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Analysis of Speech Act Patterns in Two Egyptian Inaugural Speeches

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Abstract

The theory of speech acts, which clarifies what people do when they speak, is not about individual words or sentences that form the basic elements of human communication, but rather about particular speech acts that are performed when uttering words. A speech act is the attempt at doing something purely by speaking. Many things can be done by speaking. Speech acts are studied under what is called speech act theory, and belong to the domain of pragmatics. In this paper, two Egyptian inaugural speeches from El-Sadat and El-Sisi, belonging to different periods were analyzed to find out whether there were differences within this genre in the same culture or not. The study showed that there was a very small difference between these two speeches which were analyzed according to Searle's theory of speech acts. In El Sadat's speech, commissives came to occupy the first place. Meanwhile, in El-Sisi's speech, assertives occupied the first place. Within the speeches of one culture, we can find that the differences depended on the circumstances that surrounded the elections of the Presidents at the time. Speech acts were tools they used to convey what they wanted and to obtain support from their audiences.

Keywords: Speech acts, pragmatics, discourse, critical discourse analysis, inaugural speech.

1. INTRODUCTION

The theory of speech acts was introduced by J. L. Austin in 1960 (Austin, 1962) and further developed by Searle (1969) and Bach and Harnish (1979). Three aspects of a speech act are distinguished by Austin (1962) to: the illocutionary act (saying something), the illocutionary force (what is intended to be done by speaking) and the perlocutionary effect (the effect of what has been said). Nowadays, the term speech act is often used to refer specifically to an illocutionary act and illocutionary force to

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denote the intended effect because the illocutionary act is considered as the real action performed by the utterance, while the effect of the utterance on the audience is manifested by the perlocutionary effect. Austin (1962) uses the term illocutionary act to refer to the speech act which is the center of his theory. This theory cannot be understood in isolation regardless of its intent which is pragmatics, which means the study of the use of utterances.

A speaker of a language must acquire extra-linguistic knowledge about the world in addition to his linguistic knowledge (vocabulary and rules of grammar) to succeed in communicating with others. The non-linguistic knowledge plays a major role in the production and understanding of certain utterances. An utterance cannot make sense without it being made in a suitable context that contains all necessary conditions required for the successful communication. These conditions, the speaker's communicative competence, his choice of linguistic forms and the relationship between the speaker and the listeners are all studied within the scope of pragmatics.

Accordingly, this paper intends to analyze the speech acts in the inaugural speeches of two Egyptian politicians, El-Sadat and El-Sisi. The author further wants to discover if there are any differences between the forms of these two speeches. The process of speech produced by these speakers has a complex set of intentions that would be interesting to describe in this research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Speech Acts Theories

2.1.1 Austin's Theory

Austin (1962) and, later, Searle (1969) developed the theory of speech acts which clarifies what people do when they speak. In the lectures by Austin (1962), which were collected and presented with the title, "How to do Things with Words", says that the form of any sentence carries a message which requires an action from the addressee. Austin (1962) further says that a speech act is the attempt at doing something purely by speaking. Many things can be done by speaking. Anyone can make a promise, an order or can request somebody to do something, can ask a question, make a threat, pronounce somebody husband and wife, and so on. Each one of them reflects a particular speech act.

In a majority of cases, many utterances cannot constitute an appropriate speech act without the presence of appropriate conditions. An utterance like "clean up your room" is not appropriate if the speaker does not have an appropriate relationship to the addressee. No one can pronounce somebody husband and wife without having the appropriate authority. Yule (1996, p. 47) states that the sentence such as "You are fired!" must be uttered by a speaker with the power to "fire" someone because it is the act of terminating the employment of the addressee. Both the speaker and the listener are involved in this action that is surrounded by certain circumstances, which are called the speech event. The following sentence, "This tea is really cold" can be interpreted in two ways, either it is a complaint or it is praise. What determines the sense of this sentence is the state of the weather. If it is uttered on a really hot summer day, its

meaning is to praise, but if it is uttered on a bitterly cold, wintry day, its meaning will be the opposite or a complaint.

Austin (1962) uses the term illocutionary act to refer to the speech act which is the center of his theory. It is the action intended to be performed by the production of the locutionary act. Saeed (2006, p. 4) points out that the illocutionary act “is what Austin and his successors have mainly been concerned with: the use to which language can be put in society. In fact, the term speech acts is often used with just the meaning of illocutionary acts”.

Austin (1962) initiated the theory of speech acts as a reaction to many earlier theories of linguistics which disregarded language as action. It was first initiated as a theory of thinking but has been developed by him to be known as the “speech act theory”. After Austin, Searle (1969) adopted and modified it in his influential book “Speech Acts”.

Austin (1962) categorizes speech acts depending on the characteristics of verbs and their illocutionary forces. He classifies illocutionary acts into five types, even though such classification seems difficult to do or to understand since there are a lot of potential illocutionary acts, and in many cases the speaker’s intentions are vague. These types are (Austin, 1962, pp. 150-151):

(i) Verdicatives

This class of speech acts is used to express verdicts, judgments or findings such as to appreciate, characterize, assess, estimate, value, grade, etc.

(ii) Exercitives

This class of speech acts aims at showing the exercise of powers, rights or influence such as naming, sentencing, appointing, ordering, dedicating, dismissing, claiming, etc. For examples, when a judge says, “I sentence you to five years”, or when an angry boss says, “You’re fired”.

(iii) Commissives

The speech acts in this class indicate commitment or promises of different kinds or the taking on of an obligation or the expression of a future intention. The verbs belonging to this classification are promises, plans, guarantees, swearing in, betting, etc. They commit the speaker to doing something in the future. For example, “I promise to stand beside you”.

(iv) Behabitives

The verbs for this group of speech acts embrace expressions of attitude and social behavior such as apologies, congratulations, compliments, welcomes, etc.

(v) Expositives

According to Austin (1962, p. 152), this classification cannot be defined easily. The verbs of this type are not clear cut because they overlap with other classes but the general performative nature of individual utterances is often quite clear. Verbs such as hypothesize, expect, assume, remark, concede, etc., belong to this type.

2.1.2 Searle’s Theory

Searle (1969) claims the appropriate conditions by Austin are only accounted for ritual and ceremonial speech acts, such as pronouncing a couple husband and wife. Searle (1979) further criticizes the classifications Austin (1962) because he said they were based on overlapping criteria. Moreover, Searle (1979) says that Austin did not clarify the difference between speech act verbs and actual speech acts. He also noted

that some verbs can be found in more than one class, mentioning the verb ‘to describe’, which is included by Austin (1962) in the two classes of “verdicatives” and “expositives”. Besides, some verbs were classified under a certain type but they did not satisfy the definition for that type. For example, the verbs “appoint”, “nominate” and “excommunicate” do not designate the “giving of a decision in favor of or against a certain course of action”.

As a result, Searle (1979) replaced the classification of Austin (1962) with an alternative taxonomy based on appropriate conditions. It is important to note that Searle depends on twelve significant dimensions of variations in which illocutionary acts differ one from another but the focus is on three dimensions around which Searle builds most of his taxonomy. They are the illocutionary point, the direction of fit, and the sincerity condition Searle (1979). The dimensions are explained as follows (Searle, 1979, pp. 12-17):

(i) The Illocutionary Point

The point or purpose of a type of illocution that Searle calls the illocutionary point is part of, but not the same as, the illocutionary force. In this sense, it can be said that the illocutionary point of a request is the same as that of a command (both of them attempt to get the addressee to do something) but the illocutionary force is different. One can say that several elements participate to form an illocutionary force and that an illocutionary point is one of them.

(ii) Dimension of Fit

There are differences in the direction of fit between words and the world. Some illocutions have as part of their illocutionary point to match the world of words, others to get the world to match the words. Searle illustrates that by mentioning this situation:

A man goes to the supermarket with a shopping list given to him by his wife, on which are the words “beans, butter, bread and bacon”. Suppose that he goes around with his shopping cart, selecting those items, meanwhile he is followed by a store detective who writes down everything he puts in his cart. It is clear from this situation that both shopper and detective have identical lists. But the function of the two lists is quite different. In the case of the shopper’s list, the purpose of the list is to get the world to match the words; the man is supposed to make his actions fit the list. The reverse is true concerning the detective, the purpose of his list is to make the words match the world; the detective makes the list fit the actions of the shopper.

(iii) Propositional Content

Differences in propositional content are determined by indicating devices for illocutionary force. This dimension relies on the differences between a report and a prediction. A prediction must be about the future whereas a report is about the past or the present.

As for speech acts, Searle (1979) further divides them into five types: assertives (representative), directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives. They are further explained as the following:

(1) Assertive (Representative)

Searle (1979) states the aim of this class is to commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to something being the case, e.g., to the truth of the expressed proposition. The verbs belonging to this class are assert, complain, report, state, conclude, etc.

(2) Directives

These are attempts (in varying degrees) by the speaker to get the hearer to do something. They may be very modest “attempts” as when “I invite you to do it”, or “suggest that you do it”, or they may be very fierce attempts as when “I insist that you do it”. Verbs belonging to this class are ask, order, command, request, plead, beg, pray, entreat, advise, invite and permit.

(3) Commissives

This type commits a speaker to some future intentional action. It reveals the intention of the speaker. It denotes to vows, threats, pledges, warranties, contracts, promises, agreements, and oaths. For example, “I promise to drink eight glasses of water every day”. Thus, [Searle \(1979\)](#) states that the definition of commissives by [Austin \(1962\)](#) seems to him unexceptional, therefore he appropriates it as it stands with the caveat that several of the verbs that Austin listed as commissive verbs do not belong to this class at all, such as “favor”, “intend” and others.

(4) Expressives

The illocutionary point expressed in this class is to reflect a sincere wish about some condition or situation. Examples of verbs that belong to this class are “congratulate”, “apologize”, “condole”, “deplore” and “welcome”.

(5) Declaratives

This successful performance of one of its member verbs requires the correspondence between the propositional content and reality. For examples, if someone successfully performs the act of appointing someone else chairman, then he becomes chairman; if someone successfully performs the act of nominating somebody as a candidate, then he becomes a candidate; if the president successfully performs the act of declaring a state of war, then a war is on; if a judge successfully performs the act of marrying a couple, then the couple are married.

2.1.3 Bach and Harnish Model

A model synthesizing both Austin’s and Searle’s models were adopted by [Bach and Harnish \(1979\)](#) in which a communicative speech act involves four sub-acts ([Bach & Harnish, 1979, p. 40](#)):

(a) Utterance Act

An expression is uttered by the speaker to a listener in the context of an utterance.

(b) Locutionary Act

A speaker says to a listener in the context of an utterance so-and-so.

(c) Illocutionary Act

A speaker says such-and-such in the context of an utterance.

(d) Perlocutionary Act

A speaker affects the listener in a certain way.

[Bach and Harnish \(1979\)](#) describe many types of illocutionary acts in their taxonomy of speech acts. Their work is more comprehensive and has a detailed scheme to it. They distinguish six general classes which are based on the speaker’s psychological state or attitude, as it is called by them. Two of these classes are conventional: *verdicatives* and *effectives*, while the others are communicative speech acts such as *directives*, *commissives*, *constatives* and *acknowledgements*. The last four classes barely correspond to Austin’s *exercitives*, *commissives*, *expositives* and

behabitives, respectively, but they are close to those of Searle's which are directives, commissives, representatives and expressives.

(e) Constatives

These express the speaker's belief and his intention or desire that the listener have or form like a belief.

(f) Directives

These express the speaker's attitude towards some prospective action by the listener and his intention that his utterance, or the attitude which it expresses is taken as a reason for the listener to take action.

(g) Commissives

These express the speaker's intention and belief that his utterance obligates him to do something (perhaps under certain conditions).

(h) Acknowledgements

These express a certain feeling towards the listener or in special cases where the utterance is clearly perfunctory or formal. The speaker's intention is that that his utterance satisfies a social expectation to express certain feelings and his belief that it does.

(i) Effectives

These conventional illocutionary acts effect changes in institutional states of affairs; they are necessarily conventional in as much as they achieve their effect only because they are mutually believed to do so. For examples: "A student is graduated" and "A bill is voted".

(j) Verdicatives

These are judgments that by convention have official, binding impact in the context of the institution in which they occur. Calling a runner out, finding a defendant guilty and making a property assessment are not just to make a judgment and give authority to a judge but also to make them the case.

2.2 Pragmatics

An utterance cannot make sense without a suitable context that contains all necessary conditions required for the successful communication. These conditions, the speaker's communicative competence, his choice of linguistic forms and the relationship between the speaker and the listener or addressee are all studied within the scope of pragmatics.

According to [Bussmann \(1998\)](#) pragmatics is the science that studies the relationship between natural language expressions and their use in specific situations. The traces of this science extend to [Morris \(1938\)](#) who proposed the first definition of pragmatics. He stated that pragmatics refers to the relationship of signs to their user(s). [Morris \(1938\)](#) said that the difference between pragmatics and semantics is that both of them investigate different aspects of linguistic meaning. The first one deals with the function of linguistic utterances and the propositions that are expressed by them, depending upon their use in a specific situation while the latter studies the literal and contextually non-variable meaning of linguistic expressions or with the contextually non-variable side of the truth, conditions of propositions or sentences.

[Wales \(1989, p. 368\)](#) has said that the term pragmatics was originally derived from the Greek word "pragma" which carries the meaning of activity, deed and affair. [Crystal \(1997\)](#) argues that pragmatics and syntactics form the components or divisions

of semiotics. Crystal (1997) states that in spite of the fact that there is a clear difference between the two fields, they are interrelated and interwoven, since the total meaning of any piece of language in actual use is the product of its semantic and pragmatic aspects. In short, the foregoing discussion shows that the field of pragmatics occupies an area between semantics, sociolinguistics and extra-linguistic contexts. Crystal (1991) further says that pragmatics has witnessed a huge development to include the factors that govern the speaker's choice of language in social interaction. It also investigates the effects of this choice on others. Pragmatics draws and presents certain rules and principles (often conventional) that constrain the way people speak. Many expressions may have different meanings which are determined by pragmatic principles rather than by formal rules of language.

All the definitions mentioned above agree that the main role of pragmatics is to study two things simultaneously. The former is the use of language in context while the latter deals with studying the behavior of the speaker and the listener.

2.3 Discourse

Stubbs (1983) defines discourse as the language above the clause. Looking at the structural properties, such as organization and coherence, is the focus of the first approach while the second pays attention to the social ideas that inform the way people use and interpret language. A second approach by Brown and Yule (1983) has also received attention. They state that the analysis of discourse means the analysis of language in use because it cannot merely be restricted to the description of linguistic forms without focusing on the purposes or functions which these forms are formed or designed to serve in human affairs. Richardson (2007) also states that discourse implies the fact that language is used to mean something and to do something and that this meaning and doing is linked to the context of its usage.

According to Talbot (2007), the interpretation of any text in an appropriate manner needs to work out or discover what the speaker or writer is doing through discourse and link this doing to the wider interpersonal institutional, socio-cultural and material contexts. Talbot (2007, p. 9) states that "text refers to the observable product of interaction, whereas discourse is the process of interaction itself: a cultural activity". Thus, Fairclough (1992, p. 62) sees discourse in a different way, saying that it is a social practice which implies a two-way relationship between a discursive event (any use of discourse) and the situation, institution and social structure in which it occurs. Discourse is shaped by these, but it also shapes itself.

2.4 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

The relationship between discourse, power, dominance and social inequality and how discourse reproduces and maintains these relations of dominance and inequality is the focus of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Dijk (1993) states that because of analysts' concerns with the analysis of the often opaque relationships between discourse practices and wider social and cultural structures, CDA practitioners take an explicit socio-political stance (Dijk, 1993).

According to Fairclough (2001), CDA is concerned with the analysis of text and interactions but it does not start from texts and interactions. Problems which face people in their social lives and issues which are taken up with sociology, political science

and/or cultural studies form the starting point and the milestones of this science. Fairclough (1992) further maintains that discourse (the use of language in speech and writing) should be regarded as a social practice. He states that every instance of language use has three dimensions: it is a spoken or written language text, it is an interaction between people involving processes of producing and interpreting the text and it is a piece of social practice. This view of discourse implies dealing with issues such as institutional circumstance of the discursive event and how that forms or shapes the nature of the discursive practices and the constitutive effects of discourse.

The analysis of linguistic structures, which are attributed a crucial function in the social production of inequality and/or equality, power, ideology and manipulation is the general thrust in CDA. Both linguistic structures and visual structures express ideological meanings and contribute to the overall meaning of texts. CDA focuses on the hidden ideologies that are reflected, constructed and reinforced in everyday institutional discourse. The definition of ideology falls into two broad categories: a relativist definition (denoting systems of ideas, beliefs and practices) and a critical definition (that allies with Marxist theory), which sees it as working in the interests of social class and /or cultural groups.

2.5 Inaugural Speeches

The most important political discourses are presidential inaugural speeches. They are of great significance to the new president, because they form a very special moment when he stands before the whole nation or even the whole world to express his fundamental political policies and principles for the country's development during the period of his presidency. Depending totally on this kind of discourse, the presidents' aims are at convincing citizens, boosting their morale, motivating the confidence of people and seeking the largest amount of support from his citizens. To achieve this task, they carefully weigh their words in their speech, and polish them by resorting to different language skills and strategies.

Metaphor is one of the strategies that can be used to convince listeners. It appears to be adopted widely and also used effectively. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metaphors are pervasive in daily life, not just in language but also in thought and action. Conceptualizing a particular concept in terms of another is regarded the best way that enables addressees to understand some abstract concepts much easier and clearer than by adopting words that have concrete referents. Metaphor is a means to manifest or clarify the speech acts utilized by politicians.

Harry Caplan, as quoted in Campbell and Jamieson (1990), said that epideictic or demonstrative discourse motivates the speaker to impress his ideas upon the audience without action as a goal. If these characteristics are found, presidential inaugurals are epideictic rhetoric because they are delivered on ceremonial occasions, link or connect past with future in present contemplation, and affirm or praise the shared principles that have a significant role in guiding the incoming administration. They also ask the audience to 'gaze upon' traditional values, employ or use elegant, literary language relying on the heightening of the effect by amplification and reaffirmation of what is already known and believed.

The general qualities of epideictic rhetoric modified by the nature of presidential investiture generate five interrelated elements that define the essential presidential

inaugural address and differentiate it from other types of epideictic rhetoric (Moore, 2016):

- i). Unify the audience.
- ii). Rehearse communal values drawn from the past.
- iii). Set forth political principles of the new administration.
- iv). Enact the requirements and limitations of the office.
- v). Use appropriate epideictic address strategies.

3. METHOD

Two models were adopted to analyze two inaugural Egyptian speeches belonging to the same culture but delivered at two different periods. The first one was the one delivered by El-Sadat in 1970 and the second one was delivered by El-Sisi in 2014. The model by Searle (1969) was used to analyze the data specifying the kind of sentences produced, whether it is commissive or directive. This model is supported by the model of Ferrara (1980) in which she proves that speech acts contract relationships with one another in a sequence. In most cases, speech acts do not usually occur in isolation in real life but they come as clusters or sequences. These speech acts in sequences are normally related to one another; while they share a different status in the flow of the speaker's actions.

Ferrara (1980) also states that the assertion act can establish a justificatory relationship because its propositional context describes a state of affairs which, by virtue of a culturally shared belief, can induce a favorable attitude. Thus, in more general terms, the additional condition of success which must be met by a subordinate speech act in order to realize a justificatory relationship with the main act in the sequence is that it must be able to relate to a state of world capable of inducing a favorable attitude toward a set of actions to which the main act belongs. Her model depends on discovering the relationships among the speech acts within one sequence where she distinguishes three relationships which are: justification, contrastive apposition and amplification.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 El-Sadat's Inaugural Speech

S1 *I have received your directive (assertive), and I pray to Almighty God that I will perform the task (commissive) which you have entrusted to me in a manner satisfactory to our people and nation and compatible with the ideals laid down by the memorable leader (assertive) and for which he gave everything, from life to death (assertive).*

In S1 (S refers to Speech, meanwhile the number 1 refers to the first sample extraction presented in this paper), there are four speech acts corresponding to four messages which are contained or outlined above. The illocutionary point in the first speech act is to inform people around the world that this is the case in Egypt where the new president is elected according to a directive of the Egyptians. Its direction of fit is

words to world: the citizens elected the new president by their will. The expressed psychological state is belief (that P): the speaker believes the expressed proposition and tries to make the listener to believe it, too. The relevant speech act, therefore, satisfies or fulfills assertive conditions: it is an assertive speech act.

The illocutionary point in the second speech act, *"I will perform the task"*, is to emphasize that the newly elected president will do his best to be an ideal President and do the task in a manner that satisfies all Egyptians. The direction of fit is that of world to words. The expressed psychological state of this speech act is the pledge to do the task. In this regard, we face a clearly commissive speech act. This speech act carries the main goal of this paragraph where the first comes to be a justification of this main goal with a desire of motivation. The main goal is to ensure that the president will do his duty as an elected president while the sub-goal is to provide good justification for the pledge outlined in the second speech act. This is done via an expression indicating commitment to something being the case (*"I have received your directive"*). In other words, the first is the basis for the pledge that follows. The main point of the sequence is contained in the commissive, such that the assertive is merely a supportive device providing motivation for the main act. As the main act, the commissive dominates the illocutionary goal. The assertive, though a subordinate act, contributes to the achievement of the main goal by providing a sufficiently compelling reason for, or one that is at least capable of inducing compliance with the commissive. The realization of the main goal is, of course, the perlocutionary intention.

The illocutionary point in the third speech act, *"you have entrusted this task to me"*, presents an amplification of the first one but they are mediated by a commissive speech act. It informs the people that he is here to satisfy people's desires and will. The expressed psychological state is belief (that P): the speaker believes the expressed proposition and also wants the listener to believe it, too. The conditions of assertiveness are manifested in this speech.

The fourth speech act is *"the memorable leader gave everything, from life to death to do this task"*. Its illocutionary point is to inform the audience that this task needs sacrifice for it to be achieved and he is ready to do by imitating his fellow (the memorable leader, Jamal Abdul Nasser). The direction of fit is to make words fits the world. It amplifies the first and third ones because all of them have something in common. The first, third and the fourth come to provide a justification for the main speech act which is manifested in the second speech act. These three justifications can be mentioned before the main speech act but the last one mediates them for stylistic purposes.

In other words, it can be said that while the first comes to function as pre-justification, the third and fourth are for post-justification. The assertive and commissive speech acts of this paragraph have a hierarchical order occurring along a dominance-subordination line based on the intuitive notion of the main point. The main objective of this paragraph is to ensure that the new president will do the task in a way that satisfies all the people while the sub-goal is to provide justification for the main objective. The claim that the president has received the directive from the Egyptian people forms the basis for the pledge that follows. The third and fourth commissive speech acts contract a relationship of amplification with the first one aiming at providing reasonable justifications for the main speech act.

Table 1 shows El-Sadat's frequency of speech acts in his speech. From the table, it can be seen that commissive was used the most (45%), followed by assertive (35%) and directive and expressive, each with 10%.

Table 1. The frequency of speech acts in El-Sadat's speech.

<i>Speech Acts</i>	<i>Frequencies</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Assertive	11	35 %
Commissive	14	45 %
Directive	3	10 %
Expressive	3	10 %
Declarative	0	0 %
Total number of acts	31	100 %

4.2 El-Sisi's Inaugural Speech

S2 *It is high time for our great people to reap the fruits of their two revolutions (assertive). Our people have never spared any effort and (have) sacrificed their blood and (their) lives for realizing their legitimate hopes and aspirations (assertive). The success of revolutions lies in attaining their goals and their ability to (achieve) change(s) for the better and in being effectively able to build (assertive). It is high time to build a future which is more stable and establish a new reality for the future of this nation (commissive). It is a reality where we adopt hard work as a style of our life in an effort to guarantee decent living conditions and provide us with an opportunity to maintain and enhance the rights and freedoms within an aware and responsible framework away from chaos and through a comprehensive national march (commissive) in which every party listens to the other(s) in an objective and interested way (assertive). We may differ for the sake of the nation, but we never differ over the nation (assertive).*

The sample in S2 contains seven speech acts in all. The illocutionary point in the first speech act, “*It is high time for our great people to reap the fruits of their two revolutions*”, is to assert, as it were, the present reality of life in Egypt, as a way of expressing knowledge of what the people are experiencing. Its direction of fit is words-to-world: the words tell us what obtains — it is the case that Egyptians were going through a hard time while reaping the fruits of their two revolutions. The expressed psychological state of speech act is the belief (that P): the speaker believes the expressed proposition and also wants the listeners to believe it, too. In this connection, we are presented with an assertive speech act.

The second speech act amplifies the first one clarifying that the efforts and the blood of the Egyptians will get their “*fruits*” or results and that the Egyptians will attain their goal(s) and will have the ability to change their reality into a better one. Its direction of fit is words-to-world: the words tell us what is the situation in Egypt. Its expressed psychological state is belief (that P): this speech act, therefore, fulfills conditions that identify assertives.

The third speech act upholds the second speech act by telling the people that the success of these two revolutions depends on achieving the desired objectives. Its direction of fit is words-to-world: the words tell us that the two revolutions will succeed and achieve their goals. The expressed psychological state of the speech act is belief

(that P): the speaker believes the expressed proposition and also wants the listener to believe it, too. In this regard, we are faced with an assertive speech act.

The illocutionary point in the fourth speech act reflects a commissive speech act in which the new president promises to build a future which is more stable and (to) establish a new reality for the future of his nation. Its direction of fit is words-to-world: the words tell us that the newly elected president is aware of his responsibilities and (that) he will change the present situation into a rosy one in the future. Its expressed psychological state is that of a pledge.

The fifth speech act functions as amplification of the preceding one where the speaker emphasizes that to reach the objective of the fifth speech act he must be hard-working. It is thus a commissive speech act. The last two speech acts are assertive. They conjoin with the first, second and the third to form a good justification for the main speech act which is manifested in the fourth one.

Table 2 shows El-Sisi's frequency of speech acts in his speech. From the table, it can be seen that assertive was used the most (42%), followed by commissive (27%), directive and expressive, both with 12% each, and finally declarative (6%).

Table 2. The frequency of speech acts in Al Sisi's speech.

<i>Speech Acts</i>	<i>Frequencies</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Assertive	14	42 %
Commissive	9	27 %
Directive	4	12 %
Expressive	4	12 %
Declarative	2	6 %
Total number of acts	33	100 %

5. CONCLUSION

Speech acts are used in this genre because the speaker uses them as tools by which he can convey what he wants and get the support of his audience. Grammatically, speech acts can be realized in different syntactic structures (complex, compound or simple sentences, phrases, statements or expressions). They have no fixed standard forms and belong to the assertive category in general.

Semantically, metaphors are usually used to reflect meanings rather than to be literal. This is owing to the fact that their use and application to the situation is not literal or direct. The same speech act can carry more than one message; therefore a proposed model of two theories is adopted to emphasize that a specific sentence is a commissive one regardless of its form.

The most convincing classification is that of [Searle \(1969\)](#) since it describes illocutionary acts according to their communicative purposes in society. Nevertheless, the three classifications, those of Austin, of Searle and of Bach and Harnish, all run into some difficulties and are in fact unable to cover the whole range of speech acts in language. The theory of speech acts was realized by Arab leaders hundreds of years ago in the course of their investigations into pragmatic meaning as an essential part of general meaning. They placed the theory of speech acts within the general theory of rhetoric rather than within pragmatics.

Most sentences with this genre should be seen as speech acts since they are used in the context of every day communication with the same functions as those of

utterances. Thus, they often posit an order, prohibition, recommendation, warning, etc. In most cases, they are indirect speech acts in the sense that their meanings are metaphorical and derived indirectly on the basis of their literal interpretation.

Within the speeches of one culture, we can find differences depending on the circumstances that surround the election of the president. This is clear through the speeches of El-Sadat and El-Sisi. In El-Sadat's speech, commissives come to occupy the first rank. This is due to the difficult situation that El-Sadat faced at that time. Meanwhile, in El-Sisi's speech, assertives occupy the first place. This finding supports Ferrara's theory that says that this category comes to be justification of commissives and directives. Directives have the third rank in these two speeches. Expressives are in the fourth rank, whilst declaratives have very little value in these speeches.

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The Functions of Code Switching in an English Language Classroom

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to determine the functions of code-switching when used by a lecturer in teaching her students during interactions in the teaching and learning of English. This research was conducted at one of the campuses in Serang Banten. This qualitative research used the methods for ethnography of communication. The techniques and procedures for data collection used observation, recordings and transcriptions. Based on data analysis, the use of code switching in the ESL classroom was used to facilitate interactions when learning was taking place. Based on the analysis, the functions of code switching of the lecturer when interacting with her in the class are: (1) clarification, (2) reiteration or repetition, (3) explanation, (4) asking, (5) translation, (6) checking for understanding, (7) emphasizing a language element, (8) making inferences, (9) developing vocabulary, (10) class discussions of student tasks, (11) giving feedback, (12) aiding memorization, (13) class management and (14) entertainment and general communications. The result of this research is expected to be useful especially for teachers in the field of language to understand the functions and the effectiveness of code switching in the classroom.

Keywords: Code switching, English learning, ethnography communication.

1. INTRODUCTION

Code switching in the sociolinguistic field of foreign language teaching studies was a major subject of scientific studies in the past. Recently, code-switching has again attracted a considerable amount of attention. It has become an interesting phenomenon to study in particular the usage of language in society because it is part of the development processes and the use of multiple languages (i.e. bilingualism and

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multilingualism). About the choice of code, code switching is used by people who are bilingual and multilingual (Wardhaugh, 2006).

The reasons cannot be separated from the influence of linguistic diversity in a community of people who intermingle to form a mixture of language that they can understand. For example, a group who speaks Language A mix with the people who speaks Language B, when both communities interact, naturally these people develop some form of code switching. In fact, that is show the English language developed from its Germanic origins; and has words in it from Latin, French, Arabic, Tamil and many other languages including Malay.

Hence, the use of code switching usually occurs during foreign language teaching-learning processes especially when studying English based on the different backgrounds and reasons (Yusuf, 2009). Sert (2005, p. 1) states “in ELT classrooms, code switching comes into use either in the teachers’ or the students’ discourse”. Code switching exists in English classrooms and has many code variations.

In the case of Indonesia, English language, even though treated as a foreign language, is a compulsory subject in all school levels. A statement given by TESOL (2008, p. 1) affirms that “English is seen less and less as a “foreign” language, and more as an additional language. In other words, learning English is no longer viewed as something optional, but essential”. This is especially so since all of Indonesia’s neighbouring countries and major trading partners and international organisations to which Indonesia belongs to use primarily English as a means of communication.

In the end, one of the goals of EFL (English Foreign Language) teacher is to have the students speak English as much as possible, especially when they are in the English classroom. Hancock (1997, p. 217) further stresses “to promote communicative competence, learners must get practice in communicative exchanges in the classroom”. So, to improve communication competence in English, teachers must do more exercises in English in the classroom. For that the English teachers should also be able to speak English fluently when teaching-learning students so that learning is effective. In reality both teachers and students still perform code switching or code mixing even at the highest levels of education for various needs and objectives.

Various researchers have studied code switching that occurs in a bilingual classroom over the last two decades. The research began with educational research into the classroom interaction styles of language teachers. The study of code switching has generally been done within a sociolinguistic framework where researchers and linguists study the communications symptoms that occur in bilingual and multilingual societies. Code switching can be examined from various viewpoints such as the form, location, patterns, and functions of code switching and code mixing itself. In this case the researcher describes and discusses code-switching based on the functions which it serves an English classroom.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Bilingualism, or as we more often hear the term bilingual, means the ability to use two languages or language codes. Many sociolinguistics research studies that examine the issues of language codes are closely related to studies of bilingualism. Explanations about the concept of bilingualism are always changing. The term was first introduced by Bloomfield (1935, p. 56) who says bilingualism as the ability to use two languages

or to have “native like control of two languages”. Moreover, [Milroy and Gordon \(2003\)](#) say the instance of switching code is the use of multiple languages alternately by bilingual speakers.

Bilingual and multilingual people generally tend to switch language codes during their conversations. Code switching that occurs in the community is often regarded as a strategy for use in conversations. Sometimes this strategy is used in terms of stylistic influence, which relates to its use for reinforcing or weakening speech acts such as requests, denials, switching topics, elaborations or comments, validations, or clarifications ([Heller, 2007](#)). The use of code has a value of naturalness for particular speech events within the community of bilingual speakers.

Many experts have given clear definition of code switching and its difference from other terms. Among them is [Gumperz \(1982, p. 59\)](#), who states that code switching is “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different language/grammatical systems or sub-systems”. [Milroy and Gordon \(2003, p. 209\)](#) have also argued that “the term ‘code-switching’ can describe a range of language (or dialect) alternation and mixing phenomena whether within the same conversation, the same turn, or the same sentence-utterance”. More recently, [Sebba, Mahootian, and Jonsson \(2012, p. 68\)](#) have given a far simpler definition of code switching, stating that “code-switching – the alternating use of two (or more) languages – is a natural occurrence in the speech of bilingual individuals”.

[Milroy and Gordon \(2003\)](#) see that code switching as a manner or form of communication that is common in a bilingual or multilingual society using a number of different languages. By contrast, in the process of bilingual education, code switching is more managerial. For instance, in the learning process, switching of code acts more as a tool to manage and facilitate interaction and learning. [Heller \(2007\)](#) plainly says that code switching is the process of using more than one language in one episode of communication. In this case, it requires the balancing mastery of two or more languages by speakers who switch codes.

Code switching in a foreign language classroom has recently been the subject of considerable study and debate. When researchers address the issue, especially the use or the roles of the L1 (first language) and the TL (target language) or L2 (second language), there appear to be two opposing language attitudes between them, either use the target language exclusively or tolerate and get benefits from code switching. According to ([Macaro, 1997](#)), the switching to L1 necessarily serves some basic functions which may be beneficial in the foreign language learning environment. However, to get main goal in learning a language, the lecturer has to create a situation for student to speak in English in the classroom ([Rahayu, 2016](#)).

There are many functions of code-switching in the teaching-learning process. According to [Reyes \(2004, p. 84\)](#), they are: (1) speech representation, (2) imitate quotation, (3) turn accommodation, (4) topic shift, (5) situation switch, (6) insistence, (7) giving an emphasis, (8) clarification or persuasion, (9) persons specification, (10) question shift, and (11) as a discourse maker. An additional function by [Mattsson and Burenhult \(1999, p. 9\)](#) is repetition, where “the repetition in the first language (L1) can be either partial or full and is often expanded with further information, but more frequently code switching is used as a repetition of the previously uttered sentences”.

3. METHOD

This study is a qualitative research with the intent to collect process, analyse, and present data objectively about the occurrence of code switching in teaching English to students of the English Department at the State Islamic Institute “Mulana Sultan Hasanuddin” in Banten. This study used an ethnographic method for study of communication based on [Hymes \(1996\)](#) and was further developed by [Saville-Troike \(2003\)](#) with a pragmatic approach.

The primary data was the phenomenon of code switching in the teaching-learning interactions that occurred in the teaching and learning processes of a class at the department. The source was from a lecturer and her students’ interactions in the English classroom. Meanwhile, the source of secondary data was books and documents relevant to the focus of the research.

Recording was done to obtain data in the field. The procedure for collecting data was through observation, recordings, and transcriptions. The steps to analyse the data included creating categories based on the various communicative situations, communicative events and communicative actions.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results in terms of the functions of code-switching from English to Indonesian appear to support previous findings, which suggest that the switching to L1 necessarily serves some basic functions which may be beneficial in the foreign language learning environment ([Macaro, 1997](#)). The data from the classroom recordings reinforces the views on the functional uses and enriches the data from other reviews. This section lists the functions of code switching to Indonesian and then looks at some samples from the data to illustrate the functions of code-switching that occurred between the lecturer and her students.

Based on the analysis, the functions of code switching the lecturer and her students were found to be: (1) clarification, (2) reiteration or repetition, (3) explanation, (4) asking, (5) translation, (6) checking for understanding, (7) emphasizing of a language element, (8) making inferences, (9) developing vocabulary, (10) class discussions of student’ tasks, (11) giving feedback, (12) aiding memorization, (13) class management, and (14) entertainment and general communications.

The first is the function of clarification; it was conducted by the teacher and the students to provide clarification or confirmation of an explanation, or of information, or of questions, or of a statement, in order to avoid misunderstanding in terms of capturing the intent of the English. The use of code switching becomes the means that the teacher uses to confirm or clarify her meaning of communication. So, she feels the need to transfer the code into Indonesian for clarification of her previous converses in English.

The second is the function of reiteration or repetition. In doing the code switching for reiteration, the teacher repeats the speech in Indonesian in the form of a sentence or phrase. Repetition was done to align the meanings in the two different languages (i.e. Indonesian and English), so that the students in the interaction could gain a better understanding of the words or phrases spoken by the teacher. Furthermore, [Mattsson and Burenhult \(1999\)](#) reveal that the importance of repetition in code switching is to emphasize the message to be delivered following a quotation. [Gumperz \(1982\)](#) and

Brice (2000) also emphasize that one function of repetition in code switching is to check understanding.

The third is the function of explanation or redirection of code made by the teacher in the interaction when there are lessons that needed further explanation, and thus, to explain the earlier information given in English, the explanation is preceded in Indonesian. An excerpt of when the teacher was teaching grammar is shown in E1 (E refers to excerpt), the redirection of code is bolded:

E1: *Ya, kata subject bertemu dengan kata subject lagi, maka menjadi compound subject. Kata verb dari kata kerja bertemu dengan kata kerja lagi disebut compound verb. Okay, Tika...*

[Yes, a subject meets a subject, so it becomes compound subject. A verb for an action word meets another verb so it is called compound verb. Okay, Tika...]

In the conversation in E1, the teacher code switches to Indonesian. In this sentence, she did not only try to explain the theory but also provided the answer to the student's previous question on what is a compound subject.

The fourth is the function for asking questions. When the teacher interacted with the base code English, and then a student asked a question using Indonesian not English and so the lecturer used code switching when answering the student's question and asked him back another question. This is as shown in the following example (L is for lecturer and S is for student).

E2: L: *Iya...never mind ya because practice makes perfect. Kira kira ada yang kurang tepat pengejaannya? Chicago or Cicago tadi?*

[Yes, never mind, because practice makes perfect. So is there something wrong with the pronunciation? Chicago or is it Cicago?

S: *Cicago...*

L: *Chicago or Cicago?*

S: *Chicago.*

In E2, it can be seen clearly that despite the lecturer started off in English, she switched to Indonesian to present her question. And so, in this case, the function of code switching was to ask a question.

Translation is the fifth function found in data. This form of code switching from English to Indonesian is done by the speakers to translate a statement or question because they felt that it needed translation to make the listener better understand the meaning of the statement or question in order to avoid misunderstanding.

The sixth function is to check understanding. This form of code switching from English into Indonesian or vice versa has a function to review material that has been taught previously. It was also done by the lecturer to check for students' understanding on a matter that has been taught-learned in the classroom as a benchmark for determining the level of students' understanding of the material.

E3: L: *Okay, sometimes a concluding sentence reminds the readers of the points in the topic sentence. Di ulang lagi di ulang lagi ya...sama aja dengan yang pertama kali di pelajari dulu ya. So di paraphrase ya...kalimat yang di atas itu topic sentence-nya...topic sentence, supporting sentence...terus di akhir,*

nah, topic tadi di summary, di paraphrase dengan bahasa yang berbeda...di paraphrase. Jadi di singgung sedikit ya yang topic sentence nya tadi untuk dijadikan sebagai concluding sentence.

[Okay, sometimes a concluding sentence reminds the readers of the points in the topic sentence. You must repeat it and repeat it...it is similar to what you have learnt earlier. So you must paraphrase it...the sentence above it is the topic sentence...topic sentence, supporting sentence...then at the end, the topic must be summarized, paraphrase it in different wordings...paraphrase it. So mention a bit about the topic sentence as the concluding sentence.]

In E3, it can be concluded that the explanation was meant to review the materials taught before. In addition, there is an expression that the material had been previously studied in the expression '*Di ulang lagi di ulang lagi ya...sama aja dengan yang pertama kali di pelajari dulu ya*' [You must repeat it and repeat it...it is similar to what you have learnt earlier]. So the lecturer also reviews the material by code switching into Indonesian but she still uses the basic English codes when mentioning terms related to the lecture material.

The seventh function is for emphasizing some elements of language. Macaro (1997, p. 68) says "important messages can be reinforced or emphasized when they are transmitted in the L1". This form of code-switching also occurred in the classroom interactions between the lecturer and students. The lecturer tried to emphasize the elements of language specifically related to teaching materials in English, so she felt the need to code switch to avoid misunderstanding between her and the students. This was so that they had the same understanding of specific linguistic elements related to the material. Possibly because the linguistic elements are theoretical, therefore, the lecturer felt the need to code switch into Indonesian so the students could better understand her.

The eighth function is for making inferences. This code switching is done for functionality to make conclusions, which means that the lecturer in this study used basic codes in English when explaining the materials. However, when concluding the lessons, she explained them by code switching into Indonesian. So, the function of the code switching here was to make or to emphasize conclusions or inferences.

The ninth function is for developing vocabulary. This form of code-switching is done when the lecturer and the students were discussing about vocabulary. There were many times when the words had to be interpreted or translated into the first language so that the students could better comprehend English words to develop their vocabulary.

The tenth function is to discuss the students' assignment. This form of code switching was done by the lecturer to discuss the assignments that she had given to her students. To have her students fully understand her instructions, she code switched into Indonesian. Students would also do the same for clarification on the assignments given so that they could grasp the instructions correctly. This was also done when discussing the students' progress with her.

The eleventh function is to give feedback. In the data, this was found when the lecturer required the students to give her feedback on the lessons. This importance of code switching here was to determine the extent of students' understanding on the material being studied. It was also necessary to know the parts they have mastered the parts that needed improvement. Code switching enabled both the lecturer and the students to fully capture the heart of their feedback discussions.

The twelfth function is to remember or memorize. It was common in class that the lecturer frequently reminded the students about the materials, tasks, rules or roles that the students may have forgotten about, or otherwise not done. In such conversations code switching often occurred.

The thirteenth function is to assist in managing the teaching-learning activities in the class. There were some activities in the class that did not require the process of transferring knowledge as their main aim, but to support the management of the class during learning. For example, to get the students to walk in an orderly way. This is as supported by Choong (2006, p. 2) who asserts that “some reasons for using the L1 in the classroom are to convey and check the comprehension of lexical or grammatical forms and meanings, to give directions, and to manage the class”. In such conditions and with such interactions, the lecturer and students often switched code into Indonesian because they felt that the condition or situation is not part of the transfer of knowledge. An example is when a student came late to class, and the lecturer commented on the situation:

E4: L: ***Ya di tahan tahanin aja lah.*** Next week you have to come earlier ya...***biar gak di serobot orang lain.***
 [(You) have to be patient/strong. Next week you have to come earlier...so that other people do not take (your class).]

Here, the lecturer code switches to tell the students to arrive early in order to get a better classroom. She switched codes into Indonesian because she considered it more effective and efficient given the time which was not much. She did not want to spend much time for giving such instructions.

The last function, the fourteenth one, is for entertainment and general communications. Examples found in the data were such as to relieve boredom, to relieve tension or simply to better familiarize themselves with each other in the educational situation. Sometimes both the lecturer and students made jokes with each other and, and thus, when jesting they felt better using Indonesian.

5. CONCLUSION

In language teaching, in this case teaching the English language, there often appears the sociolinguistic phenomenon of code-switching, which is the use of two languages in a single interaction or event. In the teaching of English, the use of code-switching into Indonesian occurs frequently in Indonesia. However, some experts disagree with code-switching because they perceive it to have low prestige and to lessen the emphasis on becoming fluent in English.

However, based on the results of this study, the use of code-switching in the language instruction has multiple functions that support an effective learning process. These functions include (1) clarification, (2) reiteration or repetition, (3) explanation, (4) asking, (5) translation, (6) checking for understanding, (7) emphasizing a language element, (8) making inferences, (9) developing vocabulary, (10) class discussions of student tasks, (11) giving feedback, (12) aiding memorization, (13) class management and (14) entertainment and general communications. Despite there are shortcomings in the conduct of this research, such as focusing on only one class, and one lecturer and

her students, thus, this research is expected to be useful especially for teachers in the field of language to understand the functions and the effectiveness of code switching in the classroom.

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Assessing the Relationship between the Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) and Reading Comprehension

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Abstract

It has been considered crucial to have adequate vocabulary knowledge in order to support EFL reading comprehension. This research was done to find out if there was any relationship between the performance of Indonesian students in the Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) and their comprehension of their English reader textbook. This pilot research describes the implications for profiling books used in teaching English (EFL) especially for reading comprehension. It also provides information on how to measure the lexical level of textbooks used for reading or for other similar subjects that involve reading. A number of 30 undergraduate students from Universitas Putera Batam participated in the VLT. Then their English reader textbook, Mosaic 1, was profiled to measure its lexical vocabulary level. The results showed that only 1% of the participants had mastered the 2,000-word level, this meant that the vocabulary level of the textbook was still far above the vocabulary knowledge of the students. Thus, they had difficulties to comprehend their reading textbook. Some additional activities have therefore been recommended to be done before, during and after studying reading comprehension.

Keywords: Vocabulary Learning Test (VLT), vocabulary size, reading comprehension.

1. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary in foreign language learning has attracted more and more interest from both researchers and language teachers because of its role as a fundamental and complex component in first or second language learning. Schmitt et al (2001) have stated that there are two parts of vocabulary knowledge: they are breadth or size, and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Breadth is regarded as the size of a person's vocabulary and depth is concerned with the level of understanding of various aspects of

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a given word (Teng, 2014). The importance of the breadth to language learners is when they have to comprehend meaning whilst reading a text. The number of words they know will influence their reading comprehension ability. A number of researchers have investigated the correlation between breadths of vocabulary and reading comprehension performances (Milton, 2009; Nation, 2001; Zhang & Anual, 2008). In most of these cases the researchers have shown that breadth correlates with reading comprehension performance.

The Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) is typically used to measure receptive vocabulary knowledge at the lexical level. The test refers to word class category levels, such as 2000, 3000, 5000, etc., academic words. Each level contains 30 items (Xing & Fulcher, 2007). The VLT is a validated and reliable test (Nation, 2001). Some studies have reported the reliability, e.g. 0.94 or 0.91 (Liu, 2016; Read, 2009) and this test has been examined by other experts (Gyllstad, 2007; Teng, 2015; Webb & Sasao, 2013). As the measurement of VLT correlates with the level of reading comprehension, it is used to assess the reading texts chosen for undergraduate students and is the initial input to the teachers about the level of their students' ability before their lessons begins.

It is rather difficult to find results from VLTs done in Indonesia. The only relevant research in foreign language learning comes from research done in other countries: China, Singapore, and Sweden (Gyllstad, 2007; Liu, 2016; Teng, 2014, 2015; Zhang & Anual, 2008). Therefore, it is a pioneering work to do research to measure the VLT of students and to find out their vocabulary level compared to the profile of their reading textbook in Indonesia. This kind of research can be considered as ground-breaking. Moreover, understanding the vocabulary skills of students studying EFL is expected to shine light on one of the base issues in reading comprehension. If there are too many 'difficult' words, beyond the vocabulary capability and capacity of the students, it might hinder their understanding of the reading text, which could be a point to be investigated. The initial information to get is: to know the level of students' vocabulary and to understand how far they can go with the reading text assigned. This leads to the main reason why this research is being done, to see the implications for pedagogy therein.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are two parts in this section; the first is related to vocabulary and the second to the correlation between vocabulary size and reading comprehension.

2.1 English Vocabulary

English vocabulary plays both a significant and complex role, not only in learning a first language but also in second language acquisition. When it comes to what English vocabulary means, some specialist terminology needs to be introduced to achieve a better understanding of it, such as tokens, types, lemmas and word families. English vocabulary refers to the set of words known and used by a particular person within a language (Schmitt, 2013). Let's look at the following example of a sentence: 'The man takes the wallet'. In this sentence, there are five separate words. This means the sentence has five tokens. A token is a separate word in a text. When deciding the number of word types in the example above, it is the number of different words in the

sentence that counts rather than the number of separate words. It is quite useful, as it helps learners figure out how many words there are in a reading text, how many words they have written for an essay and how large a corpus is.

From the stated example above, though it has five tokens there are only four types as the word 'the' occurs twice, but the other words in the sentence occur only once. When measuring the vocabulary size of a foreign language learner, the number of types of words is more significant than the number of tokens. This is due to the fact that more attention is paid to the number of types of words that a particular learner can produce, rather than their repetition (Moghadam et al, 2012). All of its inflections, a lemma refers to the head or root of a word, but the part of speech of this word must not be changed. For example, in English, the lemma of the word 'take' would include 'taking', 'takes', 'took' and 'taken', but 'taker' does not belong to its lemma because 'taker' is a noun, not a verb. A word family usually includes the base word and all of its inflections and derivatives regardless of its part of speech (Schmitt, 2013), so the word family of 'bring' includes 'bring', 'brings', 'bringing', and 'brought' and of 'drink' includes 'drink' and 'drinks', both nouns and verbs, 'drinking', 'drank' and 'drunk' where they refer to imbibing 'drinks' but not to 'drunk' and 'drunken' where they refer to a person.

2.2 Vocabulary Size and Reading Comprehension Relationship

Reading is an important part of all, even the most elementary vocabulary programs (Schmitt, 2013). Vocabulary knowledge is quite necessary for language learners in reading comprehension as a learner needs to know most of the words in a running text in order to comprehend that text. Vocabulary is basic to the reader, yet inadequate vocabulary will undoubtedly influence second language learners' reading performance in a negative way. Even though the number or percentage has not been established, some research shows a significant relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension ability. Nation (2001) declares that learners with a vocabulary size of more than 3000 words can read with ease because in most situations it gives coverage of at least 95% of a running text. English language learners need 98% vocabulary mastery to acquire proper reading comprehension (Qian, 2002). Zhang and Anual (2008), through a research study with secondary school students in Singapore using VLT, found that the students' vocabulary knowledge at the 2000 and the 3000 word levels correlated with their reading comprehension ability. Some research has been done on the role of vocabulary size in reading comprehension, yet only a few studies correlated participants' performance on VLT with textbook profiling to investigate whether some pedagogy implications could be found.

Liu (2016) reveals the result of VLT and English textbook profiling with Chinese undergraduate students at Jiangsu University of Technology in PRC, China. Her research showed that 81% of the participants had mastered a 2000-word vocabulary, hence most of the students had no significant difficulties in understanding the texts used.

The aforementioned research findings indicate that second language learners' vocabulary size is highly correlated with their reading comprehension ability. In the case of a text that contains too many difficult words, beyond the language learners' vocabulary knowledge and ability, this could hinder their understanding of the text and hence negatively impact to their language learning processes.

3. METHODOLOGY

In this section, the research method, the participants, the materials used and the research procedure followed in this study are described.

3.1 Research Setting

This research was done with students of reading from the English Department at Putera Batam University in Batam Island, Indonesia. In the last four years, this English Department has looked at the availability of textbooks for reading. The students' vocabulary capability is a main part of their considerations. The reading comprehension classes use the text book chosen by the campus library and are seeking a new, recent edition book. Therefore, this research was done to find out the actual size of the vocabulary of the English students at particular lexical levels, using the VLT by [Schmitt \(2013\)](#) to see whether the current English textbook fits the current vocabulary level of the students.

3.2 Participants

The participants were 30 first-year English major students studying at Putera Batam University. The 17 male and 13 female participants ranged from 18 to 22 years of age. The Mosaic 1 Reading book, 4th Edition, which was used, has been used as the reading text book for the past four years.

3.3 Research Materials

Two primary sources of materials were used in this research. The first was the English reading text book (see 3.2) used by the students. The second was the VLT.

3.3.1 Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT)

[Schmitt et al \(2001\)](#) developed the Vocabulary Levels Test which is designed to give an estimation of the vocabulary size of second language (L2) learners of general or academic English. The VLT was used because of its practicality. Regardless of the participants' learning background, the examiner can administer and interpret this test to show the general vocabulary knowledge of the participants. For example, knowledge of the most frequent 2000 words in English provides lexical resources that are required for basic everyday verbal communication. [Schmitt et al \(2001\)](#) have then indicated that the next 1000 words would provide additional material for spoken discourse, 3000 words is the threshold which should allow learners to begin to read real texts. Some researchers (e.g. [Milton, 2013](#); [Schmitt et al, 2001](#); [Teng, 2015](#)) indicate that knowledge of the most frequent 5000 words is needed to provide enough vocabulary to enable learners to read real texts. There might be some words still unknown, but that level of knowledge should allow learners to infer the meaning of any unknown words from their context, and to understand over 90% of the communicative content of a text.

In the case of the academic section had to be fitted somewhere between the frequency levels on the basis of the results from this particular group of examinees, the above mean scores would best place it between the 2000 and the 3000 word levels.

Referring to [Schmitt et al \(2001\)](#), the academic level of vocabulary sits in a broad range between the 2000-word level and the 10000-word level. [Read \(2009\)](#) also states it is useful to calculate a realistic minimum vocabulary size for students. Some scholars work on the assumption that in order to read independently, learners should know at least 95% of the running words in a text. [Hsueh-Chao and Nation \(2000\)](#) say that a reader needs to know up to 98% of the words in a text to achieve adequate comprehension. This means, that from each 50 words in a running text, the reader may only miss the meaning of one word as a maximum to be able to adequately comprehend the text.

The VLT derives from the fact that separate sections measure learners' knowledge of words from a number of distinct frequency levels ([Schmitt et al, 2001](#)). In this way, it facilitates a profile of a learner's vocabulary rather than a single-figure estimate of overall vocabulary size. The levels commonly addressed are the 2000 and the 3000 word levels. [Schmitt et al \(2001\)](#) state that at these levels of the test, the words are taken by stratified sampling from the reading, with reference to frequency data from the General Service List (GSL) ([West, 1953](#)). The only exception to this is the section of the VLT below 2000, where words from the 1000 level and the 2000 level are sampled at a 1:2 ratio. The first thousand words of the General Service List (GSL) are usually those with a frequency higher than 332 occurrences per 5 million words, plus months, days of the week, numbers, titles: Mr, Mrs, Miss, Ms, Mister, plus frequent greetings e.g. 'Hello', 'Hi', etc. The words in the academic section are sampled from the University Word List. Reflecting the distribution of these word classes in English, the words from the stratified sample tended to fall into a 3 (noun): 2(verb): 1 (adjective) ratio. This ratio was maintained in the test, with each section containing three noun clusters, two verb clusters and one adjective cluster. Appendix A illustrates the format of the vocabulary skill test.

Some important aspects of the VLT level test have been proposed by [Schmitt et al \(2001\)](#). The first is about format options. Format options are words instead of definitions. The second is about definitions. The definitions are kept short; hence there is a minimum of reading, allowing for more items to be taken within a given period of time. The third is words. They are learned incrementally, and tests should aim to tap into partial lexical knowledge. The Levels Test was designed to do this. The option words in each cluster are chosen so that they have very different meanings. Therefore, even if students have only a minimal impression of a target word's meaning, they should be able to make the correct match. The fourth are clusters. They are designed to minimize aids to guessing. The target words are in alphabetical order, selected randomly and the definitions are in order of length. The fifth is that words used in the definitions are always more frequent than the target words. The sixth is that word counts from which the target words were sampled typically give base forms. The seventh is each level produces a reliability figure above 0.90. The last is that the target words in each cluster begin with different letters and do not have similar orthographic forms.

Considering the reliability and arguments from previous results, this research is designed to measure students' VLT results at the level of the 2000 to 3000 word classes. These two word classes are grouped as the high frequency range classes ([Gyllstad, 2007](#)). Assessing the participants' vocabulary through these two levels is considered the basic minimum requirement for participants' reading comprehension referring to the Mosaic reader at intermediate level. Moreover, as [Schmitt et al \(2001\)](#)

state, if the test is shortened, the reliability index is likely to become lower as well. The test can be finished in the range of 15 to 60 minutes for a total of 4 levels (2K, 3K, 5K and 10K); therefore, for the 2 levels the time needed would be in the range of 15 to 30 minutes. Considering the vocabulary ability of the participants is still not high, these two levels can still fulfill the minimum measurement expectation for efficiency. Gyllstad (2007) states the VLT reliability coefficient in groups tested varied from 0.81 to 0.95. The VLT has been used in some research to measure the level of vocabulary correlated with the Vocabulary Learning Strategy (Gyllstad, 2007; Teng, 2015; Webb & Sasao, 2013). Considering the relevant research, when using the VLT, the researcher considers that $X > 0.8$ reliability is an acceptable level.

In Figure 1, at each level, there are sets of words with three definitions on the right side and six words on the left. In this test, a total of 5 sets or 30 words were tested at each level. Participants must choose the right word that goes with each meaning. The examinee must write the number of that word next to its meaning. An example is set out below:

1. copy	(_) _ end or highest point
2. event	
3. motor	(_) _ this moves a car
4. pity	
5. profit	(_) _ thing made to be like another
6. tip	

Figure 1. A set of words from a Vocabulary Levels Test.

Then the score on each level of VLT would indicate the number of words known at that particular level, e.g.: if an examinee gets 10 words correct that means he knows 33% of the words at that level. Having 24 words (80%) or more correct at a level of VLT indicates mastery of that particular level (Laufer & Nation, 1999).

3.3.2 The Textbook Used

The textbook used in this study was Mosaic 1 by (Wegmann & Knezevic, 2001). This book has twelve chapters, and for this research, two chapters were chosen for the profiling.

3.3.3 Procedures

First, the students were asked to do the VLT managed by their English lecturer in class. The students were given 30 minutes to complete the entire test and once the test was done, they were scored by the researcher. Then the second step, the students' English textbook, Mosaic 1 was profiled using online software, a so-called VP-Compleat, which can be found from the website: www.lex tutor.com, developed by Paul Nation. This website is well known around the world and quite popular among researchers in the field of language teaching-learning. This software was designed to analyze all the vocabulary in Text A and Text B (which were chosen randomly) and as a result the lexical level of all the vocabulary in the chapters chosen from the textbook was found. Finally, based on the results of the students' performance on the VLT and the profiling of the chapters from the textbook, discussions were held to determine

whether the new textbook fits the students' current vocabulary level along with some pedagogical implications associated with the choice. The assessment of the participants mastering of the VLT was based on the minimum of 24 words correct at that particular level (Laufer & Nation, 1999). Moreover, the mean score percentage shows the average level of the participants word knowledge in the test.

4. FINDINGS

This section describes the VLT performance and the reading text book used by these English major students.

4.1 Students' Performance on VLT

The participants completed two VLT levels at the 2000 and the 3000-word levels.

Table 1. Results of students' performance on Vocabulary Level Test (VLT).

<i>Level</i>	<i>Max Score</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Percentage of mastery (indicated from 24 items correct)</i>	<i>Mean score (%)</i>
2K	30	18	10% (3 participants)	60 %
3K	30	14	6% (2 participants)	47 %

From Table 1, it can be seen that the participants did not do very well on the VLT. The overall mastery at the 2K level was 10%, while only 6% reached the 3K level. The mean score at the 2K level was 60%, and at the 3K level it was 47%.

4.2 Profiling of the Textbook

The English textbook, Mosaic 1 has eight units. Two reading texts were scanned and profiled by using the software VP-Compleat on its website. Figure 1 below shows the lexical distribution of the participants' textbook using the Classic (GSL/AWL) profiling model.

Freq. Level	Families (%)	Types (%)	Tokens (%)	Cumul. token %
K-1 Words :	299 (61.15)	372 (58.31)	998 (72.27)	72.27
K-2 Words :	90 (18.40)	93 (14.58)	118 (8.54)	80.81
K-3 Words :	47 (9.61)	51 (7.99)	62 (4.49)	85.30

Figure 2. The lexical distribution of the participants' textbook, Mosaic 1.

As shown in Figure 2, the vocabulary in the participants' textbook was mostly high-frequency words with 81% from the 1000 and 2000 words lists and only 4% from the 3000. The assessment was done with two readings from the text, Mosaic 1, as per the details in Appendix B.

5. DISCUSSION

Based on the participants' performance in the VLT, the results suggest that most of the participants had not achieved mastery at the most frequent 2000-word level. Table 1 shows that only 3 (10%) of the 30 participants were categorized as a master at the 2000-word level and only 2 (6%) at the 3000 word-level. Considering that about 81% of the textbook vocabulary consists of words at the K-1 and K-2 word levels, most of the students might find it difficult to understand the texts. Based on the results in Table 2, K-3 words take up only 4% of the total vocabulary. Although the percentage of K-3 words is not great since participants did not do very well at the 2000 word level of the VLT, this might negatively impact their understanding of the textbook. According to [Zhang and Anual \(2008\)](#), K-2 and K-3 words are highly correlated to reading comprehension skills. Therefore, most of the participants were not likely to understand the textbook. The vocabulary level is correlated to the reading comprehension. Additionally, based on the results shown in Figure 1, words at the K-1, K-2 and K-3 word levels cover 85.3% of all words in the book which is close to the findings of [Nation \(2001\)](#). K-1, K-2 and K-3 words, in most situations, give coverage of 95% of running text. Those students with cover 95% of vocabulary are expected to comprehend the reading text than those below.

Although only a small number of samples of this research study restrict the generalizability of the findings, yet some pedagogical implications can still be drawn for tertiary students of the same proficiency level using similar textbooks. First, as most of the students had not mastered words at the K-2 word level of the VLT, it is suggested that teachers should still focus on the K-1 to K-2 level words by exposing their students to these words in their daily teaching. Besides, extra vocabulary training and practice should be provided to the group of students who scored less than 24 (80%), in this case the majority. Second, since the students' performance on the K-3 levels was not yet satisfactory, they might not be able to comprehend more complicated articles or texts. Textbooks with coverage of 85.3% K-1 to K-3 words can help them build up their vocabulary to the K-3 level. Therefore, the teachers should make good use of this textbook, putting emphasis on those frequently used words from the K-1 to K-3 levels, guiding the students with constant reviews and using those words in context until they fully grasp the meanings of them. Meanwhile, teachers should carefully select readings from various reading texts which fit the students' needs and give them to the students as extra reading, thus accommodating students' sensitivity to understand words at the 2000 and 3000 levels and even higher level such as 5000 to 10000 ([Zhang & Anual, 2008](#)). The after reading evaluation could also be the base for choosing the next reading text to be used to achieve higher level.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The present study showed that all but two of the students had not yet achieved mastery at the 2000 and 3000-word levels. As the performance of the students at these levels was not satisfactory, the results showed that these students needed more training and practice at the frequently used 2000 to 3000 word levels first before they moved up to the next level. The lexis of their textbook was normally distributed, with the 2000 common words accounting for about 81%. As the textbook was in excess of the

students' current level they could not easily use that book for their English learning. These results showed that the students' VLT level was lower than that which had been found in previous studies. Liu (2016), for example, declares that 81% of the participants in his study had mastered the 2000-word level.

It is suggested that teachers should not only make good use of their textbook but also deliberately find extra material for enlarging the students' vocabulary, for example, they should find suitable material from other reading texts such as from the internet sources and find ways to add more common words to the vocabulary of their students. Vocabulary knowledge, which has proved to be a predictor of learners' language proficiency, plays a significant role in language learning. Language teachers should pay special attention to students' vocabulary learning, assisting them with appropriate and effective ways to learn and enlarge their vocabulary to at least meet the minimum requirement for reading at the level of their texts. To consider the vocabulary level of their students when teaching is crucial for successful teaching-learning of ESL. This research, by making an attempt to link learners' vocabulary size at particular levels to the profiling of the textbook, might serve as a good method for choosing teaching materials and designing a teaching syllabus for a second or foreign language context, and as input for teachers as to how to deal with reading texts. Although the sample is relatively small, which limits the generalizability of the findings, this study represents a group of undergraduates who are at the same English proficiency level in an Indonesian university context, where in fact their major is English. Based on the findings of this research, future research could concentrate on enlarging the vocabulary of participants at other levels and in other faculties and with various backgrounds.

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APPENDIX 1:

Vocabulary Level Test (VLT)

Students' instruction sheet for the Vocabulary Level Test (VLT).

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example:

- | | | | |
|---|----------|---------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | Business | | |
| 2 | Clock | <u>Wall</u> | part of a house |
| 3 | Horse | <u>Horse</u> | animal with four legs |
| 4 | Pencil | <u>Pencil</u> | something used for writing |
| 5 | Shoe | | |
| 6 | Wall | | |

You answer it in the following way:

- | | | | |
|---|----------|----------|-----------------------|
| 1 | Business | | |
| 2 | Clock | <u>6</u> | part of a house |
| 3 | Horse | <u>3</u> | animal with four legs |

- 4 Pencil 4 something used for writing
 5 Shoe
 6 Wall

Some extra words are in the list to make the test more difficult. You do not have to find a meaning for those words. In the example above, those words are business, clock and shoe. If you have no idea about the meaning of a word, do not guess. But if you think you know the meaning, and then you should try to pick the right answer.

The 2000 word level

1	copy	_____ end of highest	1	accident	_____ loud, deep
2	event	_____ point	2	debt	_____ sound
3	motor	_____ this moves	3	fortune	_____ something you
4	pity	_____ a car	4	pride	_____ must pay
5	profit	_____ thing made to	5	roar	_____ having a high
6	tip	_____ be like another	6	thread	_____ opinion of yourself
1	coffee	_____ money for	1	arrange	_____ grow
2	disease	_____ work	2	develop	_____ put it in order
3	justice	_____ a piece of	3	lean	_____ like more than
4	skirt	_____ clothing	4	owe	_____ something else
5	stage	_____ using the law	5	prefer	
6	wage	_____ the right way	6	seize	
1	clerk	_____ a drink	1	blame	_____ make
2	frame	_____ office worker	2	elect	_____ choose by voting
3	noise	_____ unwanted	3	jump	_____ become like
4	respect	_____ sound	4	threaten	_____ water
5	theater		5	melt	
6	wine		6	manufacture	
1	dozen	_____ chance	1	ancient	_____ not easy
2	empire	_____ twelve	2	curious	_____ very old
3	gift	_____ money paid to	3	difficult	_____ related to God
4	tax	_____ the	4	entire	
5	relief	_____ government	5	holy	
6	opportunity		6	social	
1	admire	_____ made wider	1	slight	_____ beautiful
2	complain	_____ or longer	2	bitter	_____ small
3	fix	_____ bring in for the	3	lovely	_____ liked by many
4	hire	_____ first time	4	merry	_____ people
5	introduce	_____ have a high	5	popular	
6	stretch	_____ opinion of someone	6	independent	

The 3,000 word level

1	bull	_____ formal and	1	muscle	_____ advice
2	champion	_____ serious	2	counsel	
3	dignity	_____ manner	3	factor	_____ a place
4	hell	_____ winner of	4	hen	_____ covered
5	museum	_____ sporting	5	lawn	_____ with grass
6	solution	_____ event	6	atmosphere	_____ female
		_____ building			_____ chicken
		_____ where			
		_____ valuable			
		_____ objects			
		_____ are shown			
1	blanket	_____ holiday	1	abandon	_____ live in a place
2	contest		2	dwelt	_____ follow in
3	generation	_____ good quality	3	oblige	_____ order to
4	merit		4	pursue	_____ catch
5	plot	_____ covering	5	quote	_____ leave
6	vacation	_____ used on	6	resolve	_____ something
		_____ beds			_____ permanently
1	comment	_____ long formal	1	assemble	_____ look closely
2	gown	_____ dress	2	attach	
3	import	_____ goods from	3	peer	_____ stop doing
4	nerve	_____ a foreign	4	quit	_____ something
5	pasture	_____ country	5	scream	
6	tradition	_____ part of the	6	toss	_____ cry out loudly
		_____ body			_____ in fear
		_____ which			
		_____ carries			
		_____ feelings			
1	pond	_____ group of	1	drift	_____ suffer
2	angel	_____ animals	2	endure	_____ patiently
3	frost	_____ spirit who	3	grasp	_____ join threads of
4	herd	_____ serves God	4	knit	_____ wool together
5	fort	_____ managing	5	register	_____ hold firmly
6	administration	_____ business	6	tumble	_____ with your
		_____ and affairs			_____ hands
1	brilliant	_____ thin	1	aware	_____ usual
2	distinct		2	blank	_____ best or most
3	magic	_____ steady	3	desperate	_____ important
4	naked		4	normal	_____ knowing what
5	slender	_____ without	5	striking	_____ is happening
6	stable	_____ clothes	6	supreme	

APPENDIX 2

Reading Texts

Reading 1

Living in the U.S.A

Size

It is difficult to really experience or “feel” the size of the United States, even when you know the actual number of miles from coast to coast. To get the full impact you should realize, for example, that it takes forty-eight hours (two entire days and two whole nights) to travel by train from Chicago to Los Angeles, rolling along hour after hour, across wheat fields, mountains and deserts; Chicago is an overnight train trip from New York.

Another way to think about it is to compare distances in the United States with others more familiar to you. For example, New York to Washington, D.C., is about the same as London to Paris or Nairobi to Mombasa or Tokyo to Kyoto; New York to Los Angeles is farther than Lisbon to Cairo or Moscow to Montreal or New Delhi to Rome.

Climate

Naturally, with such distances, the climate in the continental United States is also one of great extremes. From New England and New York through Chicago and much of the Midwest and Northwest, temperatures vary from sub-zero in winter to the high nineties or over in summer (Fahrenheit).

The South and Southwest have warmer weather, though even these sections have occasional frosts and periods of moderate cold. Generally, summers are likely to range from 70° F to 100° F (21°C to 38° C), and many areas can be quite humid. However, air conditioning is so widespread that you can expect most buildings, even many private homes, to be kept at relatively comfortable temperatures.

Americans in motion

Americans are a restless people most travel whenever they get the chance. They crowd onto trains, buses, and planes. In increasing numbers, they hike or travel around in cars on holidays. Americans are joined by millions of tourists from other countries who come to enjoy the people and the culture.

Blunt speech

Don't think that Americans are being rude if we tend to speak in monosyllables or answer with a mere “O.K.,” “sure” or “nope” or greet you with “hi.” Our brevity is not a personal insult, though to those accustomed to formal phrases, we seem blunt. American informality has become more desirable than formal expressions of greeting or farewell.

A Do-it-Yourself society

The United States is a do-it-yourself country. We generally carry our own bags, take our laundry to the laundromat, stand in line at the grocery store, or shine our own shoes, whoever we may be – lawyer, professor, bank president, or corporate executive. Anyone who can afford the high cost of service in this country and wants to pay for it, may. But there is absolutely no social stigma in doing one's own daily chores, no matter

how menial. In fact, Americans take pride in do-it-yourself accomplishments and may devote a great deal of their leisure time to projects around the home. Huge warehouse stores have been built throughout the countries which cater to do-it-yourself tasks.

Many Americans who could afford household help or a driver or a gardener do not employ them. They prefer family privacy, independence, and freedom from responsibility, all of which are at least partially lost when one has help in one's home.

Houses interest Americans greatly. They spend much of their time thinking and reading and talking about the designs of their houses, their decorations and how to improve them. Many weekend hours are passed in do-it-yourself projects around the house. People also love to look at each other's houses. Since they would thoroughly enjoy visiting and examining a house in another country, they assume that you will probably have the same desires. Don't be surprised, therefore, if you are shown the entire house from top to bottom, including bathrooms and closets! Don't make the mistake of refusing to go: the whole house may have been cleaned especially for you!

Because Americans have come from so many nationalities, there is a far wider range of what is acceptable than some countries where the inhabitants have grown up with a common heritage. As a result, no one needs to feel awkward or uncomfortable in following his or her own customs. Although Americans are noticeably informal, if you prefer somewhat greater formality, feel free to act in your own way. This will be acceptable to those around you. You can "do your own thing" and be respected in the USA to a very large extent.

Reading 2

Soapy Smith

Jefferson Randolph 'Soapy' Smith probably ranks as Skagway's best known character from the gold-rush days. Certainly, he was its most notorious conman, it is said that at the height of the gold rush, Smith and his gang virtually controlled the town, a reign that ended in a shoot-out with one of Skagway's leading citizens, Frank Reid.

Smith was born in Georgia in 1860 to parents who were both members of prominent southern families. Smith spent most of his formative years in Texas, where his family moved in the 1870s. After his father, a lawyer, fell on hard times, young Jeff was forced to earn a living as a delivery boy and as a runner for a hotel, a job in which he rustled up customers and thus discovered his natural gift for speech.

When still in his teens, Smith hired on as a trail hand on cattle drives, and spent several years drifting about the West. He eventually learned sleight-of-hand tricks and made a living in the mining camps with gambling games such as the peas-under-the-shell game. He acquired his nickname "Soapy" from a game which involved hiding large bills in bars of soap.

Smith, who was generally opposed to violent methods, graduated to larger operations and set up in Denver where he formed a gang. In Denver, he acquired a wide reputation for his con games, as well as for his generosity to charities, churches, and those in desperate need. Also in Denver, he married a singer by the name of Anna Nielsen, whom he kept insulated from his "public" life and who eventually bore his children. About 1890, Smith set up operations, including a gambling hall, in Creede, Colorado, a wide-open mining town, but eventually returned to Denver. After numerous

run-ins with the law and local politicians, Soapy Smith quit Colorado and, in October 1897, arrived with his gang in Skagway, apparently with intentions of “taking over” the town.

Working out of an establishment called Jeff Smith’s parlor, an oyster parlor that also offered liquor and gambling, Smith and his gang were soon operating their con games, as well as taking part in some outright robbery, running a protection racket, and overseeing businesses like Smith’s “telegraph office.” This last business, which charged \$5 to send a message anywhere in the world, might have been legitimate but for the fact that Skagway had no telegraph lines.

Despite his lawless ways, Smith was liked and respected by many for his charity, which included organizing a program to adopt stray dogs. The townspeople, however, had no use whatsoever for his gang. Eventually, several of Skagway’s leading citizens formed a vigilante-style “committee of 101” to rid the town of its criminal element. Among the committee’s founders was 54-years-old Frank Reid, a former Indian fighter and surveyor who happened to have laid out the original town.

The showdown between Soapy Smith and Frank Reid began when a young miner, J. D. Stewart, arrived in Skagway from the Klondike carrying \$2,700 in gold. Somehow, and apparently with the help of someone, Stewart and his gold parted ways. The Committee of 101, hearing Stewart’s loud complaints, suspected Soapy Smith and his gang, and on July 8, 1898, called a meeting on the Skagway wharf to take action. Soapy Smith tried to force his way into the meeting, but found his path along the wharf blocked by Frank Reid, after a brief struggle, the two exchanged gunfire and both fell to the deck. Smith died immediately of a bullet through the heart; Reid lingered 12 days longer.

With the death of Soapy Smith, the law-abiding citizens of Skagway got rid of other members of the gang. Most of them were shipped south, and many served time in prison. Smith and Reid were buried near each other in the Skagway cemetery, with Reid’s tombstone bearing the words. “He gave his life for the honor of Skagway.” Soapy Smith’s tombstone became a favorite among souvenir seekers, who believed a piece of the stone would bring them good luck.

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Implementation of Classroom Management by English Teachers at High Schools in Jambi, Indonesia

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Abstract

This study was aimed at analyzing the implementation, processes and problems of classroom management in two Indonesian high schools from the perspective of English teachers in accordance with the latest, 2013, Indonesian curriculum. The research was qualitative with a case study approach. The sites for this study were two national senior high schools in Jambi Province, Indonesia. Eight teachers of English were involved as the research participants to provide a broad perspective of implementation of classroom management. The researchers used four techniques for collecting data: interviews, focus group discussions, observations, and document review. To assess the trustworthiness of the research, the researchers did triangulation, member checking and reflexivity. The findings, describing the implementation, processes and problems of classroom management, are divided into three themes: (i) teaching standards, rules and procedures, (ii) classroom climate, and (iii) timing and scheduling. Policy recommendation proposed such as to limit the number of students (in a class), to provide up-to-date technology and to provide more training for teachers are not only for teachers but also for school authorities, and other stake holders for the betterment of Indonesian education.

Keywords: Analysis, classroom management, implementation, problems, policy recommendations, 2013 Curriculum.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Curriculum covers the entire scope of formative values and experiences for people (Bobbitt, 1918; Richards & Rodgers, 1999). In the Indonesian context, curriculum is an educational response to the needs of the nation and its people in relation to the development of human resources and, pedagogically, serves to plan education that provides opportunities for students to develop their talents and abilities in the process of learning (Kementerian Pendidikan, 1968). In Indonesia's latest, 2013, curriculum, classroom management is included as an integral part of its standards for processes.

Classroom management as one important feature of curriculum has attracted many scholars to conduct research in this area (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Kennedy & Thomas, 2012; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). In the Indonesian context, classroom management is included in the standards for processes and must be supervised and analyzed in order to see whether or not the process is on track in accordance with the curriculum (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013).

In addition to the curriculum for classroom management, curriculum for English has been a frequent subject of research not only in English speaking countries but also in non-English speaking ones (Ellis, 1997; He et al., 2011). Further, in the Asian region, namely in China, Japan and Singapore, language curriculum has been planned around a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach to promote young learners' language proficiency and this also relates to the implementation of classroom management (Ellis, 1997; Hardman, 2008; He et al., 2011). In dealing with successful implementation of classroom management including the teaching-learning processes for English as a Foreign Language (EFL), teachers play important roles (McIntosh et al., 2006).

This study was done to obtain information about the implementation of classroom management in Indonesia in accordance with the latest, 2013, Indonesian curriculum, from the perspective of teachers of English. This study was expected to provide information and analysis of the implementation of classroom management in Indonesia in order to make a contribution for all stakeholders for the betterment of Indonesian curriculum generally and for EFL education specifically. The research questions of this study were specifically intended to answer the following research problems:

- a) How is the classroom management done for teaching-learning ESL in senior high schools in Jambi, Indonesia?
- b) What problems are there in the implementation of classroom management for ESL in Jambi?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Curriculum

The term curriculum refers to a variety of things, including the subjects taught in a school or a program, the documents that list the subjects taught, a set of teaching materials that are organized in some sequences of frameworks or a framework for selecting and organizing learning experiences (Bobbitt, 1918; Ellis, 1997; Kementerian Pendidikan, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 1999). The study of curriculum implementation and its features have provoked thought for many years (Bire, 1996; Bouck, 2008;

Camicia & Zhu, 2012; Ellis, 1997; He et al., 2011). In terms of a formal juridical definition, curriculum is defined as a public policy on the basis of Indonesian national philosophy. In addition, Indonesia has already implemented numerous curricula known as the curriculum of 1950, 1958, 1962, 1968, 1975, 1984, 1994 and 2006 (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2012).

2.2 Standard of Process of Indonesian Curriculum

The standard of process in the latest Indonesian curriculum, 2013 curriculum is the criteria for the teaching and learning processes in order to achieve the highest possible standard of competence. The processes of teaching and learning are planned to be more interactive (enabling time and space for students to communicate), more challenging (giving students the chance to be more creative), more fun (creating a better atmosphere in the classroom), and more motivating (encouraging students to actively participate in the processes of teaching-learning). The 2013 Curriculum has six chapters (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013):

- 1) The introduction that contains teaching-learning principles in conformity with the standards for graduate competency,
- 2) The characteristics of teaching-learning,
- 3) The planning of teaching-learning, syllabi and lesson plans,
- 4) Implementation of the teaching-learning process,
- 5) Evaluation of the teaching-learning process, and
- 6) Supervision of the teaching-learning process.

The implementation of the teaching-learning processes in the 2013 Curriculum especially focuses on two items (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013):

- a) Classroom management, and
- b) The teaching-learning process.

Sternberg and Williams (2002) define classroom management as a set of techniques and skills that allow a teacher to control students effectively in order to create a positive learning environment for all students; classroom management is an important item included in the latest Indonesian curriculum (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013).

2.3 Classroom Management

Because classroom management is an important feature of curriculum, research on the implementation of classroom management has attracted many scholars to conduct research in that area (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Kennedy & Thomas, 2012; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). Classroom management is defined as the actions teachers take those results in an environment that is supportive and provides for both academic and social-emotional learning (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006; Oliver & Reschly, 2010). The inclusion of classroom management within the roles required of teachers has been and will continue to be vitally important although instruction in classroom management has been identified as a core part of teacher preparation in a curriculum policy. Clunies-Ross et al. (2008) and Kennedy and Thomas (2012) have written that teachers should be seen as communities whose opinions, arguments, suggestions, and conclusions must be considered. Teachers therefore play important roles in determining the success of students and classrooms. For teachers to create effective and efficient teaching-learning

appropriate to the needs of their students, the classroom situation must include a skillful system of students' task behavior (McIntosh et al., 2006).

The positive outputs from a well-managed classroom facilitate the teaching-learning process and foster participation in class activities while an unprepared and unmanaged classroom can have negative effects on students' learning and participation in activities which will increase classroom management problems (Kayikci, 2009; Matus, 1999; Sasidher, 2012). Problems will appear due to failure to manage the resources of the classrooms, especially with large class sizes, in such matters as time management, socio-cultural differences, lack of student motivation, teachers' enthusiasm and personal factors such as family problems, home factors, feelings of inadequacy, and financial factors (Gower & Walters, 1988; Matus, 1999; Mckinney et al., 1983; McPhillimy, 1996; Prodromou, 1992; Sasidher, 2012). In conclusion, classroom management (CM) problems emerge due to failure to manage the related resources.

2.4 Indonesian Classroom Management

In the Indonesian educational context, CM has been regulated by the Minister of Education through Decree No. 65 (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013). The CM steps to be implemented include: teachers must adjust the volume and tone of their voices, teachers must speak politely, clearly and be easy to understand by their students, teachers must dress modestly, be clean, and tidy, they must organize the seating, they must encourage and reward students to ask and argue, create order, discipline, convenience, and safety for the teaching-learning processes, they must provide reinforcement and feedback in response to students questions and return students' assignments and give out results whilst the learning process takes place, they must adjust the speed of the subject matter to the ability of their students to learn. At the beginning of each semester, teachers must explain to their students, the syllabus for each of their subjects and they must begin and end the teaching-learning processes according to the term schedule.

2.5 Curriculum for the Study of English

The implementation of a new English curriculum has become a subject of research, not only in English speaking countries but also in non-English speaking ones (Ellis, 1997; He et al., 2011). Further, in the region of Asia namely in China, Japan and Singapore, language curriculum has been planned around a communicative language teaching (CLT) approach to promote young learners' language proficiency (Ellis, 1997; Hardman, 2008; He et al., 2011). It has also been argued that curriculum should promote more of a dialogic pedagogy in whole-class, group-based and/or one-on-one teaching to guide the co-construction of knowledge and the use of English (Hardman, 2008). In addition to transcribing, rote, recitation, instruction, and exposition, the classroom pedagogy should promote discussion (open exchange of views and information and problem-solving) and dialogue (co-construction through open questions which allow for more than one answer, probing and building on answers from pupils) (Alexander, 2008). On top of that, the well-implemented curriculum is a key point in the success of a curriculum system. Further, new curricula feature CM as an influential issue to determine whether a new curriculum is well-implemented.

2.6 English in Indonesia

English was the first foreign language required to be taught in junior and senior high schools by central government policy since independence in 1945. It is prioritized over other foreign languages such as Arabic, Chinese, and others (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). The Ministry of Education stated that the teaching-learning of English as a foreign language in Indonesia was intended to equip students to read textbooks and references in English, to participate in classes and examinations that involved foreign lecturers and students, and to introduce Indonesian culture in International arenas. These general objectives were represented in the high school English curricula of 1975, 1984, and 1994 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). English is currently taught for at least two hours a week in all levels at senior high schools. Students in grade X at senior high schools study English for three hours a week while the students in grades XI and XII attend English classes for four hours a week as one of the optional subjects (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013).

From a total of 6410 senior high schools in Indonesia, 1270 senior high schools across the country were selected as pilot project schools for the new curriculum. In Jambi Province, 92 high schools were selected for the pilot project to implement the new 2013 Curriculum (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013). The Minister of Education in the new government of Indonesia under President Jokowi issued a decree that those schools where the 2013 Curriculum had already been implemented for 3 semesters were to keep implementing the new curriculum in 2015-16 but no other high schools would start to use the new curriculum until it had been reviewed (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2005).

Two of the schools which will continue to implement the 2013 Curriculum are SMAN (State Senior High Schools) 1 and 5 Jambi. These schools started implementing the 2013 curriculum for students in grade X in 2013 and for grade XII in 2015. The reasons for choosing these schools for the research study were because:

- 1) These are government schools which can represent most schools in Jambi,
- 2) These 2 schools are located in the heart of the city and are easily accessible by everyone living in Jambi which means that the students come from a wide variety of places in the city of Jambi,
- 3) During an earlier visit, we were given approval to conduct research at these two schools.

3. METHOD

This research used a qualitative design with a case study approach. This enabled researchers to work with small groups to gain in-depth information, understanding, and wider insights on the subjects selected (Patton, 1990; Yildirim & Donmez, 2008). Furthermore, (Creswell, 2012) says that the case study approach focuses deeply on the exploration of a bounded system (e.g. an activity, an event, a process, or even an individual).

The participants in this study were officially invited to participate by the Dean of the Faculty of Education and Teacher Training at Jambi University. Eight teachers of English from these two national senior high schools (SMAN 5 and SMAN 1 Jambi), each with more than 5 years of experience in teaching English were selected as a

purposive sample. In qualitative research, both [Creswell \(2012\)](#) and [Mack et al. \(2005\)](#) state that in ‘purposive’ or ‘purposeful’ sampling the researchers choose participants or sites that will give useful information about a phenomenon. In addition, purposive sampling is the most common strategy used to find relevant informants for research questions. The distribution of participants is set out in Table 1 that follows.

Table 1. Participants’ distribution for interviews and for Focus Group Discussion.

<i>Codes</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>School</i>	<i>Status</i>	<i>Teaching experience</i>	<i>Education level</i>
AK	31	SMAN 5 Jambi	Married	5 years	Bachelor in English Education
SM	45		Married	17 years	
NT	50		Married	26 years	
TH	45		Married	19 years	
AL	47	SMAN 1 Jambi	Married	21 years	
IP	48		Married	22 years	
AN	38		Married	18 years	
TU	37		Married	16 years	

In the principles for research ethics, respect for persons requires a commitment to ensure the autonomy of research participants where autonomy may be diminished and to protect people from exploitation of their vulnerability. The dignity of all research participants must be respected. Adherence to this principle ensures that people will not be used simply as a means to achieve research objectives ([Mack et al., 2005](#)). And thus, in this research, names of the participants are initials, i.e. a pseudonym in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

We used semi-structured interviews, a FGD (Focus Group Discussion), observations, and review of documents to collect data. A semi-structured interview is a qualitative research instrument for collecting data which ensures that each interviewee is presented with exactly the same questions in the same order allowing a researcher to enter into the inner worlds of other people and gain an understanding of their perspectives using a set of prepared questions ([Creswell, 2012](#); [Patton, 1990](#)). Furthermore, [Yoell \(1974\)](#) notes that a FGD is a way to get in-depth information in qualitative research. [Creswell \(2012\)](#) states observations are the noting of behavioral patterns of people in certain situations to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest. In addition, according to [Johnson and Christensen \(2008\)](#), documentation includes anything that is written, photographed, or otherwise recorded for certain purposes.

Each participant was interviewed at each school for 30-40 minutes and all interviews were recorded using a Lenovo K4 smartphone. All eight participants were invited to be involved in one FGD held at SMAN 5 Jambi, which lasted for three hours and was recorded with the same smartphone. Observations of classroom activities were done in each school to obtain field evidence. Additionally, documents were copied to get additional information: the teachers’ lesson plans and the grade XI English text book.

Triangulation, member checking and reflexivity were applied ([Creswell, 2012](#); [Johnson & Christensen, 2008](#); [Mukminin & McMahon, 2013](#)) to test the trustworthiness of the data collected for this study. We did triangulation in the research seeing it through analysis of the data from the interviews, FGD, observations, and document review. To verify the accuracy of the data, we returned the transcribed interviews and FGD data to each teacher involved for checking. This was done to make sure that each

of the teachers were in agreement with the data which we obtained and used from them and each teacher or participant allowed us to use data that came from them in our research. Creswell (2012) states that researchers have to explicitly identify their biases, values, and personal interest about their research topic, process, and access to the research participants. Through reflexivity, we actively engaged in critical self-reflection about our potential biases. Through reflexivity, we became more self-aware to control our biases. We did the self-reflection by discussing whether we had bias and if so, what bias did we have in our analysis.

Marshall and Rossman (1999, p. 150) have explained that qualitative data analysis is “a messy, time consuming, creative, ambiguous, and fascinating process” and “undoubtedly, no consensus exists for the analysis of the forms of qualitative data” (Creswell, 1998, p. 140). In analyzing the data, interviews and FGD were recorded with a recorder and transcribed, then meticulously analyzed and categorized into one of several themes. On the first step, we did what Miles and Huberman (1994) have called “within case analysis.” After the interviews and FGD audiotapes were transcribed verbatim, we did analysis and categorization into themes and sub-themes. Then we did what Miles and Huberman (1994) have called “cross-case analysis.” We re-analyzed and compared the transcripts from all eight teachers in order to find the frequency of statements among participants for each general theme and for each sub-theme. We also did a cross-case analysis in order to remove repetitive data (e.g. one participant made the same statement several times). To support the data from the interview and FGD, observations using field notes were done to see the happenings in the classroom related to the people’s behavioral patterns in certain situations to obtain information about the phenomenon of classroom management processes and problems (Creswell, 2012).

4. FINDINGS

The findings of this study examining classroom management implementation, processes and problems are divided into three themes: teaching standards, rules, and procedures, classroom climate and schedules.

4.1 Teaching Standards, Rules, and Procedures

The voice projection, tone and vocal character of each teacher and the comprehensibility and appearance including way of dress of each of them are all items in this part. The data from the study is presented in Table 1 that follows.

Table 2. Findings concerning the teaching standards, rules, and procedures.

<i>Sub-theme</i>	<i>The description of the classroom management</i>	<i>In line with the curriculum?</i>	<i>Problems found</i>
Voice projection, tone and character of voice of each teacher	Each teacher could easily be heard by all her students, except at some times, in some classes they were hard to hear due to the noise outside.	yes	Noise from outside of the classroom.

Table 2 continued...

Comprehensibility of each teacher, her words and delivery	They each used language that was straight forward and easy to understand and each one explained the meaning of new or difficult words and collocations.	yes	Some difficult words were found in the textbooks. The large number of students in each class made class management difficult.
Appearance of each teacher	Each was dressed appropriately with appropriate hirsuteness or hair covers	yes	No problems.

We sat in desks in the back-row, far from the teachers' desk, and they found that the voice of each teacher could usually be heard well from there except when there was a lot of noise from outside the classroom. The teachers in the interviews and in the FGD admitted that they have attempted to make their voice, tone, and volume clearly heard by checking with the students who were sitting the farthest away from where they were standing and by speaking louder and slower and more distinctly than they were normally accustomed to and even, in some cases, by yelling. Two of the teachers reported as follows (E refers to Excerpt from the data):

E1 *"I understand that I [my voice] should be heard by all the students there in the classroom. Actually I did something about it; I always asked the students the farthest from me whether they could hear me clearly or not". (AK)*

E2 *"I sometimes speak very loudly to the students to make sure that they can hear what I am talking about". (TU)*

Even though three of the teachers had done their best to project their voice tone and volume, they still had problems. The situation outside of the classroom influences the background noise level and hence the receptive ability of the students. The other problem that occurred in the classrooms was those located in between or next to a sports-field. The loud noises and shouting by the students and their instructors doing physical exercises created an uncomfortable situation in the adjacent classrooms due to the high background noise.

Delivering polite, straightforward and easy to understand words must be done in the teaching-learning process in line with the curriculum. Based on the results, each teacher was easy to understand. We found no inappropriate or taboo words, phrases, and sentences used in their teaching, no racism, sexism, etc. The results from the interviews and the FGD also support this result.

E3 *"Certainly, we use polite words, straight forward and easy words. It is a teacher's obligation to never use bad, taboo or swear words and to use good English on most occasions". (SM)*

E4 *"As teachers, we have to produce good sentences [not bad language]. When we feel anger we must be more patient with our students. We must set an example for our students". (TH)*

Some problems that emerged in the observation sessions were: when there were difficult words in the reading exercises, the teachers, found the difficult words in the

reading passages but the students seemed not to worry about them, they could not care less. Furthermore, the teachers sometimes pronounced some words incorrectly. The large number of the students was also a problem. They could not check on each student, one by one, to make sure that each of the students understood the meaning of all of the words.

Teachers have to dress modestly, cleanly, and tidily to meet the requirements of classroom management in the curriculum and based on the results of this research they all did. All these teachers always wore their official uniforms in the observation sessions and in the interviews and the FGD, the teachers said that they always dressed properly in the classroom. They never broke the rules because they believe that they are must set an example for their students. Two of the teachers said,

E5 *“I use appropriate dress daily, and I think it is important to be well-dressed since we have to set a good example for our students. Not to mention pants, wristwatches, and belts. But batik is the best thing”.* (NT)

E6 *“I am fashionable I think because I always take care of my outfits. I dress appropriately in the classroom, I wear a blazer sometimes, batik and a shirt and our uniform. I also put on pants and a long skirt, not short one and some accessories but for my English class that you observed I used my formal dress”.* (IP)

When not wearing the official uniform, the male teachers confirmed that they wear formal shirts (not T-shirts), long pants and shoes, as well as wristwatches and neat hair in the classroom while the female teacher(s) put on a blazer, a long skirt, head scarf and formal shoes.

4.2 Classroom Climate

In classroom management, classroom climate is divided into four sub-themes:

- (i) the students' seating arrangements,
- (ii) encouragement to get students to ask and argue,
- (iii) order, discipline, convenience and safety in the organization of the learning processes, and
- (iv) Providing reinforcement, feedback and returning assignments done by the students.

The data from the study is presented in Table 3 that follows.

Table 3. Findings about classroom climate from the interviews, observations and FGD.

<i>Sub-theme</i>	<i>Description of the classroom management implementation</i>	<i>In line with curriculum?</i>	<i>Problems found</i>
(i) student seating arrangement	The teachers said they never set the seating arrangement.	no	Large number of students, space in the classroom, and not enough time
(ii) encourage students to ask and argue	They did attempt to encourage their students to ask and argue.	yes	Crowded classes, students' anxiety.

Table 3 continued...

(iii) discipline, order, safety and convenience in the learning process	They warned students who made much noise, punished those who made mistakes, and asked them to be on time.	yes	Large number of students, time consuming, and students' discipline.
(iv) reinforcement, feedback, and returning assignments	They complemented students when they had done things well and returned assignments to students.	yes	Large number of students, one teacher did not return assignments to students (NV).

First, teachers must adjust the students' seating arrangement which is related to the objectives of the learning process and the characteristics of the students and this was not implemented in line with the curriculum. The seating arrangements remained in the same pattern although the teachers varied the activities and strategies in their teaching-learning processes. The teacher's desk and chair was always on the left in the front of each classroom while the students' chairs and desks were neatly set out in rows from the front to the back of each classroom. The teachers all said similar things in the interviews and the FGD: They hardly ever adjusted the students' seating arrangements. They were accustomed to working with the fixed arrangement. Some teachers said:

E7 *"Honestly, I never change the position of the students' seating arrangements...It is hard to say but that is the truth". (TH)*

E8 *"There are problems in this area. There are too many students in the classroom and the room is too small to get them to sit in groups. Besides, it is so time consuming. You know, our time (for one class) is only around one and a half hour". (TU)*

There are problems in adjusting the students' seating arrangements based on the results from the interviews and the FGD. The teachers say: 1) there are too many students in the classroom, 2) the classrooms are too small to move the chairs and tables around, and 3) it is time-consuming to change the students' seating arrangements.

Second, the teachers must encourage and reward the students to ask and argue. This was done by giving the students enough time to work in pairs or in groups of four, to ask if they have questions to submit and to give applause or good scores for those who actively asked and argued. NT and IP who are amongst the senior teachers not only tried to engage their students to have discussions while the observations were taking place but they also encouraged them to ask about anything related to the topics taught. They grouped the students and asked them to discuss the material given and then they had to present what they had discussed. The interviews and the FGD results showed that all these teachers had made attempts to encourage their students to ask and argue. One of the teachers said in the interview:

E8 *"I want my students to be able to (ask and argue), you know, that's the purpose of learning a language; I give the students time to ask and argue with me or with their friends. It's so good to see them present what they have done". (TH)*

- E9 *“We believe that students will be better if the students are active in the process of teaching and learning. We should also keep them working independently in order to build their ability to work in a team”.* (IP)

One problem that emerged was that teachers need to make extra efforts (and have extra time) to encourage all their students to ask and argue because not all students have the self-confidence to say what they want to say and some students tend to dominate the asking and arguing sessions unless those students are controlled by the teacher.

Third, teachers must create order, discipline, convenience and safety according to the curriculum. The findings showed that each teacher was committed to doing that by warning students who made too much noise and even giving punishments to those who were very unruly and by asking all of the students to come on time. From the interviews and the FGD, two teachers said:

- E10 *“I think I did it...to create order, discipline, convenience, and safety during the teaching-learning processes. I always warned students to behave and I checked their attendance on the list and always warned those students who were not punctual”.* (AN)
- E11 *“I have always tried to do it by many attempts and it is our responsibility to create a conducive situation in the teaching processes”.* (AL)

Classes that were too big were the main problem which made teachers need more time to create order, discipline, convenience and safety in the teaching-learning processes. Further, the students also often broke the rules for example by coming late, by not bringing the books they needed or by wearing informal clothes and by having their cell phones switched on in the classroom.

Fourth is providing reinforcement and feedback to the students' responses and their work results was another thing that had to be carried out in this theme. The findings showed that all these teachers had implemented this by complementing students who had done good things, for instances: speaking actively, asking questions, arguing and presenting. Furthermore, two teachers, TH and IP also returned, gave the correction and scored the students' assignments. The interviews and the FGD results showed that the teachers agreed with the results from the observations. One teacher reported:

- E12 *“On this matter (reinforcement and feedback), we frequently do it, every chance we get. I also give homework back to the students. That is a part of our responsibilities as teachers.”* (TH)

A big problem in this area was that there were too many students in each class and their teachers only had limited time with them. There were so many students in every class that each teacher had to pay attention to, and with the limitations of their time, they could not check all of the assignments and sometimes they missed some.

4.3 Timing and Scheduling

Timing and scheduling include the speed of adjustment to the subject matter and the speed of the students to learn, explanation of the syllabus and of the subjects at the start of the semester and punctuality in starting classes according to the time schedule. The data from the study is presented in Table 4 that follows.

Table 4. Findings for timing and scheduling from interviews, observations and FGD.

<i>Sub-theme</i>	<i>Description of the classroom management implementation</i>	<i>In line with curriculum?</i>	<i>Problems found</i>
Adjustment of time to the subject matter and the ability of students to learn	Teachers made sure that the students have got something from the material given and the way that they spoke was not too fast.	Yes	Large number of students.
Explanation of syllabus at the beginning of the semester	The teachers explained the syllabus and the subjects at the start of the semester.	Yes	No problems.
Punctuality in attendance according to schedule	Some of the students came late to class.	Some (yes)	Need more discipline.

Teachers must adjust their speed of teaching with the subject matter and the ability of their students to learn. The findings revealed that teachers could manage the speed adjustment by speaking appropriately (not too fast or too slow) and by repeating where necessary. The way teachers' teaching was being done in line with the curriculum. They said similar things in the interviews and the FGD as shown below.

E13 *"I always make sure that they (my students) have all understood my orders, explanations and so on. I speak really slowly in the classroom". (TU)*

E14 *"Even though I speak a little fast, I think the students could get my ideas. I also give time for them to speak out. And make sure that I am not too fast in dealing with it, I mean the speed of the subject". (NT)*

Problems that were still found in this section were that the classes were too big and the time was too short. There were more than 40 students in every class and it was difficult for all of the students to get the materials. The limitation of time was also a problem (one teaching-learning session was 90 minutes).

It is compulsory for teachers to explain about the syllabus of the subjects at the beginning of the semester. We could not observe this item as their observations were carried out during the mid-semester. In the interviews and the FGD, two of the teachers reported that they explained the syllabus and the subjects at the beginning of the semester.

E15 *"I always explain the syllabus at the beginning of the semester. The students will then have pictures of what will happen in the next meetings. I think I have the idea based on the course in my college where the lecturers always explained the syllabus at the beginning of the semester." (AN)*

In explaining the syllabus of the subject at the beginning of the semester the teachers had no serious problems. A teacher reflected:

E16 *"I have no problems in doing that [explaining the syllabus in the beginning of the semester]. It depends on the teachers to explain it or not". (AL)*

The curriculum set the rule for the teachers to begin and end the learning process according to the time schedules. From this research, it was found that two of the eight teachers did not always follow the rules. Based on the observations, these two teachers were not always punctual in coming to the classroom. The interviews and the FGD did not show similar results, the teachers all said that they were always on time. Two of the teachers said:

E17 *"I think I always start the teaching-learning process according to schedule. You can see that from your observations". (AK)*

E18 *"Yes, I always start and end it (the teaching-learning process) on time. Even though, sometimes, we have to calm them (the students) down first before starting, but I think I have done it (starting and ending the teaching and learning process on time)". (AN)*

The only problem in this part was the self-discipline of the two teachers. But this was not admitted by the two teachers concerned in the interviews. One of these teachers said:

E19 *"I have no problems with it (starting and ending the teaching-learning process on time). But I think to get their attention is the main problem". (SM)*

5. DISCUSSIONS

This research provides empirical findings about classroom management implementation, processes and problems in accordance with the latest Indonesian curriculum, the 2013 curriculum (Kementerian Pendidikan, 2013). The processes which include teaching performance, classroom attitude and time management have mostly been in accordance with the 2013 Curriculum. The findings presented here also show that the problems that appeared in the process of implementation of classroom management have all been discussed in many previous studies (Gower & Walters, 1988; Matus, 1999; McKinney et al., 1983; McPhillimy, 1996; Prodromou, 1992; Sasidher, 2012).

5.1 Teaching Standards, Rules, and Procedures

The teaching performance includes the teachers' voice projection, tone and vocal character, their comprehensibility and their appearance. In the findings, all the teachers could be easily heard by the students in almost all the classrooms. The ways that teachers used to make sure that they could be clearly heard by all their students was (i) by questioning students who were sitting farthest from them to see if they understood

what the teacher had just said, (ii) by speaking louder than they usual, and even (iii) by yelling in some cases.

Secondly, the use of customary language, straightforward and easy to understand is another rule in the curriculum for classroom management. Based on the observations, interviews and FGD, the teachers all used customary words, straight forward, and easy to be understood. We found no taboo or inappropriate words used in the teaching-learning processes. This was also acknowledged in the interviews and the FGD.

Thirdly, in this part of teaching performance it is stated that teachers must dress properly as part of classroom management. In this study all the teachers always dressed properly in accordance with the curriculum and most put on their official uniform in the observation sessions. In the interviews and the FGD, all the teachers said that they always wore proper dress in the classroom because they think that it is important to set an example for their students.

5.2 Classroom Climate

Students' seating arrangements, encouragement to make students ask and argue, order, discipline, convenience and safety in the organization of the learning process, and providing reinforcement, feedback and returning students' assignments are all parts of classroom attitude in the 2013 Curriculum.

First, teachers are responsible for adjusting the seating in their classes which is related to the objectives of the learning process and the characteristics of the students and the results here were not in line with the curriculum. Based on the findings, the seating always stayed in the same position although a variety of activities were held there. The teacher's desk was always on the left at the front of the classroom while the students' desks were arranged neatly in rows from the front to the back of the room.

Second, teachers must encourage and reward the students when they ask and argue and this was done in line with the curriculum. It was conducted by providing students enough time to work in pairs or in groups of four, to ask if they have questions, to submit and to give applause or good scores for those who were active.

Third, it was about order, discipline, convenience, and safety. The findings showed that the teachers have implemented the rules for creating order, discipline, convenience and safety in the process of English teaching-learning. They have done it by telling students who made too much noise to keep quiet, giving punishment for those who were unruly and asking students to be on time.

Finally, providing reinforcement and feedback to the students for their responses and their work results is a must in the curriculum. All the teachers implemented this by praising the students if they had done good work in the process of learning English and by giving feedback on their work results.

5.3 Timing and Scheduling

Timing and scheduling include adjustment of the speed of teaching to the subject matter and the ability of their students to learn, explaining the syllabus of the subjects at the beginning of the semester, and punctuality in the learning process according to the time schedules.

First, each teacher should adjust their speed of teaching the subject matter according to the ability of their students to learn. The findings revealed that all the

teachers could manage this speed adjustment. They always made sure that the students had got something from the material given and the way they spoke was not too fast and they repeated important materials. In short, the way the teachers taught was done in line with the curriculum.

Second, each teacher is obliged to explain to the students about the syllabus and the subjects at the beginning of the semester. This activity could not be done in the observations as they were done mid-semester. From the interview and FGD results, the teachers reported that they always explained the syllabus and the subjects at the beginning of the semester.

The rules also state that teachers are to begin and end the learning process according to the time schedule. From the findings, two of the eight teachers had not always done this as they were frequently not on time starting the teaching-learning process: they arrived late at their classroom, after the bell to start the class had rung but they were always on time when the bell rang to end the session.

Some problems that emerged in the introductory, core, and closing activities were: 1) the teachers were not keeping up-to-date with the latest technology, 2) their schools lacked up-to-date equipment, 3) there were too many students in each class, 4) space: the rooms were too small for the large number of students, 5) less opportunity for the students to practice (because the classes were too big), and 6) situational problems, i.e. crowding in some classes. These problems are in accordance with findings from some previous studies which have revealed that the phenomena of classes being too big appears to be due to the failure to provide adequate resources, i.e. more teachers and more classrooms (Gower & Walters, 1988; Matus, 1999; McKinney et al., 1983; McPhillimy, 1996; Prodromou, 1992; Sasidher, 2012).

6. SUGGESTIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATION

Arising from the results of this research, we would like to make some suggestions and recommendations for all parties, teachers, school administrators, principals, and policy makers. Gower and Walters (1988) concluded that stakeholders in educational institutions should consider assessing to what extent effective classroom management is implemented since assessment plays a vital role in developing the basic skills for students who are the corner stone in the teaching process. Teachers should be assessed in order to improve their performance and to avoid negative issues if there are any.

In this study, we have some suggestions and policy recommendations:

- (i) High schools should keep up-to-date with the latest technology especially senior teachers who are not accustomed to using recent technology.
- (ii) Have smaller classes, 25 is a good maximum number of students.
- (iii) Create more discipline to maintain better conditions in the classrooms.
- (iv) Provide more trainings for implementing the new, 2013, curriculum.
- (v) Give more students opportunity to be active (student learning centers).
- (vi) Organize the students' seating arrangement in line with activities and needs.
- (vii) Start classes punctually.
- (viii) Speak more slowly and deliberately.
- (ix) Give more homework.

In addition, the suggestions and policy implications below are also submitted for consideration by both the schools and also the educational authorities, national and provincial:

- (a) Provide more technological support for the teaching-learning processes,
- (b) Provide more teachers training for teaching English in accordance with the 2013 Curriculum,
- (c) Limit the number of students in each class to a maximum of 25,
- (d) Build more classrooms in accordance with the 2013 curriculum, and
- (e) Discipline teachers who do not start class meetings on time.

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EFL Reading Comprehension and Reading Strategies of Different Genders

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Abstract

Two of the most examined dimension of reading strategies that have an affective influence on different genders are cognitive strategy and metacognitive strategy. This study was aimed to find out whether reading comprehension using different strategies would have different result or not for the two different genders. The researchers used a quantitative causal-comparative research approach, and data were collected from two instruments: reading comprehension test and questionnaires. A number of 50 students (25 females and 25 males) from one of the universities in Banjarmasin participated in this study. The results showed that between the two types of strategies, the cognitive strategy was mostly favoured by the male students, and metacognitive strategy was favoured by the female students. Nevertheless, their metacognitive or cognitive reading strategies preference does not significantly differ in their reading comprehension score. The interaction between two independent variables did not significantly happen in this research. The choice of using certain reading strategy was not determined by the category of gender. In other words, a certain type of gender using a certain type strategy did not give better results in reading comprehension.

Keywords: Reading comprehension, reading strategies, gender.

1. INTRODUCTION

According to Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 273), “many EFL (English Foreign Language) students often have reading as one of their most important goals. They want to be able to read information, to read for pleasure, and to read for study

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purposes". By being able to read (English) easily, students are able to fulfill their educational needs as well as having pleasure. In 2013, the [English Proficient Index \(2013\)](#) reported that Indonesia's position was rank no. 25 out of 100 in the country ranking table with the status of "moderate proficiency" in English. This position was slightly better than in 2012 with the position of 27 or "low proficiency", and in 2011 with position no. 34 or "very low proficiency". These three years of data show that many Indonesians, especially students, struggle to master the four language skills in English, including reading, despite that it is continuously improving at present.

The fact that comprehension is very important in EFL reading led us to conduct this research at the English Department of Islamic University of Muhammad Arsyad Al Banjari Kalimantan, in Banjarmasin, concerning the differences in reading achievements and reading problems between males and females. Based on our preliminary study, we found that from the reading class results from the previous semester, about 34.5 % of the female students had low reading scores while only 14.6% of the male students had low scores. Accordingly, we would like to investigate further on what causes the differences. By investigating the effect of gender differences and reading strategies on students' reading comprehension, this study aimed to figure out the reading strategy that is most favoured by the students of each gender, the preferred reading strategy that can improve their reading comprehension, and the interaction between gender and reading strategy for their reading comprehension performance. The results of this research can be input for teachers so that they can further understand the needs of their students in the EFL classroom, especially when teaching reading.

1.1 Constellation of the Research

The constellation of the research showed the relationship between independent variables and dependent variable as we can see below:

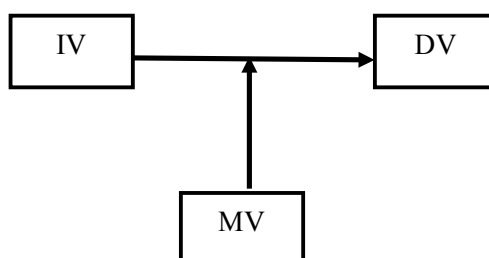


Figure 1. Constellation of the research.

Note:

IV : Independent Variable (Gender Differences)

MV : Moderator Variable (Reading Strategies)

DV : Dependent Variable (Reading Comprehension)

Independent variable is the gender differences (male and female) that assumes to have effect or may cause result on the dependent variable, which is students' reading comprehension. Whereas reading strategies as the moderator variable becomes the bridge between independent variable and dependent variable; it connects with the direct relationship that can be strengthened or weakened between the independent variable and dependent variable.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Reading Comprehension

The concept of reading comprehension, one should have clear definition of what comprehension is about. Lunzer et al. (1979) clearly provided a clear distinction between reading and comprehension. Reading is an activity that one does; meanwhile, comprehension is to understand something that one does. For instance, a reader who understands what he has read can answer questions about it, or he can reproduce the gist of it in the form of written or spoken summary. Even while reading, he can demonstrate his comprehension by supplying missing words, as in a cloze test. Furthermore, Lunzer et al. (1979) said that comprehension indicates achievement which measures the reader's ability and willingness to reflect on whatever it is that we read.

2.2 Reading Strategies

Nunan (1999, p. 249) stated that strategy is "the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language". It is a fact that many of foreign language students are not familiar with the use of strategy. In short, reading strategies are conscious actions that readers employ to enhance their comprehension of the textual information. Readers can use reading strategies to make purposeful and conscious plans to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures.

2.3 Gender and Reading Comprehension

In order to achieve better comprehension, male and female use different styles and strategies toward the text. The combination between gender factors and the use of strategies are likely to affect their classroom reading comprehension achievement.

Bidlake (2007) explained that gender identity may have an implication in a learner's second language access and opportunities. In this way, gender will influence the amount of language and the kind of second language exposure available for the learner. She also emphasized three areas where gender takes a role in language learning, they are: (1) proficiency assessments, (2) classroom interactions, and (3) working with factors outside the classroom (Bidlake, 2007, pp. 11-14). Furthermore, Phakiti (2006) also studied the nature of cognitive strategies (comprehending, retrieval and memory strategies) and metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring and evaluating strategies) and their direct and indirect relationships to EFL reading comprehension test performance.

Based on the social cognitive theory of gender, it is explained that males and females develop differently according to what they have been observed and imitated (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). It has been found that females scored significantly higher than males in metacognitive strategies in learning Arabic (Yusri et al., 2013). Nevertheless, Lee (2012) found that EFL male students used more strategies use than female students in the aspects of memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Similar to Yusri et al. (2013), she also discovered that females used more strategies of metacognitive and social affective while reading. Thus, it can be concluded that male and female go through the reading process in different ways.

3. METHODOLOGY

We used a quantitative causal-comparative research approach. The next sub-sections explain the methods used in this research.

3.1 Research Variables and Design

This research involved two variables, independent variables (gender and reading strategies), and a dependent variable (reading comprehension). We applied 2 x 2 factorial design, with two levels of gender (male and female) and two levels of reading strategies (cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies), as shown in Table 1.

Table1. The association between variables (2 x 2 factorial design).

<i>Factor A</i>	<i>Factor B</i>	
	B ₁	B ₂
A ₁	A ₁ B ₁	A ₁ B ₂
A ₂	A ₂ B ₁	A ₂ B ₂

Where:

Factor A : Gender

A₁ : Male

A₂ : Female

Factor B : Reading strategies

B₁ : Cognitive reading strategy

B₂ : Metacognitive reading strategy

A₁B₁ : Male using cognitive strategy

A₁B₂ : Male using metacognitive strategy

A₂B₁ : Female using cognitive strategy

A₂B₂ : Male using metacognitive strategy

3.2 Population and Sample

The population was selected from the third semester students in the Extensive Reading classes of Islamic University of Muhammad Arsyad Al Banjari Kalimantan (or UNISKA). The whole populations of these students are 241 students and divided into six reading classes. From these classes, we used only two classes with 50 students chosen as the samples. They were randomly selected using the SPSS version 21. Since this study focused on the differences in gender on reading comprehension and reading strategies, therefore one class (class A) comprised of 25 male students. Whereas, another class (class B) comprised of 25 female students.

3.3 Research Instruments

In this research, the writer used two kinds of instruments. They are: reading comprehension test and questionnaires.

3.3.1 The Validity of the Instrument

Brown (2001, p. 306) said validity refers to “the extent to which inferences made from assessment result are appropriate and meaningful, and useful in terms of purpose

of the assessment”. Thus, a reading test can only be said valid if it actually measures reading ability. Testing the construct validation was conducted by measuring the correlation between variables, or between items with total score of the variables. We calculated the correlation between items of questions with the total scores using the Pearson Product Moment formula:

Where:

r_{xy} = Pearson Product Moment correlation
 Σx = total scores of a half of the test
 Σy = total scores of the other half of the test
 Σx^2 = total sum of a half squared
 Σy^2 = total sum of the other squared
 Σxy = total sum of a half times the other half
 n = total respondents

$$r_{xy} = \frac{n \Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{(n \Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2)(n \Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2)}}$$

3.3.2 Reliability of the Instrument

Johnson and Christensen (2008, pp. 147-148) explained that “a test is homogeneous or not dimensional when the items measure a single construct or a single dimension such as reading comprehension or spelling ability”. To test the reliability of the instrument, we used the Alpha Cronbach and split-half calculation. The formula is as below:

$$r_{tt} = \frac{2 \cdot r_{xy}}{1 + r_{xy}}$$

Where:

r_{tt} = Split-half reliability
 r_{xy} = Pearson product moment correlation

3.4 Technique of Data Collection

The data sources for this quantitative research were the scores from a test. The researcher used the test with the male and female students to obtain the results for reading comprehension from the reading classes. The reading comprehension test included multiple choices, and all forms were scored as either right or wrong as in dichotomous items characteristic of test item.

3.5 Technique of Data Analysis

The data were analysed descriptively and inferentially. Descriptive analysis covers the mode, median, range, mean, standard deviation and the distribution of frequency in histograms. Descriptive analysis is to give information concerning the students' scores. Inferential analysis was done by using a two-way ANOVA for hypotheses testing. However, before testing the hypotheses, the data were analysed for

its normality by using Kolmogorov-Smirnov formula and its homogeneity of the variances by using Levine's test statistics. All were computed by SPSS version 21.0.

3.5.1 Test of Normality

This test was used to test the data for normality. The statistical test for normality is a test of the null hypothesis that the distribution is normal. The desirable outcome is a significance value for the statistics (α) of more than 0.05 so that the data fails to reject the null hypothesis. If it fails to reject the null hypothesis, it can be concluded that the data is normally distributed and meets the normality assumption. The hypotheses of the test of normality are:

H_0 : The data distribution is normal

H_1 : The data distribution is not normal

3.5.2 Test of Homogeneity

Test of homogeneity or Levene's test statistics is an inferential statistic used to assess the equality of variances for a variable calculated for two or more groups. It means that the variances of the samples to be compared must be identical, but only that they do not differ by an amount that is statistically significant. The hypotheses are:

H_0 : The population variances are equal

H_1 : The population variances are not equal

3.5.3 Test of Hypotheses

The statistical hypotheses of this research are:

1. Gender Differences

H_0 : $\mu A_1 = \mu A_2$

Male and female do not significantly differ on their reading comprehension.

H_1 : $\mu A_1 \neq \mu A_2$

Male and female significantly differ on their reading comprehension

2. Reading Strategies

H_0 : $\mu B_1 = \mu B_2$

Students who use cognitive and metacognitive do not significantly differ on their reading comprehension.

H_1 : $\mu B_1 \neq \mu B_2$

Students who use cognitive and metacognitive significantly differ on their reading comprehension.

3. Interaction

H_0 : $Int. A \times B = 0$

There is no significant interaction between gender differences and reading strategies toward students' reading comprehension.

H_1 : $Int. A \times B \neq 0$

There is a significant interaction between gender differences and reading strategies toward students' reading comprehension.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

We used the Pearson Product Moment to find whether each question was valid or not by internal consistency. This is because we administered one test and correlated the items to each other. For testing reliability using internal consistency, we only needed to give the instrument twice to the participants. First, at the time of trying out the instrument, and second was at the time of the research. After we tried out of the instrument, it was found from the data of the questionnaires:

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma x &= 2.543 \\ \Sigma y &= 2.676 \\ \Sigma x^2 &= 131.945 \\ \Sigma y^2 &= 146.484 \\ \Sigma xy &= 138.553 \\ n &= 50\end{aligned}$$

4.1 Reliability

The reliability of the test estimated by the spilt half method was calculated below:

$$r_{tt} = \frac{2 \cdot r_{ab}}{1 + r_{ab}} = \frac{2 \cdot 0.77}{1 + 0.77} = 0.87$$

From the calculation above, it was found that the coefficient reliability of the reading strategies questionnaires was 0.87. It can be concluded that the reliability of the questionnaires was high.

The, after trying out the reading comprehension test, it was found that:

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma Si^2 &= 6.95 \\ \Sigma Sx^2 &= 20.48 \\ K &= 50\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Reliability Alpha Cronbach} &= \left(\frac{K}{K-1} \right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\Sigma Si^2}{\Sigma Sx^2} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{50}{50-1} \right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{6.95}{20.48} \right) \\ &= 1.02 \cdot (1 - 0.33) \\ &= 0.68\end{aligned}$$

From the calculation, it was found that the coefficient reliability of the reading comprehension test was 0.68, or acceptable. It can be concluded that the reliability of the questionnaires was in the medium reliability.

4.2 Normality

Due to the statistical data with 50 samples of reading comprehension test scores, the significance value of the normality test statistic for the male students' score with cognitive strategy was 0.178, and their score with metacognitive strategy was 0.216. Moreover, the female students' score with cognitive strategy was 0.365, and their score with metacognitive strategy was 0.247. All of the groups is bigger than 0.05. Thus, we can reject the null hypothesis (H_0) of normality and see a transformation of the variable

meet the statistical assumption. Thus, it is concluded that the data follow the normal statistical distribution.

4.3 Homogeneity

Test of homogeneity or Levene's test statistics is an inferential statistic used to assess the equality of variances for a variable calculated for two or more groups. It means that the variances of the samples to be compared must be identical, but only that they do not differ by an amount that is statistically significant.

Table 2. Levene's test of error variances.

<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
1.662	3	46	.188

The result of the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances in Table 2 indicated that the transformations of data are effective to explain the homogeneity of error variance for the two groups (males and females). The *p*-value is 0.188 (18.8%) which is bigger than 0.05 (5%) or α . We can accept the null hypothesis (H_0), so it can be interpreted that the population variances were equal.

4.4 Hypotheses

4.4.1 Descriptive Analysis

Table 3 shows the number of respondents who participated in this research. They were categorized based on their gender differences and reading strategies preferences. There were 50 respondents which consisted of 25 males and 25 females. The findings showed that there were 25 respondents of cognitive strategy users and another 25 who were metacognitive strategy users.

Table 3. Test between subjects and strategies.

		<i>Value label</i>	<i>N</i>
Gender	1	Male	25
	2	Female	25
Strategies	1	Cognitive	25
	2	Metacognitive	25

Furthermore, Table 4 shows the mean of reading comprehension scores distributed among the genders and reading strategies (cognitive and metacognitive).

Table 4. Mean of reading comprehension scores.

<i>Gender/Strategies</i>	<i>Cognitive</i>	<i>Metacognitive</i>	<i>Mean</i>
Male	40,43,46,50,53,56,60,60,63,66,73,73,73,76,76	43,56,63,66,66,70,70,73,73,76	$\bar{x}$ Male = 62.56
	$\bar{x} = 60, 53$	$\bar{x} = 65, 60$	
Female	50,76,76,76,76,80,83,83,83,86	70,73,73,76,76,76,76,76,80,83,83,86,86,90,93	$\bar{x}$ Female = 78.64
	$\bar{x} = 76, 90$	$\bar{x} = 79, 80$	

From Table 4, it can be seen that the frequent score achieved by the students was 76. Meanwhile, the overall mean of reading scores of male students was 62.56 and the female students was 78.54. The maximum score was 93, with the minimum score of 40. The range was 50, the median was 73, the standard deviation was 12.762, and the variance was 162.857. To be more specific, the data was divided into the mean score of the male students using cognitive strategy that was 60.53, and their mean score of using metacognitive strategy was 65.60. Whereas the mean score of female students using cognitive strategy was 76.90 and their score of using metacognitive strategy was 79.80.

Table 5 further illustrates the descriptive statistics of gender that divides the mean scores of male and female in their use of reading strategies. Both cognitive and metacognitive has its own mean score as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics.

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Strategies</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>N</i>
Male	Cognitive	60.53	12.276	15
	Metacognitive	65.60	9.812	10
	Total	62.56	11.420	25
Female	Cognitive	76.90	10.170	10
	Metacognitive	79.80	6.742	15
	Total	78.64	8.210	25
Total	Cognitive	67.08	13.916	25
	Metacognitive	74.12	10.631	25
	Total	70.60	12.762	50

By considering Table 5, the explanation falls into (a) the amount of male students who used two types of reading strategies based on the mean and standard deviation, and (b) the amount female students who used two types of reading strategies based on the mean and standard deviation. Hence, from 25 male students, there were 15 students who used cognitive strategy with the mean of 60.53 and standard deviation of 12.276. Only 10 students used metacognitive strategy with the mean of 65.60 and standard deviation of 9.812. The maximum score was 76, the minimum score was 36, and the range was 40. Accordingly, the cognitive strategy was mostly favoured by the male students. They used cognitive reading strategy to enhance their reading comprehension by operate comprehending the task, memorizing words, and retrieving names of items or objects.

There were also 25 female students, and those who used cognitive strategy were 10 students with the mean of 76.90 and standard deviation of 8.210. Meanwhile, 15 students used the metacognitive strategy with the mean of 79.80 and standard deviation of 6.742. The maximum score was 93, the minimum score was 50, and the range was 43. This shows that metacognitive strategy was mostly favoured by the female students. They used the metacognitive reading strategy to increase their comprehension rate by planning their written discourse, monitoring the attention to the task and monitoring comprehension while conducting the test, and evaluating or checking comprehension after finishing the task.

To conclude, the most favourable reading strategy that were used by the male students were the cognitive reading strategy, whereas the female students mostly used the metacognitive reading strategies. This implies that the male and female students have different types of reading strategies in their way of achieving better comprehension result.

To give a better view of the data, it is shown in the form of histograms to differentiate the different groups of data (male score with cognitive, male scores with metacognitive, female score with cognitive and lastly female score with metacognitive strategy) (see Figure 2).

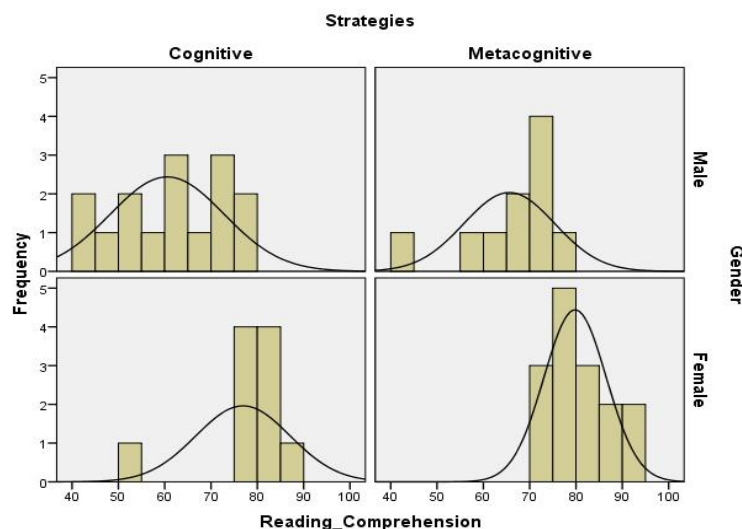


Figure 2. Histogram of 2 x 2 factorial design.

4.4.2 Inferential Analysis

Two ways Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) was used to test the three hypotheses. To do so, the p-value of each category must be seen whether they are higher than the p-value of α . The general assumptions of the three hypotheses are:

H_0 : If p-value is less than α (0.05) it means that there is a significant difference/interaction within category.

H_1 : If p-value is bigger than α (0.05) it means that there is no significant difference/interaction within category.

Table 6. Test between subject effects.

Source	Type III sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Partial eta squared
Corrected model	3436.567 ^a	3	1145.522	11.598	.000	.431
Intercept	239984.083	1	239984.083	2429.719	.000	.981
Gender	2802.963	1	2802.963	28.379	.000	.382
Strategies	190.403	1	190.403	1.928	.172	.040
Gender * strategies	14.083	1	14.083	.143	.707	.003
Error	4543.433	46	98.770			
Total	257198.000	50				
Corrected total	7980.000	49				

Based on Table 6 for the first category of gender, the p-value ($0.000 < \alpha$ (0.05)) which means there is a significant difference of reading comprehension scores between the two gender. The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is accepted. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference result between the male and female students' reading comprehension.

For the second category of reading strategy, the result showed that the p -value (0.526) $> \alpha$ (0.05), which means that there is no significant difference between the use of the two reading strategies (cognitive and metacognitive) due to the students' reading comprehension scores. The null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted, and the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is rejected. Thus, we can conclude that there is no significant difference between students who use the cognitive reading strategy with the students who use the metacognitive reading strategy.

For the last category of interaction, Table 7 shows that the p -value (0.707) $> \alpha$ (0.05), which means that there is no significant interaction between gender and the reading strategies. The null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted, and the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no interaction between gender differences and reading strategies on students' reading comprehension.

Table 7. Gender.

Gender	Mean	Std. error	95% Confidence interval	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Male	63.067	2.029	58.983	67.150
Female	78.350	2.029	74.267	82.433

Gender was the only category that showed a significant difference among the three hypotheses. As an illustration, Table 7 shows the type of gender that had better scores in reading comprehension, who are females.

4.5 Discussion

After analysing and interpreting the data, the researcher found that between two independent variables (gender and reading strategies), only one variable (gender) and which had different effect on the students' reading comprehension. Another finding is that last two hypotheses of reading strategies and the interaction (between gender and reading strategies) did not cause interaction and did not significantly affected students' reading comprehension.

Based on the results of this study, it was found that the metacognitive strategy was mostly favoured by the female students. They used this metacognitive reading strategy to increase their comprehension rate by planning their written discourse, monitoring the attention to the task and monitoring comprehension while conducting the test, and evaluating or checking the comprehension after finishing the task. Meanwhile, the favourable reading strategy by the male students was the cognitive reading strategy. They would do repetition to what they read and try to summarize meaning from the text. To guess meaning from the context and to use imagery for memorisation are also among the other strategies employed in the cognitive reading strategy. All of these strategies involve cautious use of language to improve their learning. Thus, male and female students have different types of reading strategies as their ways to achieve better comprehension result.

Based on the first hypothesis about gender, the p -value (0.000) $< \alpha$ (0.05); this means there is a significant difference of reading comprehension score between the two gender. The null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is accepted. To conclude, there is a significant difference between the male and female students on their reading comprehension. The results have proven that the female students had better reading comprehension result compared to the male students. This

difference of the female superiority can be seen through three different aspects: verbal fluency, overall performance, and language acquisition.

In the aspect of verbal fluency, the female students had better ability in identifying the meaning of words rather than their male peers. They successfully gave correct definition for designated words, whereas male students made more mistakes in their test. The lexical task required the students to predict the meaning of the designated words based on the list of options. From the first five questions which required them to guess the meaning of the underlined words (items number 16-20), the male students gave 64.8% of correct answers, whereas the female students gave 74.4%.

In aspect of overall performance, the female students were more interactive than the male students because from classes being observed, such as in classroom discussions. In the aspect of language acquisition, the female students outperformed than male students where they could fill in the blank with the correct words more properly. Female students were seen to use language more often, not only for learning but also for maintaining the interpersonal relationship among others; therefore, they had more opportunities to put into practices their language use and carry it out in the learning activities.

Male and female were exposed to many different social groups, and they were expected to have their male and female roles; for example, female were supposed to be feminine which possesses the characteristics of caring, sensitive, affectionate, whereas male were supposed to be masculine and possesses the characteristics of aggressive, competitive, strong and assertive. These types of characteristics were seen to affect the way the male and female students use language. These leads to the different ways on how the male and female students think, speak, write, and read.

The second hypothesis was about reading strategies, the p -value ($0.172 > \alpha$ (0.05); this means that there is no significant difference between the use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies from the students' reading comprehension scores. Thus, the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted, and the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is rejected. To conclude, there is no significant difference between students who use cognitive reading strategy with the students who use metacognitive reading strategy.

Even though the research findings showed that the female students who used more metacognitive strategy had higher scores than the male students who used more cognitive strategy, but the result in overall reading comprehension test did not show high correlation between the scores and the strategies used. Perhaps this is because the students, as they confessed themselves, were not active strategy users. They were not using the reading strategies to the fullest and they did not even notice the possibility of using specific strategy in reading. This means that many of the students were unaware in using the reading strategies. Apparently, when students are aware in using strategies, they can increase their efforts in reading. They can develop positive attitudes to make their reading comprehension more powerful and beneficial.

The last hypothesis was about interaction, in which the p -value ($0.707 > \alpha$ (0.05); this means that there is no significant difference in interaction between gender and the reading strategies. And so, the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted, and the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is rejected. To conclude, there is no significant interaction between gender differences and reading strategies toward students' reading comprehension.

Accordingly, the result of reading comprehension of a student cannot be explained by the type of gender and the type of reading strategy being used. To sum up, the

students' result on their reading comprehension was not being influenced by their use of specific reading strategy and specific type of gender.

5. CONCLUSION

The result of this research had shown that the female students had better reading comprehension scores than the male students. Both of the male and female students acquired the same stages in learning reading, but their reading development is different because they carry out their own social cognitive function of gender. Therefore, the assumption that reading strategies affects students reading comprehension is seemly to be rejected. Due to the result, the students' metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies preference does not significantly differ in their reading comprehension score. The interaction between two independent variables did not significantly happened in this research. The choice of using certain reading strategy was not determined by the category of gender. In other words, a certain type of gender using a certain type of strategy did not give better result in reading comprehension.

Nonetheless, the female students were better than the male students in reading comprehension in the EFL class. Therefore, to achieve better EFL reading comprehension results, and hence better English language graduates, it is suggested that English majoring departments specifically in Indonesia should put more emphasis on teaching reading strategies to both female and male students.

This study was conducted not without limitations. This study only focused on two groups of students (male and female) from one institution and only focused on two reading strategies, metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies. The variability of the reading comprehension result may also be influenced by other factors, and we suggest that future researchers further investigate this inquiry by employing more students and involving more institutions in their research.

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Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Teaching and Interactions with Students: Voices from a Tsunami Affected School in Banda Aceh

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Abstract

Casualties and physical destruction of the 2004 tsunami in Aceh are well documented in the literature. However, little is known about lives of teachers and students after the tragedy, particularly about the teaching and learning including teacher-student instructional relationships at the affected schools in the province. This cross-sectional qualitative case study, which was conducted between April and October 2010 at a public junior high school in Banda Aceh that was severely affected by the Aceh 2004 tsunami, provided evidences that the tragedy affected the quality of teachers' teaching and teacher-student relationships. Data were obtained from semi-structured interviews with ten students from the school, supported by data collection observations over a period of six months. In general, the students commented about their teachers in negative terms. This included students' deficit views about teachers' lack of commitment on their teaching practice and their poor interactions with students at the school, affecting the quality of students' learning at the school.

Keywords: Effective teaching, student learning, instructional relationship, Aceh, tsunami.

1. INTRODUCTION

Much has been written about the 2004 tsunami in Aceh. However, little has been found in the literature about the impact of the natural disaster on schools, particularly on the life of teachers and students at schools within the affected community. Previous research on disasters worldwide whether quantitative or qualitative, including studies related to the tsunami in Aceh even when done in school setting, has focused more on psychological aspects of the disaster impact. Among these are a study on post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) among students survivors in Aceh (Agustini et al., 2011),

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research identifying resilience among Aceh tsunami affected children (Hestyanti, 2006) and a study on psychopathology examining the effect of exposure and post-disaster changes in life circumstances (Irmansyah et al., 2010).

Research provides evidence that in addition to casualties and damage of property, disasters often result in significant post disaster problems (Freedy et al., 1992; Leon, 2004; Lindell, 2011) that are far beyond the loss of possessions and infrastructure destruction (Silove & Zwi, 2005). More specifically, students in schools who have been exposed to traumatic events may have had their performance in class impeded (Cole et al., 2005). In this case, students with behaviour issues due to stress, trauma or problems at homes as a result of the experience of traumatic event like the tsunami may experience rejection by teachers and peers and even their caregivers because of their difficult behaviours, reducing the opportunities for positive social engagement, classroom participation and supportive instruction and feedback (Harris et al., 2004).

In the life and development of many young children, teachers occupy important roles (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Wolmer et al., 2005). Due to the significant amount of time children spend with their teachers at school and their perceived role in the community, it is possible for teachers to have a strong influence in children's lives (Russo & Boman, 2007). Although only a minority of studies has explored the role of teachers as "protective buffers" in the lives of children who face great adversity, the role of teachers in helping children cope and develop resilience is critical (Benard, 1991). In the life of children affected by traumatic events, a teacher's role is even more vital. Teachers may help students understand situations that are beyond their comprehension and control (G. L. Bowen et al., 1998). This includes providing students with positive and supportive school and classroom environments including promoting positive classroom interactions and having positive and high expectations of students' achievement (Benard, 1991; G. L. Bowen et al., 1998).

As adults, it is necessary that teachers understand children's emotional reactions and respond to them in appropriate ways (Mandel et al., 2006). In addition, teacher should create a stable and supportive environment in which children can be full participants in their school communities (Cole et al., 2005). However, many teachers in Aceh are the survivors or the witnesses of the tsunami themselves and may also have lost much in the tragedy including loved ones and property. In addition, teachers' experience of the tragedy is likely to have had an impact on their lives and roles as educators. In addition, many people including teachers in Aceh may have lacked natural disaster related knowledge and were not aware of the possible vulnerability hazards caused by the disaster (Khairuddin et al., 2009). As a result, teachers in Aceh may have limitations in performing their job at school and in providing support for those in needs such as students affected by the tsunami. Moreover, students exposed to disasters like the tsunami may experience difficulties in their learning and working with those students could be challenging for teachers.

The study that I conducted over a period of six months of data collection in one public junior high school severely affected by the tsunami in Banda Aceh whose primary aims were to better understand the challenges and needs for teachers and students at tsunami affected schools in Aceh, and to provide evidences that teachers and students in the school were facing challenges in their teaching and learning at the time of the study. Specifically, this paper provides findings from my communications with students in the study school, particularly findings related to students' views of teachers' pedagogical practice and teacher-student relationships at the school. To the best of my

knowledge, there has been no research that looks at the teaching and learning in tsunami affected schools in Aceh that also include children as sources of data. The findings of this study offer a starting point to open doors for further and more specific research in the field, and bridge the gap in the literature for better understanding issues faced by teachers and students in disaster affected schools.

2. METHODS

This study is a cross-sectional qualitative case study. Data were collected from semi-structured interviews with 10 third-grade (year 9) students who were purposively selected, and is supported by observations in the study school to gain insights into the students' views about their teachers. The ten students experienced and were affected by the tsunami tragedy. They survive the tsunami and many lost one or both parents in the tragedy.

Since little was known about the topic under study and considering its complexity, I asked broad questions and the participants' responses were the sources of the follow-up questions and led the rest of the discussion during the interview rather than to strictly delimit the interviews to predetermined questions (Fontana & Frey, 2000; Punch, 2005; Rapley, 2004). For example, I asked "Can you please tell me about yourself?", "What could be the challenges for you in learning?", or "What do you like or dislike about your school?". The interviews were conducted in Indonesian and/or the Acehnese language depending on the situation. To help me maintain the focus and the interaction during the interview, a list of questions to be asked were prepared initially.

In interviews with students, I wanted to hear the young people's interpretations and thoughts about the topic being investigated (Eder & Fingerson, 2002). With this in mind, I attempted to treat the young people in such a way that would enable them to feel comfortable to participate, comment, initiate questions, and show their concerns about the topic discussed during the interviews (Eder & Fingerson, 2002). Before each interview commenced, I asked the students about how they preferred to be interviewed. In other words, the students were given a choice to either participate in private in the absence of others, in a group interview or with a companion, depending on each individual's preference. After each interview, I asked every student what they thought about the interview they had just had and made sure that I was available for them to discuss any issues resulting from the interviews. Each of them said that they did not have any problems with the interviews.

In general, interviews with each student took around 20-30 minutes. All student interviews were conducted in the school laboratory, which most of the time was unoccupied, at the time they preferred and with the school's approval.

In analysing the students' interviews, I firstly listened to interviews several times and then transcribed them, read and re-read the transcripts to familiarise myself with the data. The data were coded, conceptualised, and then organised in the form of issues to report (Douglas, 2003). I used a constant comparison method (Bowen, 2008; Lindlof, 1995) with the aim to look for commonalities and differences on the central issue to report as findings (Dye et al., 2000). In this paper, I have translated my findings and used extensive quotes from participants to fully represent their perceptions (Bailey & Jackson, 2003).

3. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

From my informal conversations with teachers and students during the data collection period, I understood that factors that contributed to young people's learning at the study school after the tsunami were complex. I had heard a lot of negative talks about students including their learning in the school. Teachers commented that after the tsunami, teachers' commitment in teaching was low while students were not motivated in learning. More specifically, teachers perceived students as different from those before the tsunami in terms of their behaviour and attitude. Students after the tsunami were seen as naughty. From my communications with teachers, the absence of parents (i. e. death of parents in the tsunami) could be one of the factors contributing to students' misbehaviour problems. In light of this, teachers found it more difficult to perform their role due to students' behavioural issues. On the other hand, interestingly, one of the contributing factors indicated by students in interviews was their teachers. Students' views of their teachers were also in negative terms.

3.1 Teacher Pedagogical Practice

In interviews with students based on observational data I asked young people's opinions about the cause of students' lack of engagement with the lessons in classrooms. The common responses included that the teachers' teaching was not interesting and engaging. According to many students, teachers generally only wrote the lesson for them to copy or simply lectured and the way they taught was difficult to understand. In addition, some students mentioned that many teachers arrived at the class late and often left the class unattended during the lesson allowing students to engage in off-task activities including misbehaving, which in the end put them in trouble. One student critically commented:

"They asked students to write from the textbooks and then they left the class. They just sit over there. How can we not make noise when there is no teacher in class? If they are in the class, it is impossible to be noisy or go in and out of the classroom as we like".

When I challenged one student in the interview as to whether teachers in the school had put every effort to teach well so students could learn well, the student believed that:

"Teachers effort in teaching was yet to be maximal".

In the interview, I also intended to find out what students expected from their teacher in terms of teaching so that they could learn better. Although students found it difficult to articulate, they in general expected teachers to deliver their lessons in a way that was easy for students to understand, teach in a fun way with some humour so students would not be bored or explain the lesson first to students until they understand it and be willing to repeat if students do not understand. Indeed, students mentioned some teachers whom they liked because their teaching was seen as interesting and easy to understand. One particular student mentioned group work or discussion as useful and helpful to help him learn better at school. The student noted that:

“Group work gives me the opportunity to discuss the lesson that I do not understand with other students who understand it”.

Research suggests that quality teaching involves teachers’ ability to create classroom environments that encourage an effective learning atmosphere (Shulman, 2006, p. 65; Stoll, 1992) asserted that “effective teaching deals with creating classrooms as places with a minimum of disruption and distraction where learners can attend to instructional tasks, orient themselves toward learning and receive a fair and adequate opportunity to learn”. Learning becomes more enjoyable when students perceive their classroom and its environment as encouraging their participation in the process of that learning (Ames & Archer, 1988). In other words, there is a strong positive correlation between the perceived learning environment and students’ social, emotional, and academic achievement (Frenzel et al., 2007).

Frenzel et al. (2007) noted that the classroom learning environment is not only about the physical objects or space such as school buildings or classrooms and materials needed for learning, but includes the teaching learning processes such as instructional and interactional processes between and among students and teachers. Similarly, Glaser-Zikuda et al. (2005) believed that teachers’ instructional quality, students’ achievement and enjoyment, and social interaction are positively related to well-being in school. In the light of this, Frenzel et al. (2007) argued that teachers’ clear and structured instruction and their own behaviour can reduce learners’ anxiety, anger, and boredom and thus enhance enjoyment, which in turn enhances their achievement. Glaser-Zikuda et al. (2005) suggested that emotions including anxiety, anger, hopelessness, boredom, interest or enjoyment in learning are correlated to learning and achievement as they are related to learners’ attention, self-regulation and motivation that attract or distract them from their learning. In this sense, positive emotions mediated by attention, self-regulation, and motivation promote quality learning and achievement (Glaser-Zikuda et al., 2005).

Research suggests that how students learn very much depends on their teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Meanwhile, what teachers do in classrooms depends upon their knowledge of pedagogy, acquired primarily through their practical experiences in the classroom (Bassey, 1999; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492) claimed:

...competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing and encouraging relationships with their students, designing lessons that build on student strengths and abilities, establishing and implementing behavioural guidelines in ways that promote intrinsic motivation, coaching students through conflict situations, encouraging cooperation among students, and acting as a role model for respectful and appropriate communication and exhibitions of pro-social behaviour (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492).

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) continued to say that teachers who have skills and resources to effectively manage their classrooms’ social and emotional challenges promote an optimal classroom climate. This is indicated by low levels of conflict and disruptive behaviour, smooth transitions between classroom activities, appropriate expressions of emotions, respectful communication and problem solving, strong interest

and focus on tasks, and supportiveness and responsiveness to individual differences and students' needs. These in turn result in higher levels of students' on-task behaviour and performance (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Teachers who know their students' emotions and their emotion-related behaviour are more likely to respond to their students effectively (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Rather than using punishment or coercion to resolve students' misbehaviour for instance, effective teachers would show greater empathy and concern and help the students with their problems especially if the teachers understand the causes of the misbehaviour or difficulties (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) argued that this approach results in better students' commitment to school, academic engagement and achievement. Conversely, teachers who lack such skills and resources tend to be 'emotionally exhausted', putting them at risk of becoming cynical, callous, and apathetic, thinking there is not much they can do or achieve and eventually withdrawing from their role including teaching tasks, or they continue to work but are unhappy (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 492).

In the study school, teachers who themselves experienced and lost much in the tsunami might have caused them to be emotionally stressed or exhausted. Some were cynical, pessimistic, and apathetic toward their role at school. In other words, teachers' own stress affected their beliefs and attitudes toward their teaching practices which in the end affect the learning of young people in the school. In light of this, teachers in the study school needed support in order to be able to perform their role better including in teaching so that students could learn better. Unless teachers received the support they required, they were unlikely to be able to help themselves and provided support for others such as students. Hobfoll (1989) warned us that when people are in the position of needing support while being required to provide support to others, they are likely to experience increased psychological stress. As a result they might not be able to perform their assigned duties to their best.

3.2 Teacher-Student Instructional Relationship

In general, students' views of teachers' interaction with students were also in deficit terms. Some students perceived their teachers as not caring and not understanding of their problems. In this sense, two students who were particularly critical commented that teachers tended to reprimand students if they happened to make mistakes and exaggerated the problems including calling for parents to come to school without considering that parents might not be available when they wanted them to come to school. This situation had affected the students' participation and engagement with school and learning. One of the students commented:

"If we made a little mistake, they would taunt us with vile language, for example when we arrived late to school. Then it is not comfortable anymore. They would say unkind things. So we lose our mood and were unmotivated after that".

About a particular teacher, another student said:

"Like when I was in the first and second year. There was one particular teacher that I did not like. I did not attend the class if the teacher was there. I waited until the teacher finished the lesson, then I would enter the class. The teacher was very

cruel forcing students to buy textbooks, oppressing students, and using abusive language”.

In addition, some students in the interviews expressed their disappointment as teachers seemed to give priority to clever students over others. As when I asked one male student what he did not like about school, he said:

“The teachers...because they do not care about students...They only care about students who are clever. Those who are not clever are ignored”.

Another male student who sat at the back row in his class commented:

“That (subject) teacher never asks me whether I have understood the lesson or not. But she asks other students...other teachers are also the same. They do not ask me...They only ask those who sit in the front row”.

This particular student criticised some teachers in the school who just sat on their desk during the lesson without controlling the class to make sure that all students were doing the set tasks. He said:

“Teachers should not just sit on their desk. They should come to the back rows of the class to monitor whether or not students at the back rows are doing the tasks...If they do not do that, students at the back rows simply do not do their task...For example I do not feel like learning today because I know teachers will not even bother to come to the back row. Why should I bother to learn?”

When asked about their perception of a ‘good teacher’, understanding and care were the two most common attributes that students wanted the teachers to have to be a good teacher. In addition, a female student who did not participate in the interview but voluntarily participated in the photo activity particularly expected teachers to talk to and get to know their students. In fact, she quietly took a photo of me when I was talking to a student in the school yard during the lesson break. When I asked her why she photographed me, she said:

“I want teachers to be like you who come to students and talk to them”.

According to her, rarely did teachers approach students for a conversation outside the classroom. This was confirmed by another student in an interview who asserted:

“I just feel hesitant towards teachers. If they do not begin a conversation then I would not start. If they ask me something then I would talk to them. But rarely do teachers begin a conversation”.

Research has time and again shown that positive relationships among school personnel are among important criteria for an effective school (Cohen et al., 2009), including the importance of teacher-student relationships for a successful educational experience. In this sense, teaching and learning which involve instructional and interactional processes between and among students and teachers are among important

factors for students' social, emotional, and academic achievement (Frenzel et al., 2007, p. 478). On this note, Rimm-Kaufman and Sawyer (2004) asserted:

Teaching is an intensely psychological process and that teachers' ability to maintain productive classroom environments, motivate students, and make decisions depends on personal qualities and ability to create personal relationships with students. (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322)

Baker (2006) argued that a positive teacher-child relationship is associated with a range of positive school outcomes as it provides children with the emotional security necessary to fully engage in their learning activities and scaffold the development of key social, behavioural, and self-regulatory competencies needed in the school environment and school success. In contrast, according to Baker (2006), negative relationships including conflict between teachers and students, or a low degree of warmth and trust, are positively associated with poor academic and social behaviour concurrently. Birch and Ladd (1997, 1998) summarised three distinct aspects of teacher-student relationships: (1) closeness that encompasses the degree of warmth and open communication that can function as a support for young people's involvement and engagement in school, (2) dependency, which has negative connotations, refers to students' overreliance on teachers in which students become tentative in their explorations of school environment and social relationships, and (3) conflict, which acts as a stressor, can impair students' successful adjustment, academic performance and achievement because conflict between teacher and student can foster feelings of anger, anxiety, and alienation in students, and thus they withdraw from the school arena.

It is important to keep in mind that any issue that arises, as well as its solutions within the school including in the context of students' school experience, are not merely about individual students (Murray-Harvey, 2010). An important message for schools and teachers is to not simply blame students alone along with their families as a sole source of problems arising at school rather than to view students' problems including in their adjustment and achievement as a systemic and an inter-relationship that involves teachers, peers, and families (Murray-Harvey, 2010). Focusing on relationships that build social-emotional competence is beneficial for both young people's lives and academic outcomes since teachers' "explicit and tacit judgments" toward students affect students' feelings about their school, academic motivation and achievement (Murray-Harvey, 2010). With this in mind, it is important that teachers pay attention to the importance of their relationships with their students, particularly in 'instructional' related relationships as the ways teachers manage their classrooms, interact with students including modelling behaviours and providing feedback to students and fostering effective learning are influenced by their relationships (Murray-Harvey, 2010).

Students, like in the study school with high levels of behavioural issues after the tsunami as perceived by their teachers, were actually in the greatest need of positive relationships with their teachers (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). In the light of this, research suggests that teachers in the study school who themselves were affected by the tsunami and stressed can be emotionally stressed including in dealing with students especially with misbehaving ones. They could be less likely to develop positive relationships with their students and they tended to be less involved, less tolerant, and less caring (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). On the other hand, it is noted in the literature

when students experience ‘conflictual’ relationships with their teachers, they are more likely to exhibit anti-social behaviour at school (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 502) and experience negative student outcomes such as school avoidance, classroom disengagement, and poor academic performance (Birch & Ladd, 1998).

4. CONCLUSION

Findings from the study provided evidence that the tsunami created teaching learning challenges for both teachers and students in the study school. Students in particular viewed their teachers in negative terms. Students’ deficit views of their teachers were prominent especially about teachers’ pedagogical practices and their interactions with students in the school, causing their learning difficulties in the school.

It has been noted in the literature that having quality teachers’ teaching practice and positive teacher-student relationships are critical for a successful educational experience for young people. Although teachers have a role to provide young people with opportunities to thrive through their learning experience that happened in school (Murray-Harvey & Slee, 2010), teachers’ and students’ experiences of the tragedy tsunami including stress and their loss in the tragedy might create challenges for the teachers in performing their job as educators and students as learners. Notably, students in the study did not enjoy the process of teaching and learning causing issues between teachers’ and students’ interactions during the lessons. Teaching and learning in the study school was seen as a traditional pedagogy, in which teachers lectured in front of the classrooms or wrote the lessons on the blackboard for students to copy. It was a typical of pedagogy that gives room for students to be detached and uninvolved in their learning (Bartholomaeus, 2000).

Research suggests the importance of positive student-teacher relationships. However, students who were affected by the tsunami may exhibit behavioural issues due to their experience of the tragedy, loss, stress, trauma and death of parents causing issues in their interaction with others including teachers. Misbehaving students may experience problems in their instructional relationships especially with teachers, reducing the opportunities for positive social engagement, classroom participation and supportive instruction and feedback. The interactions between students and teachers are what Bronfenbrenner (1994) calls a “bi-directional influence” (Paquette & Ryan, 2001) in which students affect the belief and behaviour of teachers while teachers also influence the behaviour and belief of their students. Similarly, “teachers feel more efficacious when their students do well, and students do well when teachers feel more efficacious” (Rimm-Kaufman & Sawyer, 2004, p. 322).

Voices of students in this study have provided opportunities for better understanding of challenges of young people’s learning at schools that extends the current literature that focuses on the perceptions and understandings of adults. Thus, this should result in better assistance and support for young people to achieve success at school.

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“That’s the biggest impact!” Pedagogical Values of Movies in ELT Classrooms¹

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Abstract

Since many say watching movies can have a positive effect on language learning outcomes, this research was done to find out which skills movies can contribute most to, whether speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar or cultural aspects. A qualitative research method was used for this study. This study was done to find out the teachers’ perceptions of using English movies in English Language Teaching (ELT) processes. Teachers from three different levels: primary, secondary, and senior high-school teachers were asked to answer a questionnaire set in accordance with the research topic. Five of them were senior high school teachers, two of them were junior high school teachers, and three of them were elementary school teachers. Creative interviews were also used as an additional data source. The results showed that most of the teachers agreed that movies play their biggest role and considerable advantages in developing cultural aspects and listening skills. Furthermore, some integration is possible between listening and speaking as well as with reading and writing because watching movies works better with integration of skills. Apparently, even though vocabulary can develop with this technique, grammar is not enhanced alone without being accompanied by writing.

Keywords: English movies, learning English language, ELT process, language skills.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Teaching English has posed a lot of challenges for English teachers; the most popular ones are problems with multilevel students and class size which lead to class' boredom (Sevy, 2016). The use of media has been considered as one way to improve pedagogical activities—as well as a way-out for this problem—in EFL classrooms (Rarick, 2007). Further, Barlex and Welch (2001) propose that media can ignite ideas that seem impossible to generate, help in brainstorming processes or even help weaker students to perform better. The fact that movies are easily accessed and screened nowadays provides more chances for English teachers to use audio-visual media in teaching various language skills to their EFL students (Vanderplank, 2009).

Movies have been used in many English language classrooms. First, they were used for teaching listening in a study by Ismail (2011). She found that the use of movie scenes in listening classes for four meetings significantly improved her students' average scores in listening, which rose from 62 to 74 (i.e. a 20% increase). To clarify this, she also mentioned that students' positive responses rose during the use of this technique which supports a strong belief that their motivation and behavioral traits played an important role in increasing their listening scores after only four meetings. Trent (2011) also supports this as he asserts that motivation is an essential factor in determining the rate of language acquisition because it enforces desire, attention, effort, goal settings, confidence, and application.

Second, movies have also been used to improve speaking as shown in a classroom action research (CAR) project by Kolean (2013). This study reported that the students increased their mean score from 60 to 71 (20% improvement). Again, as mentioