L: Find what?{raising the right flat hand}].* In addition, **'hand moving'** was categorized as the sixth nonverbal CCS. It employed six times by six different pairs. Its sample: *[S: Character village is your village /-/ Cool /em…/, [L: What next! {moving the right flat hand}].*

Posture occurred in form of **'forward position'** which employed three times by three listeners of different pairs was categorized as the seventh nonverbal CCS. A finding sample: *[S: I am new in your place, I want/.../ I want/.../, [L: Want what/---/ {forward position}]]* depicted listener's posture when hearing the speaker's utterance *"…. I want /.../ I want /.../"*

To facilitate in understanding of these compensatory communication strategies employed by listeners, frequency and percentage presented in the following table.

Distribution of CCSs Employed by Listeners

No	Types of Verbal CCSs	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Language switch	7	13.72
2	Appeal for assistance	3	5.88
3	Asking the speaker for clarification	15	29.41
4	Asking the speaker for repetition	6	11.53
5	Asking the speaker to add message	7	13.72
6	Guessing the speaker's message	9	17.64
7	Specifying the speaker's message	4	7.84
	Total	51	100
No	Types of Nonverbal CCSs	Frequency	Percentage (%)
	Facial Expression		
1	Smiling	25	35.71
	Eye contact		
2	Gazing towards the speaker	4	5.71
	Gestures		
3	Head nodding	20	28.57
4	Head shaking	10	14.28
5	Hand raising	2	2.85

6	Hand moving	6	8.57
	Posture		
7	Forward position	3	4.28
	Total	70	100

Discussion

The discussion emphasizes on verbal and nonverbal CCSs employed by speakers in encoding messages and listener in decoding messages in taking turns talking of a speaking class supported by the relevant theoretical bases and the previous studies.

Compensatory Communication Strategies Employed by Speakers in Conveying Messages

Verbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

Verbal CCSs discussion comprises of approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, literal translation, language switch, appealing for assistance, foreignizing, paraphrase, self-correction, comprehension check, and self-repetition.

'**Approximation'** was a strategy which speakers used as an effort in encoding of messages to listeners by rewording their message. This strategy used twenty times (11.69%) of sixteen different pairs in dialogue. It was employed to surmount of lexical meaning transmission problems by using terms or structures that shared semantic features with the intended terms instead. Finding on speaker's utterance '*feel good beach*; in which speaker in conveying the message used terms *'feel good'* to replace a term *'wonderful'*. The use of approximation strategy revealed that the terms *'feel good'* instead of using a term *'wonderful'* when it could not be elicited in his mind when talking at the time. For all that alternative terms which speakers used sound inappropriate, they seemed successfully help listeners to catch the general meaning of what speakers said. In this case, speakers selected terms that provided an approximate translation of an unknown terms by referring to a similar but known terms.

'**Word coinage'** was a strategy that speakers used as an attempt in encoding of messages through creating new terms. It appeared ten times (5.84%) of eight different pairs in dialogue. It was employed to face down the difficulty in encoding messages of particular term by making up a new term to engender the intended meaning. Finding on speaker's utterance *'politicpeople'* and *'officeworker'* showed that speaker created terms *'politicpeople', 'officeworker'* to replace terms *'politician' 'office employee'*. These new terms sound like the appropriate terms in this context, but they were inappropriate in English terms.

'Circumlocution' was considered as one of good solutions to cope with speakers' problem in spoken English. It used nine times (5.26%) by nine different pairs in dialogue. Circumlocution strategy used by speakers who unable to elicit the desired terms but want to express the message, so they described the characters of the objects instead of using the appropriate English terms. Looking at finding '*I don't know in English but like this when people marry, there is a man and a woman who married*' that inspired to comment that this was an unique strategy because speakers could not recall the intended terms, however, they could make a sequence of sentence to express the message. Of data indicated that speaker has a problem to recall English words *'bride'* and *'bride groom'* when he was talking about marriage in Lombok. Speaker used this strategy to explain the description of words that he wanted to convey to listener.

'**Literal translation'** which appeared ten times (5.84%) of ten speakers of different pairs in this study was a part of interlingual transfer. Literal translation-interlingual transfer may involve the transfer of phonological, morphological, syntactic or lexical features of the IL, and may also occur at the pragmatic and discourse level. If it occurs in lexical lever of IL system (e.g. translating compounds or idiomatic expressions from native language verbatim into TL) described as 'literal translation'.

Discussing of this strategy, finding was delineated by speaker *'... you know in Selebrana beach there many villas, oleh-oleh /em./ handicraft, restaurant too many'* indicated that speaker used interlingual transfer at lexical level or literal translation by combining of linguistic features from codes of English and Indonesian as such *'many villas, oleh-oleh /em./ handicraft''*. Speaker translated Indonesian word *'oleh-oleh'* with *'handicraft'*, but it is not properly used. However, listener as the interlocutor understood of what speaker said by uttering "*May be I am ... I want to go there 'may be you can...'*". Using literal translation sometimes makes interlocutor easier to comprehend the message, it may be because the listeners in each opportunity can speak their native language of Indonesian, however, it used to avoid communication breakdown.

'**Language switch'** deals with switching the TL into NL or vice versa. Speakers of twenty-five pairs substituted sixty times (35.08) their utterances to Indonesian words because they did not know the English words when articulating their utterances. They exerted their own language to face down English words deficiencies and to keep their communication running well in a properly manner. Finding such '… *UIN Mataram is second perguruan tinggi negeri in NTB'* showed that speakers began dialogue by using English, then switching the message into Indonesian when uttering *'perguruan tinggi negeri'* because he was unable to elicit English

words for *'perguruan tinggi negeri'. S*peakers sometimes uttered the sequence of message by using both English and Indonesian in conveying of message to listeners. They switched the messages into Indonesian because of their English words limited.

'Appeal for assistance' which employed ten times (95.84%) by ten speakers of different pairs was speakers' effort to ask assistant from interlocutors to face down the difficulties in encoding messages. Speakers asked for correct words as well as the continuum of message before ending of talking by using both English and Indonesian. Finding on appealing for assistance *'What is the small ship running to Gili Trawangan'* showed that speaker has difficulty in recall term *'boat'* in English, so he appealed assistance to his interlocutor.

'Foreignizing' which only appeared twice (1.16%) of one pair of subjects in this study was a part of interlingual transfer. The speaker adjusted English plural item like's' to interlingual plural (Indonesian). The finding revealed this strategy *'... There many villas, gilis, barugas like Gili Trawangan, Gili Meno, and Gili Air'.* The finding showed that a speaker employed a foreignizing strategy by utilizing the English inflectional morpheme *'s'* to Indonesian words *'gili'* and *'baruga'* became *'gilis'* and *'barugas'.* Whereas, *'gili'* and *'baruga'* were not English, but they were Indonesian words. Even though both words were pronounced like English plurals, the listener understood of what speaker conveyed, he only nodded his head and smiled, but he was unable to correct of this was misused of Indonesian plural.

This strategy indicated that the speaker employed foreignizing strategy to face down his lexical deficiency of the TL. Speaker included the utterances of TL plural when uttering L1 word in an equivalent stretch of sentence because of not knowing about unfamiliar L1 terms when articulating his utterances. The speakers sometimes uttered their own language as foreignizing if they encountered difficulty to elicit TL items in dialogue.

'Paraphrase' referred to the rewording of messages in an alternative TL construction in order to avoid unknown TL terms. It appeared six times (3.50%) of six different pairs in dialogue. Finding on: '*…gili air is a small island; I said small island because in small island there are not many people, there are not many villas, but there are many tourists'.* Finding indicated that speaker has a problem when describing the content of talking, so he paraphrased some English terms. Speaker used this strategy because of his limited knowledge of English and lack of idea about the speaking content, so he repeated   several words while thinking for next words for being used to facilitate the interlocutor understood the message was being delivered.

'**Self-correction**' was employed seventeen times (9.94%) by sixteen different pairs. Speakers performed self-correction during communicating by revising their own inappropriate English terms in the way of speakers used them. Finding on *'I want ask about what is good place /./ I mean the interesting place there'* showed that the speaker corrected his utterance by uttering *'I mean the interesting place there'*. In this case, speaker just realized that the use of term '*good*' was inappropriate to be used in the context because they were talking about tourism, so it necessisated him to specify his message. Accordingly, he revised his diction by uttering the appropriate language '*I mean the interesting place*' as a self-correction strategy.

'**Comprehension check**' appeared eight times (4.67%) by seven different pairs in this study. It referred to check question of speaker to interlocutor whether the interlocutor has a prior knowledge of speaking context or speaker exerted comprehension check to know that interlocutor understood of what speaker uttered. Finding on '*… I know many places, may be one of beautiful beach is Kuta beach. Do you know Kuta beach?'* showed that there was a question employed by speaker, '*Do you know Kuta beach?*' as a comprehension check. Speaker used this strategy to obtain the listener's understanding that messages have been understood by the listener.

'**Self-Repetition**' was utilized nineteen times (11.11%) by seventeen different pairs in dialogue. By using repetition, speakers repeated a part or the whole of the utterance and they could eliminate long filled pauses, symbol used /em…/ and long unfilled pauses, symbol used /…/ while thinking for recalling the next words to be utilized in delivery messages. Speakers produced long utterances automatically and sound more fluent in their spoken English. Finding on *'you may visit there /…/, you can visit there /…/ location is far but very good to visit, white sand, beautiful panorama'* indicated that the speaker repeated a part of his utterances such as 'you may visit there /…/ you can visit there /.../ to compensate his communication problem in dialogue. This happened because the speakers lack of TL terms and sometimes making them talked while thinking the sequence of next terms.

Nonverbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

Nonverbal CCSs appearing of spoken communication in forms of facial expression-smiling and gestures (head nodding, head shaking, hand raising, hand moving, pushing hands down, thumb up, and drawing something).

'**Smiling**' was a form of facial expressions occurred five times (11.36%) of five different pairs as speakers. It was a simple way of using when dialogue to engender meaning of emphasizing the verbal message or delivering of independent meaning instead of utilizing

verbal words to enhance the speaking effectiveness. Finding on *'... lots tourist enjoy Kuta /em./ {smiling}in Kuta beach'*, in which speaker smiled when uttering *'... lots tourist enjoy Kuta /em./ {smiling}in Kuta beach,* indicated that the place seemed interesting which made tourists enjoy to visit Kuta beach, but the speaker could not describe the characteristic of that place. Smile here referred on feeling interesting place of Kuta beach.

'Head nodding' was a form of gesture that used five times (11.36%) by five different pairs as speakers in dialogue. Finding on '*...tourism place in Lombok/./ very good panorama because /eh.../{head nodding} so/---//.../]*. By nodding of his head, it indicated that speaker faced difficulty in recalling new terms to illustrate the place, so nodding his head to listener indicating that asked the listener to complete the messages was being uttered. The speaker was unable to utilize a manner of verbal expression, so head nodding is a good way of expressing the message meaning.

'Head shaking' that appeared four times (9.09) by four speakers of different pairs was a part of gesture. Speakers employed this strategy indicating there were somethings happened with their messages while shaking head. Finding of speaker's utterance *'I think nyongkolan like /em.../ I do not know* while *head shaking}*' indicated that speaker did not know the needed words to use for next message. Speaker employed head shaking strategy when uttering *"I don't understand.* It was done by speaker to indicate that he has a message which he delivered through nonverbal message.

'Hand raising' was appeared five times (51.36%) of five speakers of different pairs. Speakers used it when either uttering message concurrently with raising their hands to emphasize the verbal terms or only raising hands without uttering anything in conveying the meaning of message. Finding on '*Eh.../ ...there are traditional houses. The first is in Central Lombok Sade village while {raising of right index hand}*' indicated that speakers often were unaware of what came out of their utterance and what they communicated through their nonverbal language were two acts which supported to each other. However, commonly nonverbal act was used to accompany or emphasize the verbal message.

'Hand-moving' was employed seventeen times (38.63%) by seventeen different pairs. Speaker's utterance '*… for example you can visit Islamic Center because there is /eh.../you may/---/, while {moving of both spread hands forwards body}*'showed that the difficulty of speaker in recalling of English terms, so he exerted long filled pause /eh…/ you may/---/ and moving of both spread hands forwards body while thinking the needed terms.

'Thumb up' which used three times (6.81) by three subjects' pairs in this study was a gesture. It either can substitute a verbal word without uttering it, but has the same meaning or

supports a verbal word concurrently with thumb up when uttering a verbal word in expressing the message meaning. Finding on '*I am/---/ a journalist {thumb up}*'indicated that speaker wanted to convince the interlocutor that he was a good journalist. In spite of using lengthening of syllables 'I am/---/' before said 'a journalist', he could utilize a nonverbal CCS while thinking the next terms 'a journalist'

'**Drawing something**' was used five times (11.36) by five pairs in dialogue. Speaker used it in delivering something to substitute the verbal massage in expressing of meaning. Finding on '*/.../ may be test in the end of school use /---/ test and /---/ test*' showed that speaker used lengthening of syllables *'use'* /---/' and *'and'* /---/ while drawing something indicated that he has a problem of English lexicals. Speaker drew something such as writing on paper by pen with right hand to illustrate written test at school. Speaker was not able to recall the needed terms to deliver verbal message.

Compensatory Communication Strategies Employed by Listeners in Receiving Messages
Verbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

On verbal CCSs, the discussion consists of language switch, appeal for assistance, asking the speakers for clarification, asking the speakers for repetition, asking the speakers to add message, guessing the speakers' message, and specifying the speakers' messages.

'**Language switch**' was used seven times (13.72) by listeners of seven different pairs. They switched their utterances into Indonesian terms because they did not know English terms. Majority of listeners used this strategy in responding spontaneously of what speakers said, such as asking for clarification, appeal for assistance, and asking the speakers to add message. Finding on listener' utterance '*coba diulangi lagi!*' indicated that listener asked for repetition to the speaker by switching his language into Indonesian. Listeners exerted Indonesian to surmount English terms deficiencies when dialogue.

'**Appeal for assistance**' which employed three times (5.88%) of listeners was one of students' efforts to come up with their limited knowledge on English. The listeners employed this strategy because they still need more messages from the speakers. Finding on '*Help me! What you say!*' showed that listeners used it because they needed more information from speakers that made them requested assistance to speakers in dissolving of difficulties in expressing of messages when their turns.

'**Asking the Speaker for Clarification**' was used fifteen times (29.41%) by listeners of fifteen pairs in dialogue. When listeners could not directly understand of what speaker said, they could clarify by means of asking for clarification, that was, an expression designed to

recall clarification of speakers' previous message. Finding on '*…the excellent higher education is what aspect!'* indicated that listener asked the speaker to clarify the message because he needed further explanation from speaker's message, so he asked the speaker to clarify his message.

'**Asking the speaker for repetition**' was employed six times (11.53) by six listeners of different pairs. It is the simple strategy because listeners only ask the speakers to repeat what they spoken in the first time if listeners could not understand of the message. Finding on '*question again, do you mean tourism place /eh…/!* showed that a listener asked the speaker for repitition because of missing main point of what speaker's utterance or because of listener was unable to understand speaker's messages. Listener used long filled pause /eh…/ while thinking words for responding the speaker's question, unfortunately the listener was unable to recall them.

'**Asking the speaker to add message**' that employed seven times (13.72%) by seven listeners of different subjects' pairs was similar with asking the speaker to repeat speaking. Listeners used this strategy because they needed more messages from speakers to facilitate in comprehending of speaking content. Finding on listener's utterance *'So, how about tourism place?',* indicated that listener needed more explanation on speaking content, so he requested speaker to add his message in order to know more about description of speaking content.

'**Guessing the speakers' messages**' was used by listeners nine times (17.64) of nine different pairs. Listeners guessed messages from speakers because they more understanding about speaking contents of what being uttered by speakers. Finding on '*Do you know… some…! L: tourism place…!',* showed that listener polished up the speaker's message by guessing the phrase *'tourism place'* to complete the speaker's utterance. Speaker sometimes was unable to recall English terms needed in delivering complete messages making listeners guessed needed terms directly when taking turns talking.

'**Specifying the Speaker's Message**' employed four times (7.84) by four different pairs was important in detecting the speaking behavior of listeners in spoken English. The listener as soon as possible to specify the message in order to facilitate in eliciting a sequence of responses. Finding on *'Tourism place…!'* to specify of speaker's question *'Where is wonderful place makes you happy?* This question was still considered in general, so the listener specified the speaker's question into the particular place by uttering *'tourism place…!'*. Listener specified the speaker's question in order to facilitate in recalling a sequence of response.

Nonverbal Compensatory Communication Strategies

The discussion of nonverbal CCSs employed by listeners, including facial expression-smiling, eye contact (gazing towards the speaker), gestures (head nodding, head shaking, hand raising, and hand moving), and posture (forward position).

Facial expression in forms of **'smiling'** was appeared twenty-five times (35.71) of nineteen different pairs in dialogue. Listeners smiled because of their happiness/agreement or not understanding/disagreement of message from their interlocutors. Finding on '*Very good to visit…! {smiling}*' reflected listener's feeling agreement of message from speaker '*S: …very good to white sand, beautiful panorama*'. Listener seemed to be interested when hearing things on beautiful panorama of Kuta beach. Smiling was a simple nonverbal strategy which usually employed in spoken communication because of its effectiveness in engendering of both supporting verbal terms and delivering independent meaning instead of utilizing verbal terms to enhance spoken communication goal.

'Gazing towards the speaker' employed four times (5.71) by four listeners of different pairs was one of eye contact forms. Eye contact was visual sense as a way of delivering message that engendered of meaning in spoken communication. Finding on '*S: What make Gili Trawangan beautiful? L: Wow…beautiful…!{*gazing *towards the speaker}*'. Listener performed an act such as *"Wow… beautiful…!{gazing towards the speaker}*' to ask the speaker to repeat what had uttered in the first time and asking for repetition. It was done because listener less understanding of speaker's question making him could not answer the question directly.

Gestures appeared in forms of head nodding, head shaking, hand raising, and hand moving were nonverbal CCSs. **'Head nodding'** was employed twenty times (28.57%) by twenty different pairs as listeners. Listeners nodded of head because of either their understanding or not understanding about message from speakers. Finding on speaker' utterance '*I am very-very happy /./ /ah./ because the beach /eh…/*' made the listener responded '*why/---/ {head nodding}*'. It indicated that listener could not understand of message that has delivered by the speaker, so he nodded her head to ask the speaker to add the message. She employed head nodding nonverbal strategy to ask the speaker to continue speaking or add his message. Next, **'head shaking'** was employed ten times (14.28) by ten subjects' pairs as listener. Finding on speaker's utterance '*Ah…/ what do you think/---/ knowledge of student in our university?*' made listener shook of head while uttering '*Can question repeat again?*'. Listener employed head shaking strategy as a response of not knowing on the speaker's query, so he should ask the speaker to repeat the query. Furthermore, **'hand raising'** was used twice

(2.85) by listeners of two different pairs. Finding on speaker' utterance *'/-/... may be from Mataram /.../'* made the listener said *'Find what?{raising the right flat hand}'*It showed that in which listener raised her right flat hand when listening the speaker's utterance *'/-/...may be from Mataram /.../'* because of not comprehending of what speaker's just uttered. In his utterance, the speaker exerted long unfilled pause /.../ in the end of her message because of limited English terms that made listener raised the right flat hand to indicate that he needed more explanation from the speaker of her question. In addition, **'hand moving'** was employed six times (8.57) by listeners of six different pairs. Listeners used this strategy when listening of incomplete speakers' utterances indicating that listeners needed complete messages from speakers. Finding on speaker and listener's utterances *'S: Character village is your village /-/ Cool /em.../*, *L: What next then!{moving the right flat hand}'* showed the speaker faced difficulty in eliciting the TL terms, so he exerted long filled pause /em.../. In responding to the utterance, listener uttered *'what next!'* while moving his right flat hand asked the speaker to continue speaking.

Posture as nonverbal CCSs occurred in forms of **'forward position'** in this study. It employed three times (4.28%) by listeners of three different pairs. Data on *'S: I want/.../ I want/.../,* and '*L: Want what/---/ {forward position}'*depicted that listener's posture when hearing the speaker's utterance *'.... I want /.../ I want /.../'* could not comprehend the message from speaker. In his utterance the speaker exerted long unfilled pause /.../ twice and smiled. The utterances made the listener was impatient to wait his message, so he uttered *"want what/---/"* while going forward position. This act was meant asked the speaker for repeating his utterance to facilitate in engendering the meaningful message.

Conclusion

Concerning those various kinds of CCSs employed by students in taking turns talking of this study, most of them coincided with achievement/compensatory strategies proposed by Tarone (1983) and Faerch and Kasper (1983). Students may employ those strategies in an attempt to deal with problems in communication directly by using alternative in order to get the message across. CCSs enable the students "work on an alternative plan for reaching their original goal by means of whatever resources are available, these strategies are regarded as good students' behaviors" (Nakatani, 2006). There are some CCSs in which students may employ to cope with spoken communication problems, including word coinage, language switch, paraphrase, circumlocution, approximation, self-repetition. asking the speaker for clarification, asking the speaker for

repetition, asking the speaker to add language, cooperative strategies, non-linguistic strategies, and retrieval strategies.

Pedagogical Implication

       This research has pedagogical implication for the English language education department policy of the university, in which to enhance students' speaking proficient should be included communication strategies materials in teaching speaking. It facilitates the students to use spoken communication by elaborating many ways of delivering and receiving the messages from and to interlocutors.

Recommendations

       Several recommendations are made for speaking course lecturers at Mataram State Islamic University. It is recommended that speaking lecturer should know that CCSs do play important role in spoken communication for both lecturers and students. This can help lecturers to enhance their teaching strategies and students to improve their speaking competence. Speaking course needs to include communication strategy as a part of strategy in spoken communication. They should teach students how to increase their speaking proficiency through practicing how to memorize, connect, and use TL lexical, morphological, syntactic, and phonological aspects in a series of utterances to form a meaningful whole in a proper way in taking turns speaking.

References

Arellano-Tamayo, R. (2018). Spoken Discourse Analysis on Language Use Along Turn Taking and Topic Management in English as Second Language (ESL) Classrooms. *Asian EFL Journal, 20*(12.3), 8-24.

Bialystok, E. (1990). *Communication Strategies: A Psychological Analysis of Second Language Use*. Cambridge: Basil Blackwell.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Faerch, C. & Kasper, G. (1983). On Identifying Communication Strategies In Interlanguage Production. In Claus Faerch & Gabriele Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication* (pp. 210-238). New York: Longman Inc.

Hadley, A. O. (1993). *Teaching Language in Context*. Bostom: Heinle & Heile Publishers.

Luo, J. & Weil, N. (2014). Language Learning Strategy Use in an American IEP: Implications for EFL. *Asian EFL Journal, 16*(3), 96-115.

Nakatani, Y. (2006). Developing an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory. *The Modern Language Journal, 90* (2), 151-168. Retrieved from http://www.docjax.com.

Shumin, K. (2002). Factors to Consider: Developing Adult EFL Students' Speaking Abilities. In Jack C. Richards and Willy A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (pp. 204-211). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tarone, E. (1983). Some Thoughts on the Notion of Communication Strategy. In Clause Faerch & Gabriele Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication* (pp. 61-74). New York: Longman Inc.

Communication Strategies of Indonesian EFL Learners in Speaking English

First Author: **Ammang Latifa**

Corresponding Author: **Rafi'ah Nur**

Universitas Muhammadiyah Parepare [1, 2]

Bio-Profiles:

Ammang Latifa is an English Lecturer at Universitas Muhammadiyah Parepare. His research interest is Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Language Assessment. latifa_ammang@yahoo.com

Rafi'ah Nur is a senior lecturer at Universitas Muhammadiyah Parepare. Her research interest is Material development in English on Language Teaching. rafiahnur@yahoo.com

Abstract

People involved in communication must understand what they are saying and hearing (Hersh, 2013). Understanding, in a fundamental sense, suggests that we have an ordinary meaning for words, phrases, or nonverbal symbols, (Armstrong & Ferguson, 2010) In a broader sense, it means that we can access and understand a person's meaning. Thus, sharing meaning between speakers and hearers is the essence of communication (Eisenchlas, 2009), and this cannot take place if there are insufficient comprehension and insight by both sender and receiver such an insufficient comprehension is likely to hinder the message (Ting et al. 2017).

This research aimed to describe the type of communication strategies used by the Indonesian EFL Learner when communicating English. The population of this research was University students from Muhammadiyah University of Parepare and STAIN Parepare. The researcher collects the data through interview activity, which then analyzed it descriptive quantitative and qualitatively. This research found that among the three-level of language competences of Indonesian EFL learners used strategies when they are communicating English in the classroom setting; these strategies are Code-switching, formal reduction, retrieval

strategy, message avoidance, restructuring, approximation, topic avoidance, Interlingual transfer, asking for help, repetition of coming message, mime, and circumlocution.

Introduction

Communication is essential in human life and should be useful (Femi, 2014). Without effective communication, healthy community life is inconceivable. It is a process whereby one may express ideas by symbols and other audio-visual aids. It brings people's messages to one another.

English language speaking is used as a medium to express our thoughts, ideas, feelings, and it consists of a series of words and nonverbal ideas and concepts (Latifa et al., 2019). The speaker utilizes these series to express thought through symbols and signs intelligibly, (Lazutina & Lazutin, 2015). Stretch of language may consist of word series or figures which are arranged and transmitted by the sender and receiver and processed by the receiver. Thus, language is the crucial medium of human communication. In real life, achieving successful communication is not always as easy as might be expected (Oxford, 1990) state that essential factors such as emotions, self-esteem, empathy, anxiety, attitude and motivation play important roles in language learning success or failure.

Further, Brown explains that communicating in a second language, especially in front of native speakers, is often anxiety-provoking. Sometimes, extreme anxiety occurs when learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) experienced loss of words in an unexpected situation (Hamouda, 2012), (Kasbi & Elahi Shirvan, 2017) and this often leads to discouragement and a general sense of failure (Atma, 2018)

As the addition of a factor & successfulness of communication, (Jr., 2019) stated that the language user tent to communicate various pattern intelligibly in the social level, which is indicated through in both nonverbal & verbal communication. This phenomenon happened to the communicant while they recognized conventional signs in their social setting. Furthermore, Jr said that in a level society, language could be used as a vehicle to have an interest in a specific purpose.

In communicating in English, several students frequently interact with their friends both inside and outside the classroom (Chubko, 2017). They frequently discuss their daily lives and their subjects in school. The students who have a good mastery of

English are more likely to be able to maintain extended speech in somewhat more prolonged interactions. However, those English is limited and is likely to encounter communication problems (Hosni, 2004). As such, they tend to resort to specific communication strategies such as paraphrasing, miming, and switching into their first language (L1), (Hua, Nor, & Jaradat, 2012)

The researcher has noticed several tertiary students in Indonesia who seem to employ communication strategies when they communicate with both their friends and teachers using English. The following examples of recorded data which is observed by the researcher when the practicing of the speaking class was running in the language laboratory.

Table. 1 Data Utterance

Subject	Utterances
Lecturer	What subject do you like best
Student	Actually,- er - I like speaking and listening because er-er- in speaking I think the student will make - er—.er— the student will practice with words, because ya ... speaking is the first in English. I think all of the subject in English is need in it. But I think in my mind for or member I meant for our partner to speak ya ... .ya.

Tabel.2 Data Utterance

Subject	Utterances
Lecturer	Are you satisfied on your teacher's teaching?
Learner	Oh, ya ... there is also some of the lecturer satisfact....satisfaction in study English er.... sometime like teaching and practice English also we have satisfaction at When we also we start to make question there is no satisfaction in it because may before the time er.. Learning time enough for us

It can be seen from the two examples that the speakers or learners found some difficulties in maintaining a smooth flow of an extended speech. The avoidance use of hesitation marks this.

At the same time, these speakers, as the interlocutors, should conclude their tasks to respond to their addresses with meaningful utterances, in order to help them get their meaning across. In their effort to do this, they are likely to employ specific communication strategies.

Review of Related Literature

Tarone (1983), Mei & Nathalang (2010), Jahbel (2019) defined Communication strategy as the attempts of two speakers to agree on a mutual understanding in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. Meaning structures here would include both linguistic structures and sociolinguistic rule structures or the utterances which are established with the appropriate rule of grammar and particular context or situation when the speech participants are interacting (Tarvin, 2014). Another definition from Hua et al., (2012), Faerch and Kasper (1983:212) states that" Communication strategies is a conscious plan of the speaker to manipulate the language for solving what to an individual has a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal (Ahmed & Pawar, 2018). These views revealed that communication strategies are employed or created by the speakers to compensate for missing knowledge in achieving their communicative goal (Mirzaei, 2012: Hartono, 2016). This phenomenon, of course, provides potential issues for scientists, especially linguists to carry out some studies to describe the phenomenon well Sections can be further divided into subsections with headings. In identifying communication strategies in an interaction, we can see some characteristics as follows:

The speaker desires to communicate a meaning X to the listener. The speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate, meaning X is unavailable or is not shared with the listener. The speaker chooses to: Avoid/ not attempt to communicate meaning X or Attempt alternative means to communicate meaning X. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning (Faerch and Kasper, 1983:65).

Several experts have given their views about the types of communication strategies. For instance, (Tarone, 1983) mentions five types of strategies learners use when faced with difficulties in conveying the messages as follows: 1) Avoidance: these are risk-avoiding strategies. The speakers who fear to make mistakes use this strategy. This strategy consists of two types:

Avoidance: these are risk-avoiding strategies. The speakers who fear to make mistakes use this strategy. This strategy consists of two types:

Topic avoidance: The learners avoid specific topics in which they think making mistakes is probably in the target language.

Message abandonment: The learners start talking about the topic but abandon it because they are unable to continue.

Table.3 Data utterance of Message abandonment

Speaker	Utterances
Learner	What time you live tomorrow?
Native speaker	One o'clock or two o'clock is possible
Learner	Yeach, it's possible because no so.. turist --- ya-ya

The information in italics indicates that the learner does not know the appropriate words needed to continue speaking.

Paraphrase: The learners reword their message in order to make themselves understood.

Approximation: learners use one vocabulary item which they know is not accurate but which is similar in meaning.

Table 4. Data Utterance of Paraphrase

Speaker	Utterance
Learner	He gave me a big watch to hang on the wall.

The speaker prefers saying "watch" rather than saying Clock.

Word Coinage; The learners make a new word in English.

Table 5. Data Example Utterance Word Coinage

speaker	Utterance
Learner	I saw an air ball instead of saying a balloon

Circumlocution: The learners describe an action or vocabulary item because they do not know the appropriate word.

Table 6. Data Example Utterance of Circumlocution

speaker	Utterance
Learner	I get a red in my head, instead of saying, I'm blushing

Transfer (Foreignizing). The learners borrow from any language they know. These strategies:

Literal Translation: The learner translates compounds or idiomatic expressions from his or her first language (L1) into the second language (L2) for instance, Danish learner says "my pets eat - erm green - things (Tarone, 1977 in Faerch and Kasper, 1983:47)

In this example (5), the learner translates from his first language "gntsager," which Danish for "vegetables" to the second language as "green things."   (green things" for gantsager Danish for "vegetables")

Code-switching: The learners directly use the native language without trying to translate.

Table7. Data Example Utterance of Code-switching

speaker	Utterance
Learner	I'm waiting for the "kereta api Kerta Jaya' ("kereta api Kerta Jaya" is Indonesian for" Kerta Jaya train").

1. Appeal for Assistance: The learners seek help from the persons they are speaking in table 8. Data Example of Utterance of Appeal for **Assistance**

speaker	Utterance
Learner	What do you call?

2. Mime: The learners use nonverbal signs to convey the desired meaning as in the audience (sound used in booing)

Faerch and Kasper (1983:36) classify communication strategies into two major types; they are reduction strategies and achievement strategies. In their explanations. Faerch and

Kasper (1983:38-52) describe the types/sub-types of communication strategies as well as the operational term of reduction strategies and achievement strategies, including several examples.

Formal reduction strategies:

1. Kleinman (1977) in Faerch and Kasper (1983:39-40) stated that, formal reduction is a term which should not be used to imply that a substantial reduction of the system takes place, (Derakshan & Karimi, 2015) what happens is that the language user in specific situation avoids using rules/items which he has at his disposal. A different communicative situation would be the most appropriate way of reaching the communicative goal with about the theory of formal reduction; the speaker avoids producing non-fluent utterances by reducing the grammar rule of language Brown (2003). This typical strategy is explained by the example below:

Example (8): Learner: What time you leave? Is the reduction of what time do you leave?

Achievement Strategies

In solving problems in communication, speakers may attempt to expand their communicative resources rather than reducing their communicative goals (Littlewood, 2013). These strategies are needed to solve problems that occur due to a lack of communicative competence.

Code-switching:

Faerch and Kasper (1983: 46) states that in communication in which foreign languages are involved, there always exists the possibility of switching from the second language (L2) to either first language (L1) or another language. Furthermore, Faerch and Kasper (1983), Archibald, (2017) state that the learners, while facing problems in linguistic resources and retrieval processing of speech, use functional reduction strategies. Strategies, learners reduce their communicative goals to avoid problems (Edi, 2018).

Tarone, Frauenfelder, and Selingker in Faerch and Kasper (1983:44) stated that functional reduction usually refers to the topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement.

Table 9. Data Example of Utterance of topic avoidance:

speaker	Utterance
Lerner1	Do you need much money for buying something?
Learner2	Yes, / need money for er...er... er....yeah er... I think, I should go now

(recorded data: student's practice in speaking I: 2005)

Table 10. Data Example of Utterance of message abandonment

speaker	Utterance
Learner	What do you mean by a communication Learner 2: by a Communication, the people can process er.er (does not continue

(recorded data: student's practice inspeaking1:2005)

Morphological and syntactical features:

The learners of English who are beginners sometimes transfer the first syntactical features into interlanguage when producing English, (Lim, 2006).

Table 11. Data Example of Morphological and syntactical feature

speaker	Utterance
Learner 1	How are you today?
Learner 2	Oh yach, I am fine fine today

("Fine" is Indonesian for "baik-baik"

In this example, the Indonesian learner transfers the Indonesian word repetition system "baik-baik" into his Interlanguage system.

Intralingual Transfer:

This example takes place in situations in which speakers consider the second language (L2) formally similar to their native language. The result of this strategy is a generalization of an interlanguage rule, but the properties of the corresponding L1 structures influence the generalization. Example (13): (Danish   svomme - svommede (past tense) (English swim - swimmed)   Jordens (1977) in Faerch and Kasper (1983:47) This example shows us the

speaker's effort to produce an English word by generalizing the rule of English, where the rule is reinforced by the properties (grammar rule) of the speaker's first language.

Interlanguage Based Strategies: Faerch and Kasper (1983:47) state that the learner has various possibilities for coping with communicative problems by using his interlanguage (IL) system; He may generalize, paraphrase, coin new words, and restructure. Faerch and Kasper describe these features as follows:

Generalization; The learner solves the problem in the planning phase by filling the gaps in his/her plans with interlanguage items that he/she would not regularly use in such contexts.

Table 12. Data Utterance of Generalization strategy

speaker	Utterance
Native speaker	do you have any animals -
Learner	(laugh) yes - er - er that is er - I don't know how I shall say that in English Native, I think they must be rabbits
Native speaker	er.. what?
learner	rabbits -
Native speaker	does it - sleep on - in your room
Learner	er my - my animals
Native speaker	mm your animal

(Tarone, Frauenfelder, Selingker; 1976 in Faerch and Kasper, 1983:49) - Paraphrase Strategy: In solving communication problems, the speaker constructs a well-formed description or circumlocution in the planning phase of speech production.

Word Coinage Strategy

Table 13. Data Utterance of Word Coinage Strategy

speaker	Utterance
Learner 1	How are you today?
Learner 2	Oh yach, I am fine fine today

In this strategy, the speaker is creative in constructing a new word in the target language. In the following example, the speaker wants to refer to the "curve" of a stadium. Example (15): We were sitting in the - rounding of the stadium.

Restructuring Strategy

This strategy is used when the speaker feels unable to complete his or her speech. Then, the speaker chooses selected utterances that had been planned in the speech process, which enables him or her to communicate his or her intended message without reduction.

Table 14. Data Utterance of Restructuring Strategy

speaker	Utterance
Learner	My sisters there are ..er ..oh sorry, I have four elder sisters

(Faerch and Kasper, 1983:50)

In executing a plan, learners may have difficulties in retrieving specific Inter Language items. Learners may adopt achievement strategies in order to get at the problematic item.

In some cases, they know that the term is there and that they need to retrieve it in some way. In short, the retrieval strategy refers to the speaker's effort to recall terms from his memory (Faerch and Kasper, 1983:52), (Nemati, 2010)

Analytical and Conceptual Framework

In finding the type of communication strategies (CS), the researcher used a combination of the types of communication strategies that have been proposed by Tarone (1983) and Faerch & Kasper (1983). Their views on the types of CS and the researcher's combination of types of communication strategy are described follows.

Table 15. Types of Communication Strategies by Tarone & Faerch &Kasper

TARONE	FAERCH & KASPER
AVOIDANCE	REDUCTION STRATEGY
- Topic Avoidance	-Formal reduction (reducing of
- Message abandonment	language system
TRANSFER (Foreignizing)	- Functional Reduction
- Code switching	1. Topic avoidance
- Literal translation	2. Message Abandonment
PARAPHRASE	ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGY
- Approximation	- Code switching
- Word Coinage	- Interlingual transfer
- Circumlocution	- Intralingual transfer
	- Interlanguage based strategy
APPEAL FOR ASSISTANCE	1. Generalization
	2. Paraphrase
MIME (GESTURES)	3. Word coinage
	4. Restructuring strategy
	Cooperative Strategies
	Non-Linguistic Devices Strategies
	Retrieval Strategies

After classifying the respondents into three levels of English proficiency; elementary, intermediate, and advance. The researcher used a random sampling technique in choosing the research sample, where ten students represented each level. Therefore, the total number of the sample was 30 students.

3. Methodology

The data were taken at the respondents' campuses (Muhammadiyah University of Parepare and STAIN Parepare). The collecting data was the recording of the speech, which was directly recorded and collected by the researcher. Which provided sources of data for this research. The first is the classroom and outside classroom activity, a) in classroom activity,

In the classroom activity, the researcher presents English speaking practice as a source of activity to get data. English speaking practice is an activity that can give more chances to the researcher in collecting oral data. In this activity, the respondents are allowed to perform speaking practice in a pair conversation model; after that, the researcher does a recording process by using videotape.

In designing this activity, the researchers work together with the lecturer to determine some devices of conversation such as topic, time, and model of conversation that could be performed by the respondent. Moreover, finally, the researcher gives free

topic conversation in a pair activity, and the duration of speaking is not limited. After determining these devices, the lecturer lets the respondents have conversations, and then the researcher directly records the respondent's speaking production.

To answer the problems of this research study, the researcher performed four steps in analyzing the recorded data of the three levels of English proficiency (advanced, intermediate, and elementary). The first step was transcribing data from audio recording to written form, the second step was categorizing the communication strategies, the third step was analyzing the type of communication strategies, and the fourth was finding the different use of communication strategies among the three levels of English competence (advanced, intermediate, and elementary).

4. Findings and Discussion

(a) Elementary Level Data

Data.1

X	*What **group** do you like?*
y	***The group !*** *— er... limo because the Limo there **any** monox.*

In this utterance, the speaker repeats part of the received message (received a message) for recalling the name "Limo" from the speaker's memory. We can see the speaker repeats the message of the group as the chance to recall the name group "Limo" The type of communication strategy used by the speaker is the repetition of the received message strategy.

Data.2

X	*You (laugh). The name Sule er.... **can be acting***

In this utterance X, the speaker does not comprehend the rule of the sentence. The speaker overgeneralizes the use of auxiliary be and ing form to construct her sentence in stating her communicative goal. Based on the analytical framework and analysis of this data, the speaker performed a formal reduction strategy.

Data.3

X	*er...er... **"begini"** er.er.Nyanya group have person the small one and the tall one*

In this data, the speaker does not recall the English word for "begini." So, in achieving her communicative goal, she employs the word "begini." Based on the analytical framework and analysis of this data, the speaker employed a code-switching strategy.

Data.4

X	1) *May be er.er..**we can- we can** to look for er.er. other topic. May be* Your er...*er... love problem or your girl friend.*

In the data. 4 The speaker indicates that there is a retrieval process of an idea for completing her meaning. The other indicator is from the speaker's confirmations on the retrospective data, which stated that the repetition of we could is performed to find out the appropriate idea. Based on the analytical framework and analysis of this data, the speaker performed the retrieval strategy.

Data.5

Y:	*How you know your friend er in the news paper? X: I read in the news paper.*

Within this utterance Y, the speaker wants to say, "got the name of my best friend." We can see the speaker uses the word "can" to compensate for the word "got," where the use of a word can in this context is incorrect. In the analytical framework, the speaker used the approximation strategy.

Data.6

X	*(pause).- - - **What is Nana in the place?***

In this utterance, the speaker transfers her language syntactical feature to state her meaning into the target language.
*"(*What is Nana in the place? is Indonesian for ***apakah Nana di tempat itu"*).* The type of this strategy is ***interlingual transfer strategy (syntactical features transfer)***

Data.7

Y	**I will invite your family er....**

In this data, the speaker loss of words or ideas in completing the utterance. Thus, the speaker likes canceling the utterance rather than making a mistake. Based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of this data, the speaker used a message avoidance strategy.

Data.8

| X | I don't know, but er- / choose to register in Umpar er.er... may be er.er. in Makassar er.er...er... I think in Umpar not far from my house. |

In this data, the speaker cannot continue the segment of utterance at data 8, communicate her reason why she did not register in Makassar. So, the speaker chooses to restructure her utterance as in the utterance, "I think in Umpar not far from my house." This strategy is restructuring.

Data.9

| X | *What is your opinion er... Do you came here in Umpar er ... ?* |

In the utterance, Data 9. The speaker loses some words or ideas in English to continue her speaking. Then, she decides to change the topic of her speaking as the utterance in data 9 to achieve her communicative goals. Based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of this data, the speaker used the topic avoidance strategy.

Data.10

| X | Yes, very support in my/pamili/ (family). |

The trouble source of the data 10 revealed that through the speaker's confirmations on historical data, the speakers have trouble in producing this English word because phonological features of her first language interfere with the production of these words. The interference is the pronouncing of the word "pamili" for family. Based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of this data, the speaker used the Interlingual

transfer strategy (phonological features transfer).

Table 16

The type of communication strategies which are produced by **Elementary Level**

No.	Types of communication strategy	F	Percentage %
1.	formal reduction	15	34.83
2.	code switching	9	20.93
3.	restructuring	3	6.97
4.	message avoidance	2	4.65
5.	topic avoidance	1	2.32
6.	retrieval strategy	4	9.30
7.	approximation	3	6.97
8.	repetition of received message	2	4.65
9.	Interlingual transfer of phonological features of Interlanguage (IL) strategy.	4	9.30
	Total	43	100

This table indicates that the formal reduction strategy is the strategy that is used most frequently by the elementary students. This strategy is then followed in turn by code-switching strategy, retrieval strategy, restructuring strategy, approximation, Interlingual transfer, message avoidance, topic avoidance.

(b**) Intermediate Level**

The Utterances Data of Intermediate Level

Data. 1

X	Have you seen er.er Pengumuman.

In this utterance, the speaker covers the Indonesian word "pengumuman" to the target language without recalling the English word for "pengumuman." This utterance is a formal reduction strategy.

(pengumuman is Indonesian word for announcement)

Data.2

X	Don't you get her sign for the second consultant?
Y	er.. er.. *she not give*

The trouble source of these data can be seen in the speaker's hesitation. In this data, the speaker uses filled pauses in the utterance "y." This is indicated that there is trouble faced by the speaker to produce the utterance. Another indicator is from the speakers' confirmations on his utterances, and the speaker informed that she could not control the use of the grammatical rule in communicating English. In this utterance, the speaker should use auxiliary "does" to state the negative sentence. The type of communication strategy of data is formal reduction strategies.

Data.3

X	*Buf my second consultant not yet sign because may be still there Problem with my er..er..skripsi (skripsi is Indonesian for "thesis") must be better.*

In this utterance, the speaker directly transferred the Indonesian word "skripsi" to the target language without translating into English. It this data, the respondent confirmed if she does not have the English word for "skripsi," so she switches the word "skripsi" into the target language. The type of strategy is a code-switching strategy.

Data.4

X	in my second consultant er... er... in my second consultant I hear many suggestions

In this utterance, the speaker is retrieving the idea, which is used to complete the utterance "in my second consultant." The analysis of this utterance showed that the repetition of the phrase " my second consultant," which is followed by the constructed idea, "I hear many suggestions." Thus, the type of communication strategy is the retrieval strategy.

Data.5

X	can you tell me what type er... may be like instrument or typical.

In this utterance, the speaker is trying to describe the research method by using the word instrument or typical. The type of strategy is circumlocution.

Data.6

X	Because er... he is very discipline erm..And many suggestions, and er……. (finish)

In the data 6, speakers lose words or ideas in completing this utterance. Thus, the speaker likes canceling the utterance rather than making a mistake. Based on the analysis, we can say that they use a message avoidance strategy in communicating the goal of communication.

Data.7

X	*So you - er.., where is you do your experiment?*

In the utterance of data 7, the speaker does not use the right auxiliary verb is in producing interrogative form. The type of communication strategy is a formal reduction strategy.

Data.8

X	*What is er ... what do you prepare, do you prepare anything for final test?*

In data 8, the speaker cannot complete the question of what do you prepare....?, and then, the speaker restructures the question as to do you prepare anything for the final test? Thus, the type of strategy is restructuring.

Data.9

	1) just may be - / just maybe practice my English speaking

The repetition of utterance " just maybe" indicates that there is a process in retrieving ideas or words. The type of strategy is a retrieval strategy.

Data.10

X	*This this is event always happen er.er..erm in the final test*

In the data.10, the speaker does not find the appropriate English word for Indonesian word "kejadian" in this context, then, the speaker tries to use the word event which he believes that the other interlocutor can accept his meaning, and however the speaker here realizes that the use word event is incorrect in this context. In the analytical framework, the speaker used the approximation strategy.   Note: The word "kejadian" is Indonesian for the event.

Data.11.

X	*There are some several clever students but their marks/ (NV)*

In the utterance of data.11, the speaker does not possess some words to continue her utterance, so she uses her mime in telling her meaning. The type of this strategy is a mime/gesture strategy. In this type of strategy, the speaker produces language in nonverbal communication (a language which is produced as mime or gesture) to state her particular meaning. Then, in indicating the strategy, the researcher uses an aid, a handy cam, to identify the type of speaker's strategy where this handy cam can give information about the speakers' data (especially mime/gesture) visually to the researcher.

Data.12

X	I think I am not lazy but may be	/ just always practice my English

In the utterance of data.12, the speaker loses words or ideas to continue his speaking, and then she cancels to change to another topic such as / just always practice my English. Thus, the type of communication strategy is topic avoidance.

Table

The type of communication strategies which are produced by Intermediate level of English of Tertiary Students in Parepare

No.	Types of communication strategy	Frequency	Rate Percentage I
1.	formal reduction	2	6.9
2.	code switching	6	20.7
3.	restructuring	3	10.3
4.	message avoidance	6	20.7
5.	topic avoidance	1	3.5
6.	retrieval strategy	8	27.6
7.	approximation	1	3.5
8.	Circumlocution	1	3.5
9.	facial expression (mime/gesture)	1	3.5
	Total	29	100

In table 3, we can see that the speaker in intermediate level used 2 (6.9%) formal reduction strategy, 6 (20.7%) code-switching strategy and message avoidance, 3 (10.3%) restructuring strategy, 8 (27.6%) retrieval strategy, and 1 (3.5%) topic avoidance, approximation, and facial expression (mime) strategy.

The type of communication strategy that was most frequently used by the intermediate level was retrieval strategy, followed by code-switching and message avoidance strategies. Topic avoidance, approximation, circumlocution, and facial expression strategies were also used by intermediate level students.

(c) Advanced Level

The Utterance of Advanced Level

Data.1

X	Just now, you said that, you didn't - - didn't do your assignment

In the data .1 we can see the speaker does repetition of the segment utterance didn't which showed that there is a process of retrieving idea, and then we can see the result of the retrieving idea is do your assignment Based on the analytical framework of this research which is supported by the analysis of these data, the speaker used retrieval strategy.

Data.2

X	I meant, when lecturer ask to us to find topics such as may be er ....(finished)

In this utterance, the speaker does not have any idea to continue her speaking. It seemed that the speaker confirms that he can not finish his message there because he loses some ideas. It means that the speaker does not have some ideas in finishing the utterance. Based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of these data, the speaker used a message avoidance strategy.

Data.3

S	"did you bring..... (NV)

In data 3, the speaker does not have the word "cassette" at that moment. So the speaker uses nonverbal language (communication by moving part of the body without using utterances)

to state her particular meaning. Then, based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of the data, the speaker uses a gesture/ mime strategy.

Data.4

Learner1: Why did you not come *yesterday?*

X	Yesterday!, why did you come yesterday. Erm...I am very busy i have to teach my student at Junior high school.

In this utterance, the speaker needs the time to recall or construct an idea " Erm...I am very busy. I have to teach my students at Junior high." The type of communication strategy used by the speaker is the repetition of a received message strategy.

Data.5

X	*I want to erm... erm... I have just to say mr.Ammang about my idea.*

In the utterance of data .5, the speaker seems to have a problem in finishing his utterance because she is not supported with some ideas, then she decides to reconstruct her utterances as I just said to Mr. Ammang about my idea in expressing her meaning. Based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of these data, the speaker uses a restructuring strategy.

Data.6

X	I study here, not for any. Er....there are so much my friend here..

In this data.6, the speaker losses of words or idea to continue her utterance, then, she cancels to change to another topic such as there is so much my friend here. Based on the analytical framework of this research, which is supported by the analysis of data, the speaker used the topic avoidance strategy.

Data.7

X	I remember one program about er.er..'Sunatan massal"

The phrase "sunnatan massal" is transferred directly by the speaker to the target language without translating into English. The respondents confirm it on the table of retrospective data, which states that he does not know the English phrase for sunatan massal, so she switches the phrase sunatan massal into the target language in communicating to continue his speaking. The type of strategy is code-switching.

Data.8

X	Er....Calon two er...candidate two not "**apa**" … (The word "**apa**" is Indonesian for **"how to say"**)

In the same utterance, the speaker looks confused to produce ideas after the segment utterance candidate two not.., so she looks for help to her interlocutor by saying the word "apa." It is indicated on the response of her interlocutor with saying can not accept. The type of strategy is cooperative or asking for help.

Data.9

	You must "tiba disana" come there, the first you must er.er.. "apa lagi situasi lapangan".

In this same utterance, the speaker also used asking for help strategy by asking "apa lagi situasi lapangan. The type of strategy is asking for a cooperative help strategy. ?"Note: (what to say is the English for situasi lapangan)

Table 18
The Type of Communication Strategy Used by Advanced Level

No.	Types of communication strategy	Frequency	percentage
1.	code switching	7	26.92
2.	Restructuring	4	15.38
3.	message avoidance	3	11.54
4.	topic avoidance	2	7.69
5.	Retrieval strategy	1	3.85
6.	Approximation	3	11.54
7.	Mime/Gesture	2	7.60
8.	Repetition of received message	1	3.85
9.	Asking for help / cooperative	3	11.54
	Total	26	100

In advance level, the researcher found some types of a strategy used by Indonesian EFL learners such as code-switching, restructuring, message avoidance, topic avoidance, retrieval, approximation, mime, repetition, and asking for help strategy. The communication strategy that is most frequently used by the intermediate level is the code-switching strategy followed by restructuring, gesture, retrieval, and repetition of a received message. The retrieval strategy and repetition of the received message are uttered least by the intermediate level students.

(b) Types of Communication Strategies Used by Three Levels; Elementary, Intermediate, Advanced

After analyzing the speech production of the three levels of language competence, the researcher finds twelve (12) types of communication strategies that are used by the speakers in their verbal interaction. These types of strategies captured that the lower language competence of learners has the more strategies they use to communicate.

Table 19 Communication Strategies used by

the Three Level Language Competence

No.	Types of communication strategy	ELEMENTARY LEVEL		INTERMEDIATE LEVEL		ADVANCE LEVVEL	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1.	Formal reduction	15	34.83	2	6.9	_	_
2.	Code-switching	9	20.93	6	20.7	7	26.92
3.	Restructuring	3	6.97	3	10.3	4	15.38
4.	Message avoidance	2	4.65	6	20.7	3	11.54
5.	Topic avoidance	1	2.32	1	3.5	2	7.69
6.	Retrieval strategy	4	9.30	8	27.6	1	3.85
7.	Approximation	3	6.97	1	3.5	3	11.54
8.	Repetition of received message	2	4.65	_	_	1	3.85

No	Strategy						
9	Asking for help /cooperative	–	–	–	–	3	11.54
10	Mime/ Gesture	–	–	1	3.5	2	7.60
11	Circumlocution	–	–	1	3.5	–	–
12	Interlingual transfer of phonological features of Interlanguage (IL) strategy.	4	9.30	–	–	–	–
	Total	43		29		26	

The table 19 revealed Indonesian EFL learners among the three-level of language competence; elementary, intermediate, advance used Code-switching, formal reduction, retrieval strategy, message avoidance, restructuring, approximation, topic avoidance, Interlingual transfer, asking for help, repetition of coming message, mime, and circumlocution.

An additional finding is the type strategies used by EFL learners, which are different from the lower level to a higher level of language competence. One reason for the language used is more enjoyable to do communication in the target language with various communication strategies; even the learner lacked communicative competence. Sato et al., (2019) stated that language users attempt to use communication strategies to have a mutual understanding even they have low proficiency. Furthermore, Georgieva (2009) concluded from some results of EFL research, which found that Communication strategies are not necessarily helpful for low proficiency language learners in the classroom setting because communication strategies become more useful to the learner in the future use of intercultural communication.

This research also found that the formal reduction strategies are the most useful in the two-level competences; elementary and intermediate. In the analysis of speaker production, both elementary and intermediate level revealed that the speaker tent to use reduction of formal language because they were missing of grammatical competence. Wei (2011) gave a support reaction to this finding, who then assumed that the language user tent to use formal reduction strategies the reasons the language user wants to avoid the linguistic mistake. Furthermore, Wei stated that some language users believe that if

the linguistic correctness of their production determines successful communication. We can also get information on table 19; the use of formal reduction strategy is not employed by the language user who has high linguistic competence in this research.

The second frequency use is the code-switching strategy. Based on the analysis data in the three-level above seemed the learner is not able to produce the English word or phrases to communicate his/her communication; therefore, the learners thrive to maintain the communication by switching the target languages' system to the native language.

In this project, the repetition of the message coming (confirmation strategy) only performed by the students at the advanced level and elementary level. The repetition of the message coming strategy also is not discussed so far by the previous experts of communication strategy. How do Indonesians learners employ a repetition message strategy? It illustrated in the chronological order of repetition message coming strategy in the following figures 1, 2 & 3. Lin (2007) & Lumen (2019) agreed that if encoding and decoding of utterance and meaning process is not always the success of what the receiver hears. In this example, Lumen gives one example: if the speaker says one utterance, the listener may hear the words in the sentence correctly, but he/she gets misunderstood of the meaning of the next utterance. The misunderstood may happen when the receiver is missing some of what the sender says due to the different appearances between the sender and the speaker. The trouble maker of this phenomenon called noise (Lumen, 2019).
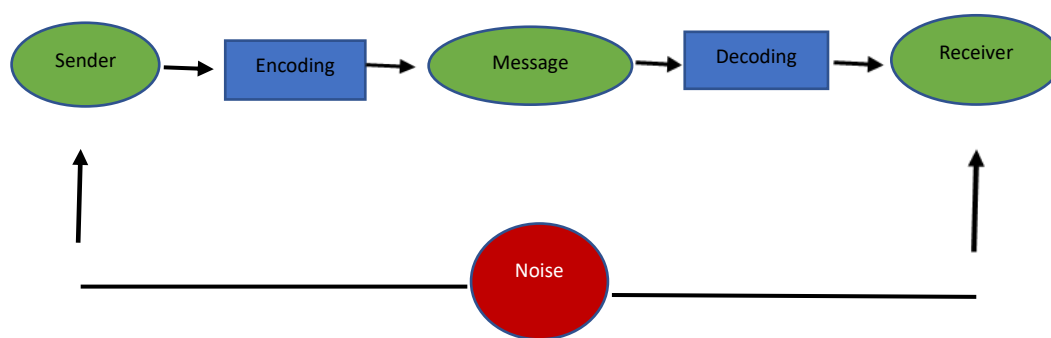

Figure 1. First chronological order of repetition of message coming strategy

receiver does not understand what the sender says; the receiver says "wait," are you saying this? This is called feedback.
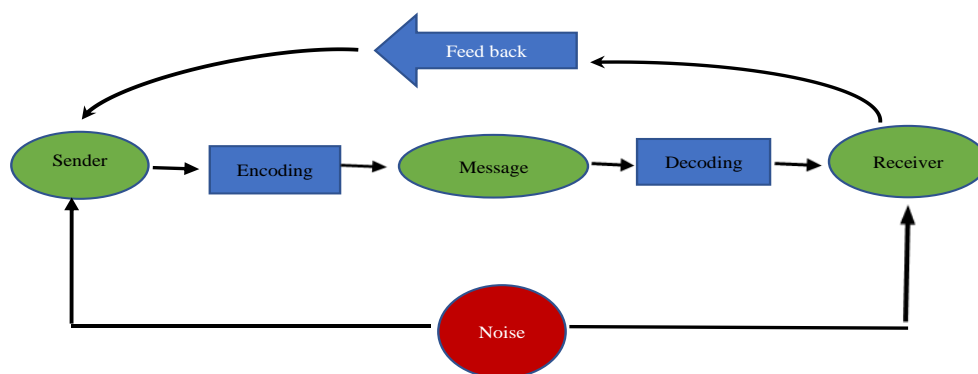
Figure 2. second chronological order of repetition of message coming strategy

At this point, when the sender seems ready to accept feedback; so, the receiver employs the repetition of the message coming as feedback to clarify the utterance from the sender. This communication process is figured in the following picture.
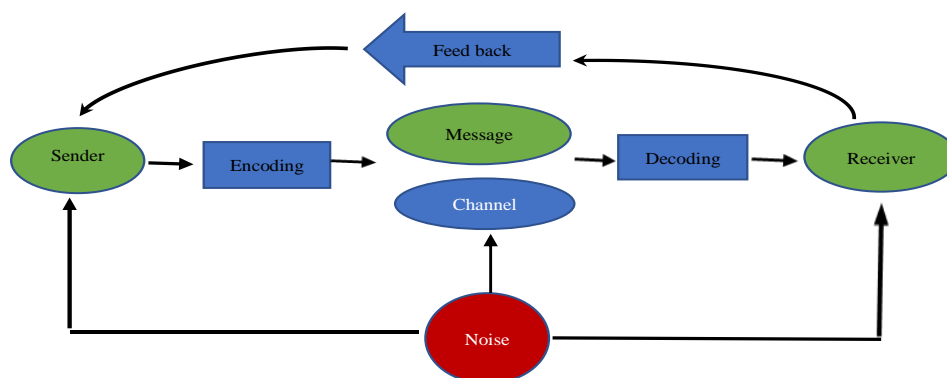

Figure 3. Execution of repetition of message strategy

Conclusion

Based on the findings and discussion in the previous chapter, the writer has come to the following conclusions;

The Indonesian EFL learners employed thirteen (12) Types of communication strategies in communicating English. These strategies are a formal reduction, code-switching, restructuring, message avoidance, topic avoidance, retrieval strategies, asking for help (cooperative) strategies, approximation, repetition of coming information, gesture/ mime,

interlingual transfer, circumlocution strategy. The source of the problem of making these strategies is dominantly caused by the lack of English linguistic features (Chandra & Hayati, 2017). Almost the participant initiated to manipulate the language, situation, and context to achieve the goal of communication (Yashima et al., 2018); it is because they do not share the grammar knowledge, and vocabulary mastery, (Viafara, 2016; Nikbakht & Boshrabadi, 2015). It seems reducing the grammar role of the sentence, and appropriated word is a very popular alternative strategy to gain the goal of communication (Intriago et al., 2016); (Sila et al., 2015).

The students of elementary level used nine types of strategies, namely formal reduction, code-switching, restructuring, message avoidance, topic avoidance, retrieval strategy, approximation, repetition of a received message, interlingual transfer strategies. The students of intermediate level used nine types of strategies, namely formal reduction, code-switching, restructuring, message avoidance, topic avoidance, retrieval strategy, approximation, circumlocution, and gesture/mime strategies. The students at the advanced level used nine types of strategy, namely code-switching, restructuring, message avoidance, topic avoidance, retrieval strategy, approximation, gesture/mime, repetition of a received message, and asking for help or cooperative strategies.

Repetition of the received message (confirming the message) is the strategy, which employed by the students to confirm or to make sure the physical construction of the utterance from the sender of the utterance (Goffman, 1989). Formally, Indonesian learners used the repetition message strategy if the idea from the sender seems not to be clear to understand by the receiver, (Nurwahyuningsih & Mahmud, 2015); (Aleksius & Saukah, 2018). This behavioral communication was issued by (Hua et al., 2012); Tarone (1981), who stated that the speaker initiated to manipulate the language if the message seems not to be clear to the speaker; in order to have a clear form and meaning of the utterance; by this condition, the speaker frequently repeat the utterance from other interlocutors (Kobayashi & Hirose, 1995).

As the summary of the operational strategy revealed that the highest frequency of using communication strategies occurs at the elementary level, followed by the intermediate level (Maldonado, 2016). The occurrences of the communication strategies are mostly caused by the insufficiency of grammar competence and the lack of vocabulary mastery (Alqahtani, 2016)(Alqahtani, 2016).

Recommendations and Pedagogical Implication

The report of this research recommended the teacher to have critical thinking on expanding the teaching material or methodology for speaking courses (Bonney, 2015). The report of this research recommended the teacher to have critical thinking on expanding the teaching material or methodology for speaking courses (Briggs, 2013). Therefore, communication strategies issue of speaking course will be more valuable for the teacher and the student in achieving the academic prestige. (Prozesky, 2000).

Tarone 1980, Færch & Kasper (1983), Martínez-Adrián et al. (2019), (Ellis, 1985) Stern (1983) are senior researchers in the communication strategies study. They have many things about their research finding, which has relation to the field of communication strategies, for example, views of communication strategies classification and criterion of language production lead to communication strategies. These expert's findings become a property for this current research to enhance the critical thinking of the English practitioner such as lecturer, teacher, and curriculum designer to provide an appropriate strategy and material in teaching English speaking, especially in the classroom setting.

All the researchers' classifications of communication strategy have their advantages and disadvantages; therefore, they provide an excellent opportunity for further study. For the being time, Indonesian EFL learners are frequently communicating English either in the classroom or out of the classroom setting to promote their competences and their identity. Therefore, in improving the speaking ability, the lecturer of English of Parepare universities is suggested to design the Teaching method of speaking in which the materials concern with communication strategies. Besides, the tertiary students of English in Parepare-Indonesia are offered to learn from the finding of this research, which finds that the speaker who has a high level of English proficiency, he or she does not need many strategies in communicating English.,(Savignon, 2018). In other words, the students who want to be successful in communicating English, he or she should have an excellent competence of communication which is more requested in linguistic competences.

References

Aleksius, M., & Saukah, A. (2018). Other-Initiated Repair Strategies in Solving Understanding Problems in EFL Learners Conversations. *Journal of Education and Learning (EduLearn)*, *12*(1), 105. https://doi.org/10.11591/edulearn.v12i1.7530

Alqahtani, M. (2016). The importance of vocabulary in language learning and how to be taught. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, *III*(3), 21–34. https://doi.org/10.20472/te.2015.3.3.002

Archibald, L. M. D. (2017). Working memory and language learning: A review. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, *33*(1), 5–17. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265659016654206

Armstrong, E., & Ferguson, A. (2010). Language, meaning, context, and functional communication. *Aphasiology*, *24*(4), 480–496. https://doi.org/10.1080/02687030902775157

Atma, N. (2018). Teachers' Role in Reducing Students' English Speaking Anxiety Based on Students' Perspectives. *The Asian EFL Journal July 2018 Volume 20, Issue 7*, *20*(7), 42–52. Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/wp-content/... � PDF file

Bonney, K. M. (2015). Case study teaching method improves student performance. *Journal of Microbiology and Biology Education*, *16*(1), 21–28. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/jmbe.v16i1.846

Chandra, Julian & Hayati, amal. (2017). *Using Speaking Worksheets in Enhancing Accuracy in EFL A dults ' Spoken English*. (November), 23–24.

Chubko. (2017). *The Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles January 2017 Issue 97*. (97), 1–138. Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/monthly-journals/2017-teaching-articles

Derakshan, A. &, & Karimi, E. (2015). The interference of first language and second language acquisition. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *5*(10), 2112–2117. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0510.19

Edi. (2018). Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence Model for English Students in Indonesia University Context. *Asian EFL Journal*, *20*(4), 174–198. Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Eisenchlas, S. A. (2009). Conceptualizing "communication" in second language acquisition. *Australian Journal of Linguistics*, *29*(1), 45–58. https://doi.org/10.1080/07268600802516376

Ellis, R. (1985). Principles of Instructed Learning. *Asian EFL Journal*.

Femi, A. F. (2014). The Impact of Communication on Workers' Performance in Selected Organisations in Lagos State, Nigeria. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *19*(8), 75–82. https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-19827582

Goffman, E. (1989). Replies and responses. *The Journal of British Studies*, *28*(2), b1–b9. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0021937100024837

Hamouda, A. (2012). An Exploration of Causes of Saudi Students' Reluctance to Participate in the English Language Classroom. *International Journal of English Language Education*, *1*(1). https://doi.org/10.5296/ijele.v1i1.2652

Hartono, H. (2016). Communicative Competence Assessment for Teachers of Bilingual Schools in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal*, *2016*(91), 46–62. Retrieved from asian-efl-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/pdf/AEJ TA 91 April 2016.pdf

Hersh, M. (2013). Deafblind people, communication, independence, and isolation. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, *18*(4), 446–463. https://doi.org/10.1093/deafed/ent022

Hosni, S. Al. (2004). Speaking Difficulties Encountered by Young EFL Learner. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL)*, *2*(6), 22–30. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270340628_Speaking_Difficulties_Encountered_by_Young_EFL_Learners

Hua, T. K., Nor, N. F. M., & Jaradat, M. N. (2012). Communication strategies among EFL students - An examination of frequency of use and types of strategies used. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, *12*(3), 831–848. Retrieved from https://ukm.pure.elsevier.com/en/publications/communication-strategies-among-efl-students-an-examination-of-fre

Intriago, E., Villafuerte, J. S., Morales Jaramillo, M. A., Lema, A., & Echeverria, J. (2016). Google apps para el desarrollo de comunidades de aprendizaje: fortalecimiento de habilidades en el idioma inglés en un ambiente universitario. *AtoZ: Novas Práticas Em Informação e Conhecimento*, *5*(1), 21. https://doi.org/10.5380/atoz.v5i1.45170

Jahbel, K. (2019). Communication Difficulties Faced By Undergraduate Libyan Students. *KnE Social Sciences*, *3*(10), 147. https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v3i10.3896

Jr., R. M. (2019). Dominance Construction in Monologic Political Discourse Based on Selected

Public Speeches of President Rodrigo Roa Duterte. *The Asian EFL Journal*, *23*(3). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Kasbi, S., & Elahi Shirvan, M. (2017). Ecological understanding of foreign language speaking anxiety: emerging patterns and dynamic systems. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, *2*(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-017-0026-y

Kleinman, A. M. (1977). Depression, somatization and the "new cross-cultural psychiatry." *Social Science and Medicine*, *11*(1), 3–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/0037-7856(77)90138-X

Kobayashi, H., & Hirose, K. (1995). Japanese learners' repetition in conversation in relation to English proficiency level. *JALT Journal*, *17*(1), 53–73.

Latifa, A., Nur, R. &, & Amaluddin. (2019). *Utilizing Google Classroom Application to Teach Speaking to Indonesian EFL Learner*. Asian EFL Journal, 2016*24*(4). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Lazutina, T. V., & Lazutin, N. K. (2015). The language of music as a specific semiotic structure. *Asian Social Science*, *11*(7), 201–207. https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v11n7p201

Littlewood, W. (2013). Developing a Context-Sensitive Pedagogy for Communication-Oriented Language Teaching. *English Teaching*, *68*(3), 3–25. https://doi.org/10.15858/engtea.68.3.201309.3

Lumen, (2019). *The Process of Communication*, https://courses.lumenlearning.com/wm-organizationalbehavior/chapter/the-process-of-communication/

Maldonado, M. R. (2016). Communication strategies used by different level L2 English learners in oral interaction*. *Revista Signos*, *49*(90), 71–93. https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-09342016000100004

Martínez-Adrián, M., Gallardo-del-Puerto, F., & Basterrechea, M. (2019). On self-reported use of communication strategies by CLIL learners in primary education. *Language Teaching Research*, *23*(1), 39–57. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817722054

Mei, A., & Nathalang, S. S. (2010). Use of Communication Strategies by Chinese EFL Learners. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (Foreign Language Teaching & Research Press)*, *33*(3), 110–125. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eue&AN=56551212&site=ehost-live

Mirzaei, A. (2012). Exploring the Use of Oral Communication Strategies by (Non) Fluent L2 Speakers. *The Journal of Asia Tefl*, *9*(3), 131–156. Retrieved from journal.asiatefl.org/main/main.php?inx_journals=33&inx_contents=92&main=1&sub=2 &submode=3&PageMode=JournalView&s_title=Exploring_the_Use_of_Oral_Commun ication_Strategies_by_(Non)Fluent_L2_Speakers

Nemati, A. (2010). Enhancing Long-term Retention by Memory Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *Spring*, *7*(1), 171–195. Retrieved from www.asiatefl.org/main/download_pdf.php?i=185&c=1419308389

Nikbakht, E., & Boshrabadi, A. M. (2015). Analysing the Potential of Social Networking Sites on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Mastery: A Situated-learning Approach. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *5*(8), 1635. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0508.13

Nurwahyuningsih, P., & Mahmud, M. (2015). *ELT students ' communication strategies in advanced speaking classroom activities*. Retrieved from http://eprints.unm.ac.id/13222/1/%5BFIX%5D Artikel.pdf

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies_ What Every Teacher Should Know*. Retrieved from https://trove.nla.gov.au/work/17080019

Prozesky, D. R. (2000). Communication and effective teaching. *Journal of Community Eye Health*, *13*(35), 44–45. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC1705977/pdf/jceh_13_35_044.pdf

Sabri Thabit Saleh Ahmed & Sunil V. Pawar. (2018). A Study of Communication Strategies Employed by Radfan College EFL Students in their Classroom Interactions. *New Academia: An International Journal of English Language, Literature and Literary Theory*, *7*(3), 163–176. https://doi.org/https://www.researchgate.net/publication/326534502_A_Study_of_Com munication_Strategies_Employed_by_Radfan_College_EFL_Students_in_their_Classro om_Interactions

Sato, T., Yujobo, Y. J., Okada, T., & Ogane, E. (2019). Communication strategies employed by low-proficiency users: Possibilities for ELF-informed pedagogy. *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*, *8*(1), 9–35. https://doi.org/10.1515/jelf-2019-2003

Savignon, S. J. (2018). Communicative Competence Framing the Issue Making the Case. *The*

TESOL Encyclopedia of English Language Teaching, 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0047

Sila Ahmad, K., Sudweeks, F., & Armarego, J. (2015). Learning English Vocabulary in a Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) Environment: A Sociocultural Study of Migrant Women. *Interdisciplinary Journal of E-Skills and Lifelong Learning*, *11*, 025–045. https://doi.org/10.28945/2202

Tarone. (1983). Teaching Strategic Competence in the foreign Language Classroom. *Eric*, *4*, 121–130. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED278234.pdf

Tarvin, L. D. (2014). *Communicative Competence: Its Definition , Connection to Teaching , and Relationship with Interactional Competence*. (November), 38. https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.3214.2807

Ting, S.-H., Marzuki, E., Chuah, K.-M., Misieng, J., & Jerome, C. (2017). Employers' Views on Importance of English Proficiency and Communication Skill for Employability in Malaysia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *7*(2), 77. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v7i2.8132

Viafara, J. J. (2016). "I'm Missing Something": (Non) Nativeness in Prospective Teachers as Spanish and English Speakers. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, *18*(2), 11. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n2.9477

Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2018). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research*, *22*(1), 115–137. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816657851

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL   The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Developing English for Housekeeping Materials for Students of Sun Lingua College Singaraja-Bali

I Gede Budasi

Fakultas Bahasa dan Seni Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Singaraja-Bali-Indonesia

email: yaysurya8@yahoo.com

I Wayan Agus Anggayana

Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia, Indonesia

email: anggayana28@gmail.com

Bio-Profiles:

I Gede Budasi is a lecturer of English at the English Education of FBS Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha-Singaraja-Bali- Indonesia. .He hold a Bachelor Degree in Applied Linguistics at FKIP Universitas Undayana Bali. He completed his Post Graduate Diploma in Applied Linguistic at RELC Singapore, Master Program at TESOL Program of University of South Australia. He also has a Doctorate degree on Linguistic study from FIB Universitas Gajamada- Java Indonesia. His research interest is on ESP and Historical Linguistics.

I Wayan Agus Anggayana is a Lecturer in Akademi Komunitas Manajemen Perhotelan Indonesia at Food and Beverage Products Department and a doctoral student at Udayana University. Current research interests include Discourse analysis, Phonology, Morphology, Second Language Acquisition, Historical Linguistic Comparatives, English for Specific Purposes. He can be reached at anggayana28@gmail.com

Abstract

This study aimed at describing the English for Housekeeping materials needed by housekeeping students of Sun Lingua College-Singaraja-Bali, describing how the materials were developed, and identifying the quality they are developed. This research design was in the form of research and development model suggested by Hannafin and Peck (2014), it comprised need assessment, design and development which were followed by the evaluation and revision of each step. The instruments used were questionnaires, interview guides,

document analysis, and checklist. The findings of this study show that there were 12 topics needed to be developed. The topics include; *welcoming and greeting guests, introducing self and others, explaining hotel facilities and services, explaining room facilities, dealing with guests' request, offering laundry services, giving directions inside a hotel building, giving directions to attracting places, communicating by phone, handling complaints about housekeeping, writing a cover letter and resume,* and *dealing with job interviews.* The materials were designed by following the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) material design suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (2008) involving *input, content focus, language focus,* and *task.* Since English for Housekeeping is a part of ESP that is under English for Occupational Purposes, the effectiveness of the developed materials was evaluated using the criteria of good ESP materials suggested by Litz (2005), Hutchinson and Waters (2008), and Tomlinson (2009). After gaining the scores from the expert judges, the data then was calculated by using the formula proposed by Nurkancana and Sunartana (2011). The quality of the developed materials was categorized as good materials. Thus, it can be used as the source for English learning by the prospective housekeeping students of the college.

Keywords: English Learning Materials, ESP, English for Housekeeping

Introduction

Bali Island has developed into one of the world's most visited tourist destinations with over one million foreign visitors flying directly to Bali. It is not surprising that tourism industry became the main economic sector in this island in which most of people work in Bali tourism industry. It cannot be denied that the development of human resources has been very vital to make the industry grow bigger and better. According to Zahedpisheh, Bakar, and Saffari (2017), those who work in tourism and hospitality industry are entirely and highly aware of the importance of language proficiency and they need to have good command of English in their workplaces.

In tourism and hospitality industry, English is taught to achieve specific language skills in real situations which allow the students to use English in their work places, or to comprehend English discourse which are strongly related to their areas of interest and specialization. English is the most preferred foreign language, compared to French, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese, as it plays an important role in such areas as employment, education, and international communication (Boun, 2017).

English is a second language in all these categories of schools and the systems of school education (Meganathan, 2015). The teaching of English for tourism belongs to English for Specific Purposes (ESP). According to Hutchinson and Waters (2008), ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions concerning contents and methods are normally based on the learner's reasons for learning.

In addition, Hans and Hans (2015) state that the term 'specific' in ESP refers to the specific purposes for learning English. Students approach the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to them. Learning a language which is not spoken in the home environment takes more time, energy and finances compared to learning the language in a native speaking environment (Ibrayeva & Fuller, 2014). Speaking skills for now is considered important for researchers. This is based on the needs of stakeholders engaged in the field of tourism hospitality hotels, restaurants, travel services expect employees not only to speak, but are expected to speak properly and correctly in accordance with English grammar (Anggayana & Sari, 2018).

In Bali, there are many hotels and tourism training centers that provide training and education to those who want to get opportunity working in the tourism industry. Sun Lingua College (SLC) Singaraja is one of those institutions. It educates high school graduates to have competencies which are connected or related to the tourism industry. Housekeeping is one of the majors at the college which is included in Room and Division Department. In order to be able to meet the students' need, the English instructors of the college are required to equip themselves with the knowledge of syllabus design which based on the competencies assigned by the Department of Employment through a national standard working competence called *SKKNI* which stands for *Standar Kompetensi Kerja Nasional Indonesia* and learning materials which meet students' background, needs, and interests.

In fact, based on the prior interview done to an ESP instructor of Housekeeping Department at the institution, it was found that there was no developed book for English for housekeeping. The instructor added that to get a material for housekeeping, she took some materials from the internet and other sources. It could be seen that the material resources for its housekeeping students were limited. Based on the current condition at this center, developing materials for the students of Housekeeping Department is highly demanded.

This current study aimed at 1) describing the English for Housekeeping materials needed by housekeeping students of SLC Singaraja, 2) describing how the materials were developed, and 3) identifying the quality of the developed materials.

Literature Review

This current study was underlined by some theories related to the developing of English learning materials. Besides underlining by theories, this was also grounded by some previous researches in ESP learning.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (2008), ESP is an approach rather than a product to language teaching in which all decisions such as contents and methods are based on learners' reasons for learning. In the process of learning, learners have different needs and interests, which influence their motivation to learn. Therefore, they affect the effectiveness of their learning. The clear relevance of the English course to their needs would increase the learners' motivation and thereby, make learning better and faster.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (2008) state that ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learners and makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves. It is also centered on the language, skills, discourse, and genres appropriate to these activities.

In conducting an ESP lesson or developing a learning material, lecturers or teachers need to consider several things. Hutchinson and Waters (2008) argue in developing ESP materials, need analysis is the important thing to be done. It is fundamentally a matter of asking questions in order to provide a reasoned basis for the subsequent processes of syllabus design, materials writing and classroom teaching, and evaluation. We need to ask a very wide range of questions: general and specific, theoretical and practical through need analysis.

In developing ESP materials, need analysis (hereafter NA) is used by the ESP researchers and educators to identify their target learners' needs. Hutchinson and Waters (2008) differentiate between two types of needs. The first one is target needs, which refer to what students are required to do in the target situation. Target needs can be further divided into three classes. They are *necessities, lacks,* and *wants*. *Necessities* are the type of need determined by the demands of the target situation, that is, what students have to experience to perform in the target situation. *Lacks* refer to the gap between what students already know and what is needed in the target situation. *Wants* relate to what students feel they need. The second type of needs proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (2008) is learning needs. This typically involves taking into consideration how learners learn. Furthermore, it includes information about learners, reasons for learning, language and the ESP course time and location. Various approaches can be identified to study need analysis. Many scholars suggest that Target Situation Analysis and Present Situation Analysis are the fundamental constituents for analyzing students' language learning need.

The syllabus of housekeeping department at SLC Singaraja is based on National Standard Working Competence for Housekeeping or *SKKNI* (*Standar Kompetensi Kerja Nasional.* It is a formulation of workability that includes the aspect of knowledge, skills, and work attitude of the learners or groups who have to communicate with the English speaking tourists which relates to the implementation of nationally applicable tourism. Speaking is a demanding of the needs of human life. As social beings, humans will communicate with others using language as the main tool (Napitupulu, 2018). It was used as the basis in developing learning materials.

Hutchinson and Waters (2008) identify some principles in developing the materials:

a. The materials provide stimulus for learning. Good materials will, therefore, contain: interesting text, enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities, opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills, content which both learner and teacher can cope with.

b. The materials help to organize the teaching-learning process by providing a path through the complex mass of the language to be learned. Good materials should, therefore, provide clear and coherent unit structure which guide teachers and learners through various activities in such a way as to maximize the chances of learning.

c. The materials embody a view of the nature of language and learning. Materials should, therefore, truly reflect what you think and feel about the learning process.

d. The materials reflect the nature of the learning task. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which both reflects the complexity of the task, yet makes it appear manageable.

e. The materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training, by introducing teachers to new techniques.

f. The materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

Meanwhile, according to Tomlinson (2009), there are sixteen principles of SLA relevant to the development of materials for the teaching of languages:

a. The materials should achieve impact.

b. The materials should help learners to feel at ease.

c. Materials should help learners to develop confidence.

d. What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful.

e. The materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment.

f. Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught.

g. The materials should expose the learners to language in authentic use.

h. The learners' attention should be drawn to the linguistic features of the input.

i. The materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative competence.

j. The materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.

k. The materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles.

l. The materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes.

m. The materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction.

n. The materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional involvement which stimulate both right and left brain activities.

o. The materials should not rely too much on controlled practice.

p. Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

Further, Hutchinson and Waters (2008) propose the materials design model should provide a coherent framework for the integration of various aspects of learning: *input, content focus, language focus,* and *task*.

a. *Input*: This maybe a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data, depending on the needs in the need analysis.

b. *Content focus*: Language is not an end itself, but a means of conveying information and feelings about something. This means that the aim for the learners is to be able to communicate orally or in written form in genuinely.

c. *Language focus*: Good materials should involve both opportunities for analysis and synthesis. Therefore, in *language focus*, learners have the chance to take language to pieces, study how it works and practice putting it back together again.

d. *Task*: Materials should be designed, therefore, to lead towards a communicative task in which learners use the content and language knowledge they have built up through the unit.

Furthermore, Litz (2005) states that ESP materials can be in form of a developed book that function as an aid in teaching English as for Specific Purposes and the criteria for developed book evaluation are: the developed book package, layout and design, activities and tasks, skills, language type and content, and subject and content.

There have been numerous researchers conducted a research related to ESP. One of them was Saragih (2014). He carried out research concerning on designing ESP materials for nursing students and design ESP materials for nurses based on need analysis. Fifty nursing students aged 19-26 at five nursing college in Indonesia, 5 ESP lecturers of different institutions

and 2 Indonesian nurses working in English-speaking countries became participants in this study. In Saragih's study, the results were very significant for designers of ESP of various fields for they reflect the real needs of nursing students.

Kasumajaya, Padmadewi, and Budasi (2015) carried out research in developing English materials for front office course for the students of hotel accommodation at PPLP Dhyana Pura. The study used research and development model proposed by Sugiyono (2010). In analyzing target and learning needs of English for Front Office Course, Hutchinson and Waters' learning centered need analysis framework (2008) was used. Kusumajaya's and the present study used ESP design materials suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (2008) comprising *input, content focus, language focus,* and *tasks.* The findings of Kusumajaya's study showed that there were 11 units of English for Front Office needed to be developed. The quality of the developed product was very good and had met the criteria of material evaluation checklist proposed by McDonough *et al.* (2013).

Meanwhile, Lestari, Budasi, and Putra (2017) conducted research in developing materials for teaching English for housekeeping students at Liberty International College. The study used research and development model proposed by Sugiyono (2010) and followed the model of ESP design proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (2008). The study was limited into the developing the product and expert judgment. The present study also followed the ESP material design suggested by Hutchinson and Waters (2008) and was also limited into the development and evaluation phase. The findings of Lestari *et al.'*s study showed that there were 8 units of English for Housekeeping materials needed to be developed. The topic that developed in Lestari *et al.'*s study was quite similar to the present study since the subject of the study was housekeeping students. The quality of the study was good and had met the criteria material evaluation checklist suggested by McDonough *et al.* (2013).

Research Method

This research was designed in the form of Research and Development (R and D) by following R&D model proposed by Hannafin and Peck (2014). It consists of 3 phases, comprising: 1) need assessment, 2) design, and 3) development/implementation. Twenty housekeeping students were at the range of 18-21 years old, 1 ESP instructor, and 3 housekeepers worked at housekeeping department were involved in this study. Meanwhile, the object of this study was the English for Housekeeping at SLC Singaraja. The research instruments used in this study to collect the data were questionnaires, an interview guide, and documents analysis. The questionnaires contained several aspects: students' background and

English proficiency, the frequency of practicing English outside campus. Then, the second aspects presented some topics gathered from prior interviews and discussions to the ESP instructors of SLC Singaraja. The third aspect included some additional topics that were needed to be added and it was presented in open-ended questions. The questionnaires consisted of thirty-one items. The interview consisted of open and close interview. The content of the interview was related to the material needed for students of housekeeping of the college based on the alumni of the college who have got job at Puri Bagus Hotel, Singaraja. Document analysis focused on SLC profile, its syllabus, its current English for House Keeping Materials, and the instructors' daily and annual report.

The effectiveness of the developed materials was evaluated using the criteria of good ESP materials suggested by Litz (2005), Hutchinson and Waters (2008), and Tomlinson (2009), measured using the criteria good material model suggested by Nurkancana and Sunartana (2011).

Findings and Discussion

This section presents the results of this research and they are related to the 3 research questions of this study. The study found that about 12 topics of learning materials are strongly needed to be developed as the English teaching materials in the housekeeping department of SLC Singaraja-Bali. The 12 topics were developed into 12 units in the developed textbook. Each unit of development consisted of basic competencies, indicators of achievements, *input, content focus, language focus*, and *tasks*. The 12 units existed in the developed book are as follows:

a. *Welcoming and greeting guests*

The first unit was about 'Welcoming and Greeting Guests'. In order to be able to welcome and greet the guests, the relevant language expressions of welcoming and greeting guests were completed in the text.

b. *Introducing self and others*

The second unit was about 'Introducing Self and Others'. In order to be able to introduce self and others, the language expressions of introducing self and others were provided in the text.

c. *Explaining hotel facilities and services*

The title of the third unit was 'Explaining Hotel Facilities and Services'. In order to make the students able to explain the hotel facilities and services, this unit provided with

language focus of giving information about a hotel and the explanation of phrases such as there *is…* and *there are…*

d. *Explaining room facilities*

The title of the fourth unit was 'Explaining Room Facilities'. In this unit, the students were expected to be able to explain the hotel room facilities. Thus, this unit offered *language focus* including imperative sentences.

e. *Dealing with guests' request*

The fifth unit was about 'Dealing with Guests' Request'. The students were expected to be able to tell the language expression of dealing with guests' request. Then, the *language focus* provided the language expression of it.

f. *Offering laundry services*

The unit was 'Offering Laundry Services'. This text was completed with some *language focuses* including useful expressions of offering laundry services.

m. *Giving direction inside a hotel building*

The unit was about 'Giving Directions inside a Hotel Building'. In this case, the text consists of some language expressions which were provided in the text. The expressions include asking and giving simple directions.

g. *Giving direction to attracting places*

The title of the eighth unit was 'Giving Directions to Attracting Places'. The text is completed with some language expressions presented, such as asking and giving directions.

h. *Communicating by phone*

The title of the ninth unit was 'Communicating by Phone'. The text provided students with some language expressions related to telephoning in English.

i. *Complaints about Housekeeping*

The title of the tenth unit was 'Handling Complaints about Housekeeping'. In this case, the text was completed with some expressions of handling complaint and responding to a complaint.

j. *Writing a cover letter and resume*

The unit was about 'Writing a Cover Letter and Resume'. The text was completed with language expressions, such as identifying structures of a cover letter and resume.

k. *Dealing with job interviews*

The twelfth unit was about 'Dealing with Job Interviews'. To be able to answer the job interviews questions, there were language expressions provided including the common job interview questions and answers.

Those topics needed are suggested to include the communication skills and relevant vocabulary, relevant jargons, relevant grammatical aspects, and various activities of the presentation of the materials in the college classrooms activities. In addition, those are the language functions related communicative expressions that might be practiced in their future career in the housekeeping department of hotels. Further, it is expected that each topic being developed should meet courses' objectives, that is, must be according to the needs of housekeeping students of the college. The course objectives being set up must be able to practice the language function and expression related to the whole topics needed. Materials presented in the classroom were needed by the students should also presented in the activities that reflected the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The grammatical points related to the language function and communicative expression should be emphasized, and therefore they should be clearly presented in the developed material and included details explanation. Most students were found to have some problems in the use of grammatical point covered in related language expressions. Therefore, a special part in the developed material focused on discussing language use.

In addition to language use, the developed materials needed were suggested to be completed with special section discussing the contents which are connected to housekeeping. The alumni of the college working in the housekeeping department of the hotels suggested to add the organization chart in the developed materials and present the detail communication chain related to the chart. Each step of communication chain should be explained the relevant language function, communicative expression, jargon, vocabularies. They also explained that information related to the contents are needed by the future students of the college. In relation to this, they also added that the current textbook used in the college does not include this information as the parts of the teaching materials. Therefore, students who graduated in the college experienced some problems in implementing communication chain faced in their job training programs.

The developed materials were also expected to be completed with some examples of dialogues and various games role plays also recommended to be added in the materials. They were believed to reflect real life situation of housekeeping department. It was suggested also to complete the developed materials with four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, each of which was suggested to be presented in various methods.

Based on the explanation above, the topics needed were developed into teaching materials in the forms of textbook. It was designed in the forms of the ESP materials' design model proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (2008). Each topic was developed into one unit.

Therefore, there were 12 units in the developed textbook. Each unit is entitled with the one of the 12 identified topics. In addition, the title of each unit then consisted of *input, content focus, language focus,* and *tasks*. The contents of every *input* in every unit vary from some pictures, dialogues, to some brainstorming questions that should be discussed by the students and the instructor of English for Housekeeping students of the college before other content focus, language focus, and tasks are discuss. The purpose of the presentation of some pictures, dialogues were to brainstorm questions just to open and activate the background knowledge of the students. Following the *input* presentation is *contents focus* which describe information about the topic within the unit. This section provided some information about the topic. Some relevant theories quoted from some printed sources found in marketplace as well as in the internet. From the explanation provide in the developed book, students as the users of the designed text may get some information about the topic including the rule that should be followed when implementing the theories in students' workplaces. After the *content focus* was presented in the developed textbook, it is continued to *the language focus* in which the housekeeping students of the college are expected to learn the grammatical aspects which normally appear in the language functions and their related communicative expressions into pieces and learn how the language works. The explanation of the contents of language focus were taken from some printed material as well as adapted from sources in the internet.

Students were required to understand the *input* and *content focus* as well as *language focus* before the section on *tasks* are presented in the units of the developed materials. The task section consisted of several tasks to be done by students in small-big group discussions. The objective of providing tasks was assess the students' abilities in understanding *input, content focus,* and *language focus* through *task*. The tasks in each topic covered jargon, vocabulary, listening, speaking, reading, and writing exercises.

The topics in the developed materials were quite similar to the research that carried out by Wardhani and Sadtono (2014). However, in their study, the subjects of the study were the students of Tourism Department which had broader scopes. Meanwhile, in the present study, the subjects of study were more specific, namely housekeeping. The findings of the present study also supported the research findings of Kurniadi, Nitiasih, and Batan (2018). They conducted a research about developing e-learning English for Housekeeping material for the hotel accommodation department students. However, the concept of learning was contrasted with the present study, in which the previous study used e-learning as a system of learning due to the problems that found in the need analysis.

The second finding were connected to the development of the learning material. It included the appearance of the developed book. Each unit consisted of a title, *input, content focus, language focus, vocabulary focus, vocabulary task, listening task, speaking task, reading task, writing task, and a review section* which can be elaborated as follows:

a. *Title*

This section shows the title of the unit or topic, basic competency to be achieved, and indicators of achievement.

b. *Input*

The *input* in each sub-topic provided pictures. It also provides several questions as stimulus for activities which help the students to generate ideas related to the topic.

c. *Content focus*

In this section, the students will convey some information related to the topic. It helps the students to generate meaningful communication. The *content focus* in the developed material was represented as reading passages.

d. *Language focus*

The developed material also provided the language focus to enable the students to use language. In *language focus*, the students have the chance to take the language to pieces, study how it works and practice putting it together again.

e. *Vocabulary focus*

This section presented a list of vocabulary that will be taught in the unit. The vocabulary in each sub-topic consisted of vocabulary, part of speech, and pronunciation. The vocabularies and their pronunciation were taken from www.oxforddictionaries.com.

f. *Vocabulary Task*

After the students learn about the vocabulary related to the topic in vocabulary focus, the students also will do the vocabulary tasks. There were several types of vocabulary tasks in the developed material including crossword puzzle, word search activity, matching activity, and write some items to go in each category beginning with the set letter.

g. *Listening Task*

Each sub-topic in the listening task was equipped with an audio. In developing listening audios, the researcher adapted some conversations from developed books related English for Housekeeping and used a Natural Reader 14 application to record them. Then, the audios were burned in a CD (Compact Disk). The listening scripts were also provided at the end of the developed material.

h. *Speaking Task*

There were several types of speaking activities in the developed material such as role-play scenarios, role play cards, practice a conversation in pairs, put the conversation in a correct order, choose the correct words in italics and practice the conversation, and completing a conversation with the words in the box.

i. *Reading Task*

After the students read a reading passage in the content focus, there were also reading activities that had to be done. There were some types of reading activities in the developed material such as true or false, answer some questions, list some vocabulary, and put the sentence into the correct order.

j. *Writing Task*

Writing activities in the developed material are vary. It could be done by the students individually, in pairs or even in group work. In writing section, the students were given some activities such as filling in the blanks, answering the questions, changing the verb into a sentence, writing a conversation with some sentences provided, and completing a conversation with some sentences in the box.

k. *Review Section*

The review section in the developed book was provided at the end of the unit. The students will evaluate and summarize the ideas about the information they have learned in the unit.

The development of the product meets the material design model of Hutchinson and Waters (2008) consisting of various aspects of learning namely *input, content focus, language focus,* and *task*. The *input* maybe a text, dialogue, video-recording, diagram or any piece of communication data, depending on the needs in the need analysis. Thus, the present *input* of the material used some pictures and brainstorming questions. Meanwhile, the *content focus* was presented as reading passages. The language expressions and language grammar were presented as *language focus*. Moreover, the *task* covered four language skills including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Hutchinson and Water (2008) state that materials reflect the nature of the learning task. Materials should try to create a balanced outlook which both reflects the complexity of the task.

The last finding is regarding to the quality of the developed book developed in the study. There were two experts and one practitioner who judged the developed material. It was evaluated by experts who are experts in English for Specific Purposes teaching materials.

To determine the quality of the developed material, the checklists were handout to the experts. The evaluation of the materials on the checklist was based on the criteria of developed

book material evaluation by Litz (2005). After gaining the scores from the expert judges, the data then were calculated by using the formula proposed by Nurkancana and Sunartana (2011). The quality was measured by using the Ideal Mean (Mi) and Ideal Standard Deviation (SDi). Based on the expert judgments scores, the developed book was categorized as a good product since the total score was 336.

Although the material was considered as a good material, there were still some revisions needed in order to make it more effective for teaching in English for Housekeeping.

Conclusion

Based on the previous explanation, the study concludes that the learning materials needed by the housekeeping students of SLC Singaraja consists of 12 main topics of communicative language fuctions. The materials were developed into 12 units. In each unit, there are *basic competencies, indicators of achievements*, *input, content focus, language focus*, and *tasks*. Based on the expert judges who were selected based on a set of criteria, the developed materials are categorized as a good category and therefore higly recommended to be used for the teaching materials for students of housekeeping department of SLC Singaraja which prepares hoteliers working in housekeeping department.

Pedagogical Implication

Considering the success of identification of the students' needs mentioned in the previous section and the success of the developing materials based on the needs, the following are the things that need to be underlined by the management of SLC Singaraja, and its instructors. The management should implement this study's findings, that is, the 12 materials can be used as the alternative of the current syllabus content of English for Houskeeping course in the institution, because it was developed based on the students' needs and it is also the characteristics of ESP courses as suggested by Hutchinson and Water (2008). In addition instructors as the implementator of the syllabus may use this designed book as the core material in teachimg English for Housekeeping in that institution. Additional material however can also be extended by combining the developed materials with the current materials that they can search in the internet.

Moreover, by realizing that the material related to: *welcoming and greeting guests, introducing self and others, explaining hotel facilities and services, explaining room facilities, dealing with guests' request, offering laundry services, giving directions inside a hotel building, giving directions to attracting places, communicating by phone, handling complaints*

about housekeeping, writing a cover letter and resume, and *dealing with job interviews* as the target needs in their study of English for Housekeeping, the students can explore more in the relevant books or materials available in the internet by themselves. After exploring those topics, the instructors can invite practitioners to their classroom in order to give examples and discuss the things which are relevant to the above-mentioned topics with the students. Lastly, before doing the real job-training, the students can conduct an observation in their pre-job training in the nearby hotel industry. By this, students mentally may prepare themselves and be confident during their real job-training program.

References

Anggayana, I. W. A., & Sari, N. L. K. J. P. (2018). Kemampuan Berbicara Bahasa Inggris Mahasiswa Akomodasi Perhotelan: sebuah Kajian Fonologi. Jurnal Manajemen Pelayanan Hotel, 1(1), 8-14.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St. John, M. J. (2008). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hannafin, M. J., & Peck, L. L. (2014). The Design Development and Education of Instructional Software. In M. Tegeh, I. N. Jampel, & K. Pudjawan, *Model Penelitian Pengembangan* . Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu.

Hans, A., & Hans, E. (2015). A Comparative Study of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English as a Second Language (ESL) Programs. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature, 3* (11), 26-31.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (2008). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasumajaya, I. D. M. B., Padmadewi, N. N. & Budasi, I. G., (2015). *Developing English Materials for Front Office Course for the Students of Hotel Accommodation of PPLP Dhyana Pura.* Ganesha University of Education.

Kurniadi, N., Nitiasih, P. K., & Batan, G. (2018). Developing E-learning English for Housekeeping Material for the Hotel Accommodation Departments Students of Grade Eleven at SMKN 2 Singaraja. *e-Journal Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha.* 1-8.

Lestari, D. A. M., Budasi, I. G. & Putra, I. N. A. J. (2017). *Developing Supplementary English Materials for Housekeeping Course at Liberty International College.* Ganesha University of Education.

McDonough, J., & Shaw, C., & Mashura, H. (2013). Materials and methods in ELT: A teacher guide (3rd ed). London: Blackwell

Nurkancana, W., & Sunartana, P. (2011). *Evaluasi hasil belajar.* Surabaya: Usaha Nasional.

Saragih, E. (2014). Designing ESP Materials for Nursing Students Based On Needs Analysis. *International Journal of Linguistics, 6* (4), 59-70.

Sugiyono. (2010). *Metode Penelitian (Pendekatan Kuantitatif, Kualitatif, dan R & D.* Bandung: Alfabeta

Tomlinson, B. (2009). *Materials development in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wardhani, Z. C., & Sadtono, E. (2014). Designing The Syllabus of English for Tourism 1 Subject. *International Journal of English and Education, 3* (4), 121-132.

Zahedpisheh, N., Bakar, Z. B., & Saffari, N. (2017). English for Tourism and Hospitality Purposes (ETP). *English Language Teaching, 10* (9), 86-94.

ELE Journal References

Boun, S. (2017). Social Psychological Impacts on Language Use: Anxiety among Cambodian University Students. TESOL International Journal, 12(2), 17.

Ibrayeva, L., & Fuller, C. (2014). The L2 Motivational Self System among Kazakh learners of LSP. The Asian ESP Journal, 10(2), 42.

Litz, D. R. (2005). Developed book Evaluation and ELT Management: A South Korean Case Study. *Asian EFL Journal, 6* (4).

Meganathan, R. (2015). English Language Education Situation in India: Pedagogical. The Journal of English as an International Language, 10(1), 49.

Napitupulu, J. F. (2018). A Case Study of Improving the Speaking Ability of 5-Year-Old Child using Android Application. The Asian EFL Journal, 20(10), 147.

Vietnamese EFL Learners' Perspectives of Pronunciation Pedagogy

Thi Thanh Huyen Phuong

Department of English

FPT University

Education and Training Area, Hoa Lac Hi-Tech Park

Km 29, Thang Long Avenue, Thach That, Hoa Lac, Hanoi, Vietnam

Email: huyenptt3@fe.edu.vn / huyenphuong80@gmail.com

Mobile: +84983286616

Bio-Profile:

Huyen Phuong is a lecturer of English who has involved in EFL teaching at different universities in Vietnam for the past 15 years. In 2018, Huyen gained her PhD degree in Applied Linguistics/TESOL at the University of Technology, Sydney, Australia.

Abstract

In mainstream education, learners' contribution is critical in the success of any pedagogical process. In pronunciation pedagogy, the role of learners is even claimed to have greater contribution than that of all resources together. Learners' voices in pronunciation pedagogy, however, has been under-presented to date in ELT research in Vietnam. This paper reports on a mixed-method investigation into Vietnamese learners' perspectives of pronunciation pedagogy at tertiary education level in Vietnam and the extent to which learners' views and needs are considered by their teachers. In this study, survey questionnaires (N=87) and focus-group interviews (N=4) were used to collect data from students on their views of and needs in pronunciation learning. Individual interviews (N=10) were used to collect data from

teachers on their perception of students' views and needs in pronunciation pedagogy. These sources of data were further illuminated by the analysis of class observations. The study found that there exists a huge gap between learners' perception of their own interest in pronunciation learning and teachers' perception of their students' motivation in learning English pronunciation; also, learners' views and needs in pronunciation learning are poorly acknowledged and responded in English classes.

Introduction

The shift from teacher-centered to student-centered approach in ELT since the late twentieth century has challenged the whole set of well-established perceptions and classroom practices in regards to students' roles in English classrooms (Allwright, 1984). To accommodate the shift, a better knowledge of learners' views and needs would be critically important. In fact, there has been increasing attention drawn towards ELT learners' perspectives in pedagogical practice and pedagogical decision-making process (McDonough, 2002), their potential contribution to teaching methodology (Allwright, 1984; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004), and also actual efforts to promote this contribution (Cibo, 2011).

Despite the growing awareness of learners' pedagogical contribution among theorists, this potential is still reported to be widely overlooked by language practitioners (Mitchell & Lee, 2003; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004). This is regrettable as an inappropriate understanding of learners' views and poor acknowledgment of their contribution would turn learner-centered approach into mere lip-service and have been reported to fail several efforts of EFL innovation in different contexts (Karavas-Doukas, 1998; Shamim, 1996).

It is also an important note that even in research, learners' perspectives of ELT practice could have been heard louder in certain fields than in some others. Regarding that pronunciation is often granted with far less attention than it deserves and known as a 'neglected orphan of second language acquisition studies' (Deng et al., 2009, p.1), or the 'lost ring of the chain' in ELT research (Moghaddam, Nasiri, Zarea, & Sepehrinia, 2012), pronunciation learners, especially those in EFL contexts, seem to have limited opportunities to get their voices heard (see Literature Review below for detailed discussion). Whereas, inappropriate attention to learners' views in pronunciation teaching is claimed to be 'an abrogation of professional responsibility' (Morley, 1991, p. 489). Therefore, it would be essential to take learners' perspectives of pronunciation pedagogy in close attention.

Literature review

Research on EFL pronunciation pedagogy

In some recent years, while rich knowledge has been added to assist pronunciation instruction in English as Second Language (ESL) contexts, English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers are still poorly supported with few guidelines which are mostly in the field of English models for instruction, some of which are either still debatable (Jenkins, 2000, 2002) or in forms of frameworks for EIL or EFL teaching in general (see Szpyra-Kozłowska, 2015; Walker, 2010). Thus, the application of such guiding materials into the teaching of specific EFL contexts is far from an easy practice. EFL teachers are apparently still almost on their own working ways out of the puzzle when trying to apply ESL research findings, if these are accessible to them at all, in their own EFL contexts, where both teaching and learning are confined by significantly specific educational, sociocultural conditions.

With increasingly important roles English takes in the Expanding Circle, attention has been directed towards pronunciation instruction in EFL contexts. However, studies on EFL pronunciation pedagogy to date mainly feature the efforts to improve instruction on the basis of experiments (see Lee, Jang, & Plonsky, 2014 for the list of 24 experimental/quasi-experimental research reports on EFL pronunciation pedagogy), or to uncover teachers' perspectives on pronunciation pedagogy (Henderson et al., 2015; Henderson et al., 2012; Lim, 2016; K. Saito, 2014; Sifakis & Sougari, 2005). A handful of studies also explore learners' autonomy and self-learning techniques to improve their own pronunciation (Chien, 2018; Lear, 2013). However, little is known about what learners think and need regarding pedagogical practice. Even less is known about how their views and wishes how these views and needs are considered by teachers in pronunciation classes.

Research on EFL learners' perspectives of pronunciation pedagogy

Learners' contribution to the success of pronunciation pedagogy has even been claimed to possibly make a greater significance than that of all resources together including teaching methods, teachers' devotion, state- of- art materials, and cutting-edge educational facilities (Pawlak, 2006). As such, it can be argued that efforts made to improve pronunciation teaching efficacy would hardly lead to satisfactory results without proper attention to learners' perspectives and needs in the pedagogical process.

With such awareness, research on EFL pronunciation learners' perspectives has started attracting more attention. The focus of this line of research, however, is limited to few aspects including mainly the importance learners place on English pronunciation and/or pronunciation learning (Kanellou, 2011; Rajadurai, 2001), their attitudes towards English accents, ELF, EIL, and their goals in learning pronunciation (Jindapitak, 2015; Kanellou, 2011; Timmis, 2002; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011; Waniek & Klimczac, 2008). In addition, some research attention focuses on learners' preferences or difficulties in pronunciation learning (Benzies, 2013). Another recent topic of research interest is learners' desires and efforts to take more control over their pronunciation learning process (Pawlak, 2006). As language is closely linked with identity, efforts have also been made to explore how EFL learners sense themselves when pronouncing English (Szyszka, 2011; Trofimovich & Gatbonton, 2006), and how their pronunciation self-perception affects their oral performance (Szyszka, 2011). The point of essence is that most of the aforementioned studies seek for learners' views by means of only questionnaires. Two others employ speech evaluation tasks. I suppose these means of data collection would significantly limit the opportunities for learners to bring their views into in-depth discussion.

Recently, a couple of studies have made chances for learners to speak in more details via focus-group interviews and/or over a wider range of pronunciation-related issues including learners' evaluation of some aspects of current pedagogical practices (see Al-ghazo, 2013 and Tergujeff 2012). However, participants in the study of Al-ghazo Al-ghazo (2013) are English-majored students, who are supposed to be trained to become English professionals and whose needs and perspectives would not properly represent those of the majority of EFL learners. Tergujeff (2012), on the other hand, investigates the views of young learners of English in Finland, whose ages ranged from 10 to 18 years. As Tergujeff notes, though English is given with no official status in Finland, the language strongly presents in the country socially, professionally, and leisurely. This feature would affect Finnish learners' attitudes towards English pronunciation and their English experience quite differently from those of learners from several EFL contexts such as Vietnam where the presence of English is insignificant or even absent outside their classroom walls.

As such, the knowledge we have gained from EFL pronunciation-teaching research so far about learners' views seems to be fragments, which are far from enough to construct an adequate picture that we should have about what learners think and need. Also, there is almost

no study in which an in-depth discussion of learners' views and wishes is coupled with teachers' views of what their learners think and need.

Research on EFL Vietnamese learners' perspectives of ELT in Vietnam

As taking the regard of EFL research in Vietnam, learners' perspectives seem to have not received adequate attention, either. Their voices are still almost unclaimed and thus their valuable contribution to pedagogy has been wasted (Tomlinson & Dat, 2004). Among few recent attempts to generate a space for Vietnamese EFL learners to tell their stories, exclusively for higher education level, research finding converge at some mismatches between teachers' perceptions and pedagogical practices with learners' expectations and needs (Ngan, 2011; Tran, 2013; Trang & Baldauf, 2007). These discrepancies can be attributed to multiple barriers that may have hindered teachers from understanding their students' needs and wishes including traditional teacher-student educational roles (Dat, 2007) that limit teacher-student communication, and institutional hierarchies (Tomlinson & Dat, 2004), which inhibits students' feedback. The status that learners' opinions are almost excluded from important teaching and educational planning practices makes it an urgent query to direct research attention to gain important knowledge of learners, their experience, needs, and desires in EFL practice.

Given that learners' voices are still a barren land in EFL in Vietnam and also that pronunciation teaching is apparently the most seriously under-researched domain of ELT in the country, the field in which teachers would need intensive assistance and guidelines especially to the extent of their learners' needs, I am urged by the temptation to explore Vietnamese learners' views and needs and how much these are considered in learning English pronunciation. Therefore, in this study, I focus on two following research questions:

1. What are learners' views of their current pronunciation learning process?
2. How are learners' views of their pronunciation learning responded by their teachers?

The efforts to seek answers for these questions would definitely worthwhile because the benefits of getting adequate knowledge of learners in pedagogical process have been confirmed to be twofold: redirecting learners' learning if they are driven by misperception or inadequate beliefs (Cenoz & Lecumberri, 1999); and adjusting pedagogical practice to best accommodate learners' learning (Davies, 2006).

Methods

This paper emerges from a larger project that was located at a university in Vietnam. This larger project employed multiple methods of data collection including semi-structured interviews with teachers, classroom observation, focus-groups, and survey questionnaires. Data reported in this paper is drawn upon all the mentioned sources of data.

Ten teachers from the English Division participated in the study. Two classes by each teacher were observed and audio-recorded producing a total of 30 hours of classroom observation. The teachers then were interviewed twice over 6 weeks adding 19 hours of interview data. All teacher participants are native Vietnamese speakers, most of whom have developed their English through a study in Vietnam; only one participant had finished a master course in Australia. The teachers ranged in age between 28 and 40 years. At the time of the study, all were teaching in the EPC (English Preparation Course), which is designed to prepare students for bachelor programs in either Computer science or Banking at the university.

Participants in the study also include 87 non-major English students enrolled at the EPC. The students are between 18 and 22 years old and varied in their English proficiency from elementary to advanced level. Survey-questionnaires which consist of 40 items were prepared in Vietnamese and delivered to students by their class teachers. Thirteen volunteers out of these 87 students were then interviewed in focus-groups of 3 or 4 students. Each of these focus-groups is of approximately an hour in length and were audio-recorded.

Semi-structured interviews, and focus-groups were all conducted in Vietnamese and transcribed by the author. Class observation was coupled with fieldnotes.

As for my relationship with the site, I had six years working as a lecturer at the university and teacher participants in the study were my colleagues with whom I have still kept frequent contacts.

Findings

Value of pronunciation learning

Students' views of the value of pronunciation learning

For questionnaire items reported in *table 1.1* below, students were asked to respond to a five-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree to indicate the value

they placed on the development of English pronunciation with regards to benefits it brings to different aspects of their lives. Results show students' high appreciation of possessing good pronunciation skills in facilitating their access to better job opportunities (90%), higher education (94%), as well as enhancing their international communication (93%). Associated with this positive view is a desire expressed by 95.4% of respondents to improve their own English pronunciation.

Table 1.1. Value of Pronunciation Learning

Statements	Agree/St
Good English pronunciation can help me to find a job	**90%**
Good English pronunciation can help me to	**93%**
Good English pronunciation can help me to pursue	**94%**
I want to improve my pronunciation skills in English	**95%**

In focus-group interviews, all 13 participants stressed the importance of pronunciation in improving their communication in English. Five students also drew attention to the professional and income benefits accruing to graduates who had developed a high level of proficiency in L2 pronunciation. One representative comment is:

> *If I speak English with good pronunciation... it will be more professional... Well I mean ...for example, when I work with foreign partners, and my pronunciation is not good... well then they can have negative impression about my professional ability... (Tung TN1)*

Another student added:

> *If I can speak English well with good pronunciation, I will find a job that enable me to work with foreigners...Normally such a job is good. It helps to widen my knowledge of people, cultures around the world, and also brings me high salary. (Sang TN1)*

Interestingly, possessing a good pronunciation was also mentioned as a means of saving face by four participants, one of whom noted that:

> *In my opinion, learning pronunciation is important. Obviously, when we learn a new language, only if we pronounce correctly, others can understand exactly what we mean, and so we can communicate successfully. Besides, pronunciation is something like our face when we communicate with others. (Duc SM1)*

In alignment with findings reported among learners in other EFL contexts (Al-ghazo, 2013; Benzies, 2013; Kanellou, 2011), students in the current study attach a great importance

to learning English pronunciation. The analysis seems to indicate a strong instrumental motivation student possess when seeing good pronunciation as a promising investment that may turn into social, professional, and financial benefits.

Teachers' perception of learners' views toward the value of pronunciation learning

In individual interviews with teachers, it however was commonly reported (by six out of ten teachers) that pronunciation did not usually fall within their students' awareness or interest. Dung, a teacher in charge of two elementary classes said:

> *...Students do not have a good attitude toward learning pronunciation so they cannot acquire that... I correct their mistakes and then they keep pronouncing in their own ways. From my own experience teaching here from the first intake, I see it is always that. Maybe they are non-English major students so they don't pay attention to pronunciation. Very frequently I think they do not want to learn that, they just care about how to pass English tests. (Interview 1)*

To illustrate better students' poor appreciation of pronunciation learning, Dung also provided an account of pronunciation learning experience of a student of hers, who had joined an extra English class at an expensive English centre:

> *...he thinks learning pronunciation is silly...he told me that the teacher at the night class he attended spent the whole lesson's time to ask learners to hold a piece of paper and make a sound in a way that makes the paper vibrate...(Interview 1)*

Another teacher, Le, also claimed pronunciation learning seems to be regarded as unnecessary by many of her students:

> *In fact, our students always have a tendency to learn only things that are included in the tests. ... However, now we don't have anything like that in our tests and students don't see the point of learning pronunciation. If they pronounce words wrongly, it is not a problem at all to them because everybody understands, their teachers understand, and so do their friends. There is obviously no need to learn pronunciation. (Interview 1)*

Hanh, a teacher of a pre-intermediate class also commented:

> *For my students, pronunciation is something very irrelevant. (Interview 1)*

Some other teachers also said that students' attention to pronunciation in class occurs only to fulfil their teachers' requirement. Hong said:

> *When I correct their mistakes, they repeat after me just to please me, not really paying attention to correcting the mistakes of their own. That is the reason why they make exactly the same mistake afterwards. (Interview 1)*

Two other teachers reported that their students were generally aware of the importance of good English pronunciation; they however emphasized that the mentioned awareness was not strong enough to become a motivation that turned them into self-directed learners:

> *Their attitude towards pronunciation is fine but the efficacy of their learning depends so much on teachers. Students always need pressure from teachers to gain something in pronunciation. The stricter teachers are, the more students learn. (Tu – Interview 1)*

As seen from teachers' views, learners are generally poorly aware of the role of pronunciation and/or lowly motivated to learn it. The efficacy of pronunciation pedagogy, thus, seems to be a burden that teachers are the only ones who are to carry.

Observation of students' attitudes and teachers' responses in explicit pronunciation-teaching sections

Apparently, the value students placed on pronunciation learning and the value teachers believed they place on this quite contradict. As a place where teachers and learners interact and cooperate, where aspects of attitudes towards and beliefs in teaching and learning are realised through practices, observed classes serve to provide some facts to understand the incongruence reported above.

My field notes indicate that sections of explicit pronunciation teaching were dominated with the strategy of listen-and-repeat. Nevertheless, the repetition of this technique, either in pronunciation practices or teachers' correction, appeared to generate limited interest among students. It was frequently observed that while the teacher presented correct models of sounds/words/phrases, some students would repeat in chorus with greater or lesser degrees of enthusiasm, while several others turned their attention into something else, varying from surfing the internet, reading a textbook, or just looking out of the window. When commented about techniques of pronunciation instruction they often receive in class, several students showed a less positive attitude toward the overuse of listen-and- repeat, even as a factor that pushed them away from learning pronunciation. One student said:

> *When pronunciation is taught separately, there is often a lot of listen and repeat… a lot of it makes pronunciation lesson very boring and childish …and makes us fed up….(Duc)*

In the face of students' poor participation during explicit pronunciation teaching sections, my observation shows that little adjustment was implemented by teachers regarding their choice of teaching techniques. For some teachers, the use of listen-and-repeat, for example, was confined by pedagogic options they had. Commenting on this challenge, Hanh said:

> *Sometimes when teaching pronunciation, I find that my students get bored because I cannot think of games or anything interesting but just ask them to listen and repeat, or to look up in dictionaries to check this or that. I do not have much knowledge of how to teach pronunciation effectively for my students. When I was at university, my teacher used a textbook Sheep or Ship and used phonemic charts to teach us sounds. When teaching my students that way, I find students' learning is passive, but I have no idea of how to make their learning more active...*

Teachers' consistent use of listen-and-repeat, in addition, is also firmly rooted in their strong belief that this practice is effective for their students in improving their pronunciation, and that students need a push to get over their lack of motivation when participating in this practice. Commenting on the use of this technique, Thao claimed:

> *...I always require my students to repeat in chorus. This is a compulsory practice for my students all the time. At the beginning, I focus on the practice of word pronunciation, when they are quite good at words, then the focus of the practice is on whole sentence with phenomenon like linking sounds. The approach is always like that for me... (Interview 1)*

Referring to a textbook section which introduces basic English intonation via model conversations, Thao added:

> *Other teachers may not like this part but I always ask my students to repeat in chorus after each sentence, then practise reading aloud the conversation with each other. This is applied even for high level-students...Sometimes students get bored but I say it is a must and they have to do even if they don't like to. (Interview 1)*

As can be seen, teaching and learning seems to proceed as two separated processes and students' poor interest for some commonly used activities seems to have been consciously or unconsciously neglected.

Learners' needs in pronunciation learning

Learners' desires for more teaching time and content knowledge

Students' responses to questionnaires reported a high frequency with which pronunciation was taught in class (82%), which, however, varied in accordance with students'

levels. While 94% of advanced students (strongly) agreed that pronunciation teaching occurs in almost every lesson of theirs, 79% of lower-level students indicated so. The rest of the latter group (21%) either indicated a lack of pronunciation teaching in their class or were unsure if pronunciation is often taught in their English classes at all.

Focus-group data also support questionnaire results. While advanced students all expressed their satisfaction with both frequency and extent of pronunciation teaching in class, lower-level students widely claimed that despite acceptable frequency, explicit pronunciation instruction did not comprise a satisfactory overall amount of time:

> *I think pronunciation is frequently taught but the amount of time is not much…or may be sometimes teachers are combining pronunciation teaching in speaking or listening activities or something else but it is not clear so I don't realize that they are teaching pronunciation....(Hieu TN1)*

In the same vein, another student added:

> *Pronunciation is taught but I think not very often…but the effect of teaching is fine…uhm…but I think the effect of pronunciation teaching and learning depends a lot on us because teachers have many other things to cover within the class time. (Linh TN1)*

The point of attention from the quote is the student not only reports inefficient instruction but also aware of some contraints that lead to certain limitation of pronunciation teaching in their context, where pronunciation is far from a focus of attention. In addition, the students seem to prepare to take on the challenge.

Another issue of salience is the neglect of some aspects students considered important especially phonemic symbols, which students perceived to be critically important in facilitating their use of dictionaries and other aspects of self-study and thus several aspire to seek for more instruction on those:

> *Sometimes I look at the transcriptions of words in dictionaries and I cannot understand anything... and you know it is a common psychological feature that has been retained from my primary and secondary school education is that asking teachers is something very unusual (Trang)*

Another student added:

> *Some of the phonemic symbols are very difficult and I don't know how to realise them in sounds. (Ngoc)*

In dealing with this obstacle, the students reported that they relied on their own sound-sensitivity to approximate what they heard. However, there may exist differences between the

target sound, what learners perceive, and the sounds learners then reproduce, especially if learners get little or no informed feedback on their speech during that process. The kind of pronunciation which may result from this process may be what teacher participants in the study often complained about in interviews as *students' own ways of pronunciation (Van & Nguyet-1st round interviews)*. Moreover, the difficulty that students are facing to deal with this untaught aspect is even more challenging to overcome with the mentioned reluctance of students when approaching teachers for assistance.

Teachers' perceptions of and responses to lower-level students' needs

While several lower-level students reported a need of more pronunciation instruction (which in the context of this study was mostly in form of correction and feedback), several teachers reported to focus on instruction and feedback on pronunciation only when students got more advanced. When asked about the reasons, one of the teachers stated:

> *I think when students' English ability is limited, if we give detailed comments on things they don't know and are not taught yet, then it is pointless. Because they cannot understand then I often only give general comments like 'your pronunciation is not very good yet''. Only for students of higher levels, I will give detailed feedback... That means I only give detailed comments on features they have learnt, so they can understand and benefit. In fact, the needs for learning pronunciation often presents only when students reach a high level of English, so at that time when we point out fields of their limitations in pronunciation, they have the demand to focus on these and improve. (Anh-Interview 2)*

Many other teachers also shared a common belief that, for beginning students, fluency should be prioritized over accuracy. Accordingly, pronunciation correction and feedback was minimized at these preliminary levels:

> *For TN2 students (pre-intermediate students), for instance, even they make a lot of mistakes, I will not correct except for pronunciation mistakes on key words of the lesson topic. Intonations and factors that ensure the speech naturalness can also be neglected....At this level, students only need to be able to speak. (Nu – interview 2)*

Observation data also reveals that instruction on pronunciation at lower-level class was normally limited to teachers' recast or correction of students' mistakes during spoken English production. These limited forms of instruction were observed to be skipped on most occasions of students' speaking in several classes. This is possibly teachers' compromise of students' speech accuracy for the development of fluency as noted.

With respect to students' need for more teaching on phonemic symbols, only four out of ten teachers reported to include this feature in their classes. Moreover, their teaching of phonemic symbols appeared to be limited to the form of a brief introduction of some problematic phonemes, and presented only in the first lesson of each semester for lower-level classes. Otherwise, instruction was experienced occasionally in a more implicit manner when teachers showed phonemic transcriptions of English words during new vocabulary teaching, but without attention being drawn to the sound-symbol correspondence.

Thus, the development of this feature is expected to rely mostly on learners' autonomy. Learners seem to act alone in deciding if phonemic symbols are important to know, and then to make necessary compensation in case they find teaching inadequate for their needs. As one teacher put it:

> *I normally spend one lesson in the semester for those symbols and ask students to learn more at home on their own. After that I can sometimes check at random some sounds only. (Le- Interview 1)*

According to another teacher, Nu, the frequency of that checking and giving consolidating practice, nevertheless, occurs rarely:

> *Sometimes I suddenly remember about these and insert a related practice. But most of the time, there are so many things to do and I forget. (Interview 2)*

As a result, teachers had little idea about the sufficiency and efficacy of their phonemic symbol teaching. When asked if the teaching helps the symbols and the corresponding sounds enter into the students' long-term memory and assist them to some extent in their pronunciation self-learning, a teacher told me:

> *I actually have done no tests or any activities of the sorts to check if they remember. (Dung -Interview 2)*

It appeared that given the multiple pressures which they faced professionally, specific consideration of students' desires was not yet rated as a priority in planning/teaching.

Discussion

The goal of this study was to examine EFL pronunciation learners' perspectives regarding the value of pronunciation learning, their wishes, and to discuss the extent to which teachers understand and consider these views and needs. Though researchers have called for

due attention to learners' thoughts and learning needs, data in this study suggests a significant gap in teachers' awareness of their learners' views and needs in pronunciation learning.

The value of pronunciation learning

Students' high appreciation of English pronunciation learning appears to be underestimated by their teachers. If we consider motivation, students seem to possess a strong awareness of socio-economic benefits to master this aspect of English and thus could be assumed to possess a strong motivation to be successful learners (see Malcolm, 2004). Nevertheless, their teachers perceive them as poorly motivated learners. There are several possible reasons for this. Regarding the exam-oriented English teaching and learning in the context, especially when pronunciation is not realized as a concrete component in any test, students' desire for pronunciation learning may be hidden, and thus limits opportunities for teachers to become aware of their students' actual desires in pronunciation learning. Given that the manifestation of motivation is multi-layered (see Ryan & Deci, 2000) and thus teachers' perception of learners' motivation can hardly be a straight-forward or barrier-free process, the incongruence between teachers' and students' perspectives resembles the classic iceberg metaphor, where teachers can observe only the visible parts of students' motivation in learning pronunciation, but students' conscious and unconscious desires remain invisible.

It has also been claimed that despite an awareness of the importance/benefits of learning a language or particular features of a language, learners can still be demotivated by other factors in the pedagogical process including teachers, school facilities, the compulsory nature of learning, course books, and negative attitudes towards the L2 community (Dörnyei, 1998). The observation reveal listen-and-repeat is the dominant teaching technique in use; focus-group data shows that the dominant use of this technique has limited students' interest to some extent. Several students associated the overuse of this technique with such adjectives as 'boring' and 'childish'. As such, the scenario of classes with little students' attention in class observation data may expose two layers of discourse: One, more on the surface, features students' poor participation, which can then be perceived by teachers as resulted from students' low interest in learning English pronunciation; another discourse lies somewhere deeper and is more likely to stay unseen: that is, the seemingly uninterested learners may have a strong desire for mastering English pronunciation; however, activities afforded in class have not been a source of stimulation. A study by Trang and Baldauf (2007) into EFL in Vietnam also reports

a similar finding that teaching methods were a main demotivating factor for learning in this context.

A note of essence is that teachers hardly show adjustment in their teaching in the face of learners' low participation. The lack of responses on the part of teachers is either confined by the lack of pronunciation teaching skills or so strong belief that pronunciation is not within learners' interest. Due to the later reason, students' poor attention during pronunciation instruction has been attributed to the matter of learning attitude rather than to other factors of pedagogy such as teaching methods. Thus, several teachers opted the application of force on learners to push learning. By teachers' doing so, the perception mismatch seems to have not only generated a practical mismatch between learners' expectation and classroom practices. Generally, teachers are clearly in need of some assistance either in relation to teaching methods or approaching/understanding their students' views, or may be both.

Desires for more teaching time and instruction of some essential feature

Analysis also shows the gap in teachers' awareness of learners' desires in pronunciation learning. The fact that lower-level students have a strong demand for more pronunciation instruction in general, on phonemic symbols in particular seems to be neglected. With respect to students' responses in the focus groups about how confused they find when dealing dictionary transcription and the difficulties they face in pronunciation self-study as a consequence, the occasional instruction on phonemic symbols that teachers reported in interviews deems insufficient or/and ineffective. However, that mismatch seems to be not within teachers' awareness as several teachers reported to expect their students to autonomously develop this aspect of pronunciation on the basis of teachers' initial guiding. In this case, the expectation appears to be ambitious regarding little preparation students are provided with.

With regards to high demand for instruction and feedback on pronunciation among beginning learners, analysis reveals teachers' opposite teaching priority. Most teachers believe pronunciation instruction is only significantly beneficial for advanced students and in clear reflection of this belief, interview and class observation data show minimum instruction and feedback on these preliminary levels. However, it is important to note the contradiction between this practice and research findings in different contexts. Not only has pronunciation instruction been confirmed to be in high demand among beginning learners (see Baker, 2011), pronunciation development of beginning learners is also enhanced remarkably with explicit

instruction (Derwing, Munro, & Wiebe, 1997; K Saito, 2011; K Saito & Lyster, 2012), even more rapid than that by advanced learners (Derwing & Munro, 2005). In addition, this development of beginning learners is limited without explicit instruction (Derwing, Munro, & Thomson, 2008; Derwing, Thomson, & Munro, 2006). Thus, when discussing the benefit of explicit pronunciation instruction for beginning learners, Yates and Zielinski (2014) stated that it is hard 'to imagine teaching beginning-level learners how to speak in English without teaching them pronunciation' (p.65). In the regard that the aforementioned research has been conducted in ESL contexts, where early instruction on pronunciation may set a firm foundation that fosters learners' daily pronunciation learning in their condition of immersion, the same extent of benefit may not be experienced by beginning EFL learners, whose English experience can be mostly limited within classroom walls. However, in the strong view that advocates pronunciation instruction for beginning learners, also given the high demand for pronunciation training among beginning students in the current study, it would seem expedient to include systematic pronunciation training from beginning levels in such EFL contexts of this study.

Conclusion

The current study investigates the voices of EFL pronunciation learners and the gap in teachers' knowledge of their students' views and needs regarding pronunciation learning process. In respect to learners' perspectives, it is important to note that they are profoundly aware of the importance of learning English pronunciation and has strong aspiration to do so. Especially they also possess some certain degree of autonomy and responsibility to get over limitations of pronunciation pedagogy in their context. This would be illuminating for several teachers in this context who report that students are lacking in motivation and initiatives in pronunciation learning.

In respect to the limitation of teachers' awareness of their students' views and learning needs, it can be traced mainly to two causes: curriculum constraints and teacher training. I would emphasize that the situation of learners' views and needs staying unknown is somewhat a disappointing aspect of pronunciation pedagogy and ELT in Vietnam in general. It is highly possible that the status of teacher-student disconnection in pronunciation pedagogy is a consequence of teachers' decision to step outside and refuse to dip themselves into this field of challenge with poor support. Thus, narrowing the gap in teachers' knowledge of their learners and implementing necessary pedagogical modification in a more learner-oriented approach are no means an easy or straight-forward process. It may be useful, as noted by Murphy (2014), by

first reminding these NNS teachers of their honored places and critical role in the development of pronunciation pedagogy in the world given that the number of NNES are expanding enormously. As such, these teachers will be confident enough to really get involved and make changes. The current study extends the research by Tomlinson and Dat (2004) about EFL Vietnamese learners' voices but in a more specific aspect of pronunciation pedagogy. The current study also resonates Tomlinson and Dat's call for more effort to forge a link between learners' voices and effective pedagogical practice, particularly in EFL pronunciation pedagogy in Vietnam. The specific pedagogical implications of the current study will be detailed in section Pedagogical Implications below.

Pedagogical Implications

From the findings of the study, it is evident that the gap in teachers' knowledge of learners' views and needs is significant and poses a major challenge for pronunciation pedagogy in the context of this study. Thus, the first pedagogical suggestion for pronunciation teaching in this context and those similar ones is that channels for teacher-student communication regarding pronunciation pedagogy should be made available. For instance, surveys could be conducted at the end of each level of the course to collect learners' views of the strengths and weaknesses of the pronunciation instruction they get, and also of the difficulties they face and would need assistance for. The information gained will be of great value in informing teachers' pedagogical practices.

Moreover, given learners' high demand for more teaching on pronunciation in general and on phonemic symbols in particular, it would be beneficial if more systematic instruction on phonemic symbols, especially those without or with little sound-symbol correspondence, is provided to learners from the very beginning.

In order to help teachers to re-envision and modify their professional practice in a way that is more learner-oriented as mentioned, institutions need to provide teachers with essential supports. First of all, pronunciation must become a part of curriculum to ensure that teachers have enough time to teach pronunciation and support their learners. Second, teachers should have frequent opportunities of training and professional development. These opportunities could take the form of seminars, workshops conducted by researchers and specialists in the field, workshops among teachers themselves, short courses or online courses on pronunciation teaching. These activities will not only keep teachers updated about advances in the field of pronunciation pedagogy and enrich their teaching techniques but also help them to develop a

proper view of their critical role as EFL pronunciation teachers in the time of globalization. Only with sufficient supports can such EFL teachers as those in the current study be confident to assist their learners in pronunciation learning and be able to tailor their teaching with their learners' needs.

References

Al-ghazo, S. (2013). *Pronunciation Instruction in Jordan: Practices and Beliefs.* (Doctor of Philosophy PhD), University of Technology, Sydney, unpublished.

Allwright, R. L. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 5*(2), 156-171.

Baker, A. A. (2011). *Pronunciation pedagogy: Second language teacher cognition and practice.* (Doctor of phylosophy PhD), Georgia State University, US.

Benzies, Y. J. C. (2013). Spanish EFL university students' views on the teaching of pronunciation: a survey-based study. *LANGUAGE, 5*, 41-49.

Cenoz, J., & Lecumberri, M. L. G. (1999). The acquisition of English pronunciation: Learners' views. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 9*(1), 3-15.

Chien, C. W. (2018). Taiwanese EFL undergraduates' self-correction of pronunciation problems and their strategies. *Asian EFL Journal, 20*(6), 261-292.

Cibo, Z. (2011). *Negotiation of Teaching Methods in ELT Classroom.* Paper presented at the 2011 International Conference on Information Management, Innovation Management and Industrial Engineering.

Dat, B. (2007). Enhancing the language learning process for reticent learners of Vietnamese and of English in Vietnam. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Language acquisition and development: Studies of learners of first and other languages* (pp. 203-224). New York: Continuum.

Davies, A. (2006). What do learners really want from their EFL course? *ELT Journal, 60*(1), 3-12.

Deng, J., Holtby, A. K., Howden-Weaver, L., Nessim, L., Nicholas, B., Nickle, K., . . . Sun, M. (2009). *English Pronunciation Research: The Neglected Orphan of Second*

Language Acquisition Studies? Paper presented at the The 1st Annual Conference on Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching second language acquisition studies, Edmonton.

Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2005). Second language accent and pronunciation Teaching: A research-based aproach. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(3), 379-397.

Derwing, T. M., Munro, M. J., & Thomson, R. I. (2008). A Longitudinal Study of ESL Learners' Fluency and Comprehensibility Development. *Applied Linguistics, 29*(3), 359-380.

Derwing, T. M., Munro, M. J., & Wiebe, G. E. (1997). Pronunciation Instruction for Fosilized Learners: Can It Help? *Applied Linguistics, 8*, 185-203.

Derwing, T. M., Thomson, R. I., & Munro, M. J. (2006). English Pronunciation and Fluency Development in Mandarin and Slavic Speakers. *System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics, 34*(2), 183-193.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching, 31*(03), 117-135.

Henderson, A., Curnick, L., Frost, D., Kautzsch, A., Kirkova-Naskova, A., Levey, D., . . . Waniek-Klimczak, E. (2015). The English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey: Factors inside and outside the Classroom. In J. A. Mompean & J. Fouz (Eds.), *Investigating English Pronunciation* (pp. 260-291): Palgrave-Macmillan.

Henderson, A., Frost, D., Tergujeff, E., Kautzsch, A., Murphy, D., Kirkova-Naskova, A., . . . Curnick, L. (2012). The English pronunciation teaching in Europe survey: selected results. *Research in Language, 10*(1), 5-27. doi:10.2478/v10015-011-0047-4

Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, J. (2002). A sociolinguistically based, empirically researched pronunciation syllabus for English as an International language. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(1), 83-103.

Jindapitak, N. (2015). English as a Lingua Franca: Learners' Views on Pronunciation. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 12*(2), 260-275.

Kanellou, V. (2011). *The place and practice of pronunciation teaching in the context of the EFL classroom in Thessaloniki, Greece.* (Doctor of Philosophy Ph.D.), Cardiff University (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor.

Karavas-Doukas, K. (1998). Evaluating the implementation of educational innovations: lessons from the past. In P. Rea-Dickins & K. P. Germaine (Eds.), *Managing evaluation and innovation in language teaching: Building bridges* (pp. 25-50). London: Longman.

Lear, E. (2013). Using guided reflective journals in large classes: Motivating students to independently improve pronunciation. *Asian EFL Journal, 15*(3), 113-137.

Lee, J., Jang, J., & Plonsky, L. (2014). The Effectiveness of Second Language Pronunciation Instruction: A Meta-analysis. *Applied Linguistics*, 1-23. doi:10.1093/applin/amu040

Lim, S. (2016). Learning to Teach Intelligible Pronunciation for ASEAN English as a Lingua Franca: A Sociocultural Investigation of Cambodian Pre-service Teacher Cognition and Practice. *RELC journal*, 313-329.

Malcolm, D. (2004). *Investigating successful English learners in Arab medical schools.* Paper presented at the Proceedings of the Independent Learning Conference 2003.

McDonough, J. (2002). The teacher as language learner: worlds of difference? *ELT Journal, 56*(4), 404-411.

Mitchell, R., & Lee, J. H. W. (2003). Sameness and difference in classroom learning cultures: Interpretations of communicative pedagogy in the UK and Korea. *Language Teaching Research, 7*(1), 35-63.

Moghaddam, M. S., Nasiri, M., Zarea, A., & Sepehrinia, S. (2012). Teaching Pronunciation: The Lost Ring of the Chain. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3*(1), 215-219.

Morley, J. (1991). The pronunciation component in teaching English to speakers of other languages. *TESOL Quarterly, 25*(3), 481-520.

Ngan, N. T. (2011). *West Wind Blows: Voices of Vietnamese Teachers and Students of English– A Case Study of Nha Trang University.* Ohio University, Unpublished.

Pawlak, M. (2006). The Place of Learner Autonomy in Pronounciation Instruction. In W. Sobkowiak & E. W.-. Klimczak (Eds.), *Dydaktyka fonetyki języka obcego* (pp. 131-143). Neofilologia: Zeszyty naukowe PWSZ w Płocku.

Rajadurai, J. (2001). An Investigation of the Effectiveness of Teaching Pronunciation to Malaysian TESL Students. *Forum, 39*(3), 10-15.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary educational psychology, 25*(1), 54-67.

Saito, K. (2011). Examining the role of explicit phonetic instruction in native-like and comprehensible pronunciation development: an instructed SLA approach to L2 phonology. *Language Awareness, 20*(1), 45-59.

Saito, K. (2014). Experienced teachers' perspectives on priorities for improved intelligible pronunciation: The case of Japanese learners of English. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 24*(2), 250-277.

Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012). Effects of Form-Focused Instruction and Corrective Feedback on L2 Pronunciation Development of /ɹ/ by Japanese Learners of English. *Language learning, 62*(2), 595-633.

Shamim, F. (1996). Learner resistance to innovation in classroom methodology. In H. Coleman (Ed.), *Society and the language classroom* (pp. 105-121). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sifakis, N., & Sougari, A. M. (2005). Pronunciation issues and EIL pedagogy in the periphery: A survey of Greek State Schoo Teachers' Beliefs. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(3).

Szpyra-Kozłowska, J. (2015). *Pronunciation in EFL Instruction: A Research-Based Approach* (Vol. 2). Bristol; Buffalo; Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Szyszka, M. (2011). Foreign language anxiety and self-perceived English pronunciation competence. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(2), 283-300.

Tergujeff, E. (2012). English Pronunciation Teaching: Four Case Studies from Finland. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3*(4), 599-607.

Timmis, I. (2002). Native speakers norms and international English: a classroom view. *ELT Journal, 56*(3), 240-249.

Tokumoto, M., & Shibata, M. (2011). Asian varieties of English: Attitudes towards pronunciation. *World Englishes, 30*(3), 392-408. doi:10.1111/j.1467-971X.2011.01710.x

Tomlinson, B., & Dat, B. (2004). The contributions of Vietnamese learners of English to ELT methodology. *Language Teaching Research, 8*(2), 199-222.

Tran, T. T. (2013). Factors affecting teaching and learning English in Vietnamese universities. *The Internet Journal Language, Culture and Society, 38*, 138-145.

Trang, T. T. T., & Baldauf, R. B. (2007). Demotivation: Understanding resistance to English language learning-the case of Vietnamese students. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 4*(1), 79-105.

Trofimovich, P., & Gatbonton, E. (2006). Repetition and Focus on Form in Processing L2 Spanish Words: Implications for Pronunciation Instruction. *The Modern Language Journal, 90*(iv), 519-535.

Walker, R. (2010). *Teaching the pronunciation of English as a lingua franca*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Waniek, E., & Klimczac, K. (2008). Target in speech development: learners' view. In K. Dziubalska-Kołaczyk & J. Przedlacka (Eds.), *English pronunciation models: A changing scene* (Vol. 21, pp. 229-250): Peter Lang.

Yates, L., & Zielinski, B. (2014). Pronunciation instruction is not appropriate for beginning-level learners. In L. Grant & D. M. Brinton (Eds.), *Pronunciation Myths: Applying Second Language Research to Classroom Teaching*: University of Michigan Press.

Web-Based Blended Learning for EFL Reading in the University Context in Indonesia

Devi Hellystia

Gunadarma University, Indonesia

devi_hellystia@staff.gunadarma.ac.id

Bio-Profile:

Devi Hellystia earned her doctorate in Language Education in the year of 2016 from the State University of Jakarta (UNJ). She is an assistant professor at Gunadarma University, Indonesia and currently, she is a staff at The research Center at the same university. She is registered as an active member of the Linguistic Society of Indonesia (MLI) and Asia Tefl. Her research interest is the use of blended learning for EFL teaching. In the past few years, she has been actively presenting her scientific papers in several international conferences.

Abstract

EFL reading is a complex skill to be mastered particularly in the university context in Indonesia. The method of blended learning is offered to solve the problem. This research aims at determining the effectiveness of web-based blended learning in which face-to-face and online instruction are combined to promote the EFL reading proficiency of students in a university in Indonesia. A quasi-experimental with one-group pretest and post-test design was applied to reach the goal. Thirty-two intermediate students were selected as the subject of the research. They were tested for their reading skills before and after the treatment. The result of the research showed that online blended learning is statistically significant to improve the reading proficiency of university students in Indonesia. Thus, blended learning can be adopted in English classes to facilitate the learning process particularly reading skills.

Keywords: Web-based blended learning, EFL Reading, university context

Introduction

EFL reading skill is very important and beneficial to university students particularly in the Indonesian context since most of the college textbooks are in English. Successful reading is very important for students in the context of developing academic and non-academic skills.

Therefore, they must carry out reading activities because of their needs, not coercion. If students read because of their needs, they will get as much information as they need. According to Nakamoto, Lindsey, and Manis (as cited in Abdelhalim,2017) reading comprehension is an active cognitive process that involves reasoning to construct meaning from a written text and understanding it effectively and comprehensively.

Snow (2002) elaborated the features of readers with good comprehension are active users of passage who have a good skills relating passages to their experiences and prior data, determining expectations or aims for their reading, paying attention to the components and structures of literature, monitoring their comprehensions, asking questions of the passage as they read, previewing or skimming texts before reading, paying attention to vocabulary, producing and negotiating to mean, constructing meaning as they read through passages, read selectively, selecting passages that serve their aims. Unfortunately, many university students do not know how to handle the process of reading. It is clearly stated by Freese (as cited in Wu, 2011) that some students encounter problems when reading. They read the paragraphs in the text but are still unaware of what they have read. Therefore, they have problems in comprehending the texts, and it causes a lack of interest in reading and thus creates quite a problem for the system of education. The study conducted by Central Connecticut State University (2016) reveals that Indonesia ranks 60 out of 61 countries in terms of reading interest. Indonesia is put under Thailand in 59 and above Bostwana in 61. Unsuccessful readers of English may face various problems inside their studies. One of them is that they may not select the best learning strategies. Moreover, students may become uninterested in their lessons and teachers; they may ignore their teachers' instructions or keep silent all the time without any participation (Khasawneh, 2010).

As mentioned earlier, reading skill is of utmost importance and it is an important source of comprehensible input in language learning. Supporting students' reading comprehension through training on appropriate reading strategies has been a main focus for language instructors therefore it is the role of the language teachers and educational planners to devise appropriate tasks to improve this skill among language students inside and outside of the language learning classroom. It has often been argued in reading literature that due to the complex and complicated factors involved in reading comprehension in general and in EFL reading in particular i.e., linguistic, cognitive and socio-cultural variables, designing an effective reading instructional strategy is not an easy task (Hudson, 2007).

There is a body of research into the development of English at different levels of educational context but little research into the development of reading in English at the

university level, despite this being the primary focus of many tertiary programs in Indonesia. Few studies that have been done focus primarily on investigating the application of approaches or models of EFL reading by considering the learning style of the current students who categorized as the millennial generation. Weiler(2015)stated millennial generation is characterized by; visual, kinesthetic, lacking interpersonal skills, tendency to avoid reading, a strong inclination toward image-rich materials, and interactivity. This generation has many other learning resources that can be accessed easily from their gadgets (Williams, 2013).

Considering the characteristics of university students who tend to be in high demand of the use of technology that emphasizes on the flexibility of learning by taking into account students'individual differences in learning styles, it is crucial in putting a new method which supports traditional method and technology-based learning. Blended learning offers a different mode of learning which combines traditional classroom teaching and online learning methods is popular and more practical for both teachers and students(Yun Ting & sheng Chao,2013). According to Thorne (as cited in Ghazizadeh, 2017) blended learning is the most reasonable evolution of learning. This learning model offers a solution to the problem of developing a learning process that emphasizes individual needs. this model represents an opportunity to integrate technological progress in the form of online learning and interaction and learning processes in traditional classrooms. In addition, this model provides opportunities for students to improve their abilities by creating a learning environment that gives freedom for each student to develop themselves. It is believed that teaching EFL through blended learning is beneficial for students to enhance their reading mastery.

Palmer (2012) emphasizes when blended learning instruction is implemented in EFL reading comprehension, the students' mastery in comprehending English text is increased. This improvement will give a positive impact on their academic achievement. Krasnova and Ananjev (as cited in Challob, Abu Bakar,& Latif, 2016) remark that blended learning has many advantages over the traditional mode of learning a language. Other studies also suggest that blended learning can encourage students' creativity and simplify the learning environment in order to enhance their self-discipline and motivation (Oh & Park, 2009; Davis & Fill, 2007; Baker, 2010; Kuh 2009; Ladkin et, al, 2009;). It is indicated that blended learning may become an important learning model in providing students' flexibility in learning independently. This mode of teaching-learning offers teachers abundant resources for learning materials. Therefore, this research aims at answering a research question, is there any significant difference between pretest and post-test scores of students after being exposed to blended learning instructions regarding their EFL reading proficiency?

Methodology

A homogeneous sample of 32 intermediate students was selected to investigate if there is any impact of blended learning in the performance of students EFL reading. Those students were ranged in the age between 18 to 20.

Research Participants

Table 1. Demographic Information on participants

Characteristic	N	Level	Learning method	Age coverage
Experiment group	32	Intermediate	Blended learning	18-20

Instruments

Quantitative data are used to determine the result. Both pre-test and post-test used a standardized test namely the reading section of TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication).

The Research Design

Research design was made by considering the fact that the researcher ran a pretest for homogeneity beforehand. The design of this study was quasi-experimental with one group pre and post-test design. The researcher worked only with intermediate students who were introduced by the institute and that is why random sampling was not possible. This study included one independent variable and one dependent variable. The dependent variable was reading proficiency and the independent variable was blended learning.

Data Collection Procedure

The pre-test was conducted in the first stage to determine the students existing reading mastery and to make sure that all the participants involved from the same level of proficiency. It is composed of five reading passages comprises 100 multiple-choice tests which were selected from TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication). The students were given one hour to complete the test. The standardized test was selected due to several reasons, they are; a) its reliability and validity have already been determined and b) the passages are not too long to make students feel bored. This experiment group was taught EFL reading through blended learning.

Blended Learning Procedures

In the first meeting, the students were introduced with a tool namely English Discovery. Reading materials are designed for different levels of EFL reading mastery comprises; First Discovery, Basic 1-3, Intermediate 1-3, and Advanced 1-3. Each level has its own learning goals. This tool is specially designed in web-based mode, so students can learn outside the classroom using their laptops or gadgets. some tasks were regularly given in which the students should work on the assigned deadline. Digital audio-visual text is used as a learning tool aimed at encouraging students to practice all the given reading materials in their own time. Added to that, the tool gives an opportunity for students to work on their speed, this way enables students to create productive progress. In-class sessions were focused on cooperative learning in which the lecturer gave some set of a task to be discussed in groups. A student-centered textbook is prepared to support activities in the classroom so that the students can work actively with the guidance of the lecturer.

Result and Discussion

The lecturer monitored the students' performance such as activities carried out related to English Discovery, test scores and the development of their learning through a system namely Teaching Management System (TMS). It is a special feature for lecturers to organize learning materials. The material can be adapted to institutional programs, curricula, school handbooks, corporate training programs and others

After 14-weeks of the instruction period, post-test was administered to students. Independent test was used to analyze the findings. Both pretest and post-test were prepared by an English testing center which incorporated with Tarumanagara University where this research was taken place.

Result

This section discussed the research findings based on the the following research question: is there any significant difference between pretest and post-test scores of students after being exposed to blended learning instructions regarding their EFL reading proficiency?

Table 2. Mean and Standard Deviation of Pre-test Scores

Varians sources	Pretest	Postest
The Number of students	32	32

Mean	56.44	83.28
Standard Deviation	11.91	10.29
The Highest Score	76.00	100.00
The Lowest Score	30.00	60.00
Interval	46.00	40.00

Based on the table above, the average outcomes before being given blended learning is 56.44 with a standard deviation of 11.91 with a maximum value of 76.00 and a minimum value of 30.00. After being given bended Learning, its average score reached the value of 100 with a standard deviation of 10.29 with a maximum value of 76 and a minimum value of 60.
All students were required to take a reading test to make sure that they are at the same level in terms of reading proficiency. At the beginning of a teaching-learning process, the students were tested using the TOEIC reading section to determine which classes the students should be placed during the academic year.

Table 3. The Normality Test

Source	χ^2_{sum}	Dk	χ^2_{table}	Criteria
Pretest	7.73	3	7.81	Normal
Postest	5.73	3		Normal

The normality test was done to determine what statistical test was suitable to be used in answering the research hypothesis. Based on the calculation obtained the value of χ^2_{sum} is 7.73 <7.81. It can be concluded that the pretest data is normally distributed. The value of χ^2_{sum} for the posttest data is 5.73 <7.81 thus it is proven that the posttest data is normally distributed.

Table 4. Homogeneity Test

Source	Varians	Dk	F_{sum}	F_{tabel}	Criteria
Pretest	141.9	31	1.34	1.97	Having equavalent
Postest	105.8	21			criteria

The homogeneity test was used to determine the variance of the learning outcome data between the pretest and posttest data. Based on the calculation of the homogeneity test above,

for the pretest data sig value = 1.34 <1.97, it means that the data of pretest data and posttest are homogeneous.

The Results of Independent-Samples T-Test to Compare The Pre-Test and Post Test

The pretest data and posttest were carried out to determine whether there were differences in EFL reading comprehension outcomes between before and after being given blended learning. The results of the calculation of the difference test for two average paired sample t-tests are presented in the table below.

Table 5. Hypothesis Testing

Source	Mean	Dk	T_{sum}	t_{table}	criteria
Pretest	56.4	31	12.11	2.040	There is a
Postest	83.3	31			Difference

The results of the two average experiments data, pretest data, and posttest used the following hypothesis: H0: there are no differences in the level of the learning result in EFL reading comprehension between before and after being given a blended learning method. H1: There are differences in the results of learning to EFL reading comprehension between before and after being given a blended learning method.

The criteria of H0 acceptance is with a confidence level = 95% or P< *0.05*. the number of samples in the experimental group = 32, obtained t table = 2.04. H0 is accepted if - t table ≤ t count ≤ t table or H0 is rejected if (t count <- t table or t count> t table). In can be inferred that the significance level is lower than .05, it can be concluded that the difference in the students' mean gain scores in the pretest and post-test scores is significant. Therefore, the research null hypothesis stating is rejected here. It can be concluded that the blended learning method is proven to be significant in enhancing students' comprehension of English.

The Improvements of EFL Reading outcomes with Blended Learning

The analysis of the learning outcomes was conducted to find out how the blended learning method was able to improve learning outcomes in reading English.

Table 6. The learning Outcomes of Students Reading Comprehension Through Blended Learning

No.	Characteristic	Mean %		Improvement	% Improvement	Normal Gain	Criteria of G Factor
		Pre test	Posttest	pretest – posttest	pretest - posttest	pretest - posttest	pretest - posttest
1	Eksperiment Class	56.44	83.3	26.84	47.6%	61.6%	average

From the table above, it is found that the students reading mastery is improved after being given blended learning with a percentage of 61.6%.

Discussion

The research finding indicates that the teaching of EFL reading through blended learning model has a positive impact on the reading mastery of the students. Our results suggest that when blended learning instruction is applied in the learning of EFL reading comprehension, the students reading comprehension skill increases. This improvement will contribute to their academic achievements as stated by Carrel (as cited in Chahardeh and Khorasan, 2018) reading skills are very important to be mastered by students specifically for the academic field. Students are required to master EFL reading skills in the academics context to support their understanding of the academic books which are mostly available in the English version. No doubts, affective reading is very critical to support students to reach academic purposes.

The finding showed that there is a significant result in the use of blended learning in the EFL reading class. The statistical calculation has proven that a positive impact was performed by the students who are exposed with blended learning. This finding is in line with other EFL studies using blended learning. Those results of the studies suggested that blended learning is found to be an effective method for teaching EFL reading in the higher education context. This finding is in line with Kheirzadeh and Birgani(2018)blended learning has a positive and significant effect on reading comprehension among Iranian EFL students. This notion is supported by another research by Almasry(2012) who found that blended learning has a positive and significant effect on language learning with the former revealing that blended

learning has a positive effect on cognitive levels of learning English and the latter proving the positive effect of blended learning on reading comprehension. The result of the current research is proven that integrating traditional classroom activities with technology can help students to improve their EFL reading comprehension skills. This model of learning is personalized learning that allows students to practice flexibly based on their level of mastery so that significant progress is obtained.

Considering the nature of EFL college students who have been internet savvy, the use of technology, in this case, the utilization of digital and multimedia learning resources for EFL reading instructions, offers students with different kinds of learning aids that can help students to learn independently. Some difficulties are still faced by students as the use of multimedia-aided present English reading instructions requires them to deal with the computer. However, students have been adaptable to the challenges of the use of technology. Al-Jarf (2004) found the effect of blended learning on college readers. Significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups in their reading skills as measured by the posttest, proposing that reading achievement in the experimental group improved due to using online instruction. The current research has confirmed that the use of online instruction showed to be an effective tool to improve students' reading skills in English. Poon (2013) supports this idea that blended learning is an instructional model with a shift from teacher-centered to student-centered. The role of lecturers as facilitators has transformed and it enables the students to actively engaged in their learning and take more responsibility for their own learning while receiving encouragement from the lecturers.

New technologies which support a blended EFL instructional format, bring added advantages as well as challenges to the dynamic of language learning. The benefits include the ability to expand EFL learning beyond the time-bound walls of the classroom. Several barriers do exist which comprise the cost of technological innovations, which often prevent English lecturers from using computer-based instructional strategies. Limited facilities that support the integration of technology and teaching methods become a challenging issue for lecturers to monitor their online teaching. The minimum knowledge in the use of technology is also another problem faced by lecturers in their teaching activities, thus teacher training centers and institutions obviously play a crucial role in making teachers familiar with such classes. This training could be done both for teachers who are being trained to become teachers or those already engaged in the practice of pedagogy in the form of in-service courses (Mofrad,2017,201-209). This finding is in line with Whyte (as cited in Johnson and Marsh, 2014) that providing ICT resources to students becomes a relatively simple matter, but

encouraging effective use of such materials requires imagination and effort so that these resources become an integral part of foreign language instruction in universities.

Conclusion and Future Recommendation

The present study comes into the conclusion that web-based blended learning is an effective approach toward teaching EFL reading comprehension skill. The pedagogical value of blended learning is placed in the concept that its findings can be implemented for the growth of individual learning designs for university students with different levels of reading mastery. Theoretically, the results of the current research may give a big deal of contribution in the latest theories and models of teaching EFL reading comprehension to the university students, particularly in Indonesia context. Pedagogically, the results of the study seem to be more practical and compatible to some extent for university students in Indonesia particularly for those who encounter problems regarding their English reading comprehension. The results of the current study are applicable to EFL students in developing their EFL reading ability by strengthening their knowledge of reading different types of texts in English. It also enables students to be more independent by having individual learning in the online platform with the directions from lecturers in the in-class face-to-face meeting. the material developers are able to make changes in their materials, developing some especial websites in addition to their books to influence the quality of pedagogy as well as improving the learners' capability to be innovative in their performance on learning.

Blended learning in the context of higher education is seen as an opportunity to personalize student learning plans to improve their EFL reading mastery. Therefore, pedagogical implications for practice that it is important to take synergy between blended learning and teaching strategies that are supported by an academic environment that is equipped with learning facilities for online learning and face-to-face learning, and teaching scenarios prepared before starting the session.

References

Abdelhalim, S. M. (2017). Developing EFL Students' Reading Comprehension and Reading Engagement: Effects of a Proposed Instructional Strategy. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *7*(1), 37. doi:10.17507/tpls.0701.05

Al-Jarf, R. S. (2004). The Effects of Web-Based Learning on Struggling EFL College Writers. *Foreign Language Annals*, *37*(1), 49-57. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2004.tb02172.x

Al-Masry, N. M. (2012). *The Effectiveness of Using Blended Learning in Teaching A unit in English language in Second Secondary Class in Mecca* (Unpublished master's thesis). Om El-Qua University, Mecca, Saudi Arabia.

Baker, C. (2010). The Impact of Instructor Immediacy and Presence for Online Student Affective Learning, Cognition, and Motivation. *The Journal of Educators Online*, *7*(1). doi:10.9743/jeo.2010.1.2

Challob, A. I., Bakar, N. A., & Latif, H. (2016). Collaborative Blended Learning Writing Environment: Effects on EFL Students' Writing Apprehension and Writing Performance. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(6), 229. doi:10.5539/elt.v9n6p229

Davis, H. C., & Fill, K. (2007). Embedding blended learning in a university's teaching culture: Experiences and reflections. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *38*(5), 817-828. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8535.2007.00756.x

Ghazizadeh, T., & Fatemipour, H. (2017). The Effect of Blended Learning on EFL Learners' Reading Proficiency. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *8*(3), 606. doi:10.17507/jltr.0803.21

Hudson, T. (2007). *Teaching Second Language Reading: A guide to teaching reading skills for teachers of English as a foreign language*. Oxford, England: OUP Oxford.

Indonesia ranks second-last in the reading interest:Study. (2016, August 29). *the jakarta post* [Jakarta]. Retrieved from https://www.thejakartapost.com/life/2016/08/29/indonesia-ranks-second-last-in-reading-interest-study.html.

Johnson, C., & Marsh, D. (2014). Blended Language Learning: An Effective Solution but not Without Its Challenges. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, *4*(3), 23. doi:10.18870/hlrc.v4i3.213

Khasawneh, D. F. (2010). *The impact of a strategy based language learning program on the achievement of Jordanian students less successful in English* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Yarmouk University, Irbid.

Khorasani, R., & Mirhosseini Chahardeh, S. M. (2018). The Effect of Pre-teaching New Vocabulary Items via Audio-Visuals on Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Ability. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, *3*(1), 19-27. doi:10.29252/ijree.3.1.19

Kuh, G. D. (2009). The national survey of student engagement: Conceptual and empirical foundations. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, *2009*(141), 5-20. doi:10.1002/ir.283

Kheirzadeh, S., & Birgani, M. B. (n.d.).(2018). Exploring the Effectiveness of Blended Learning in Improving Reading Comprehension among Iranian EFL Students. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, *5*(1), 106-120. Retrieved from http://www.jallr.com/index.php/JALLR/article/view/771/pdf771

Ladkin, D., Case, P., Gayá Wicks, P., & Kinsella, K. (2009). Developing Leaders in Cyber-space: The Paradoxical Possibilities of On-line Learning. *Leadership*, *5*(2), 193-212. doi:10.1177/1742715009102930.

Mofrad, E. Z. (2017). Enhancing EFL Learners' Writing Capability in a Blended Learning Environment: The Effects of Learning Styles. *EFL JOURNAL*, *5*(3), 201-209. Retrieved from http://www.eltsjournal.org/archive/value5%20issue3/23-5-3-17.pdf

Oh, E., & Park, S. (2009). How are universities involved in blended instruction? *Educational Technology & Society*, *12*(13). Retrieved from https://www.j-ets.net/ets/journals/12_3/26.pdf.

Palmer, R. (2012). A Third Way: Online Labs Integrated With Print Materials. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *2*(1), 1. doi:10.17509/ijal.v2i1.660.

Poon, J. (2013). An examination of a blended learning approach in the teaching of economics to property and construction students. *Property Management*, *31*(1), 39-54. doi:10.1108/02637471311295405

Snow, C. (2002). *Reading for Understanding: Toward an R&D Program in Reading Comprehension*. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corporation.

Ting, K., & Chao, M. (2013). The Application of Self-Regulated Strategies to Blended Learning. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(7). doi:10.5539/elt.v6n7p26.

Weiler, A. (2005). Information-Seeking Behavior in Generation Y Students: Motivation, Critical Thinking, and Learning Theory. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, *31*(1), 46-53. doi:10.1016/j.acalib.2004.09.009

Wu, H. J. (2011). Anxiety and Reading Comprehension Performance in English as a Foreign Language. *Asian EFL Journal*, *13*(2), 273-307. Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/567/main-journals/anxiety-and-reading-comprehension-performance-in-english-as-a-foreign-language/#squelch-taas-tab-content-0-3

William, J. C. (2013). *Generational perspective of online higher education student learning styles* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Montana University, Montana.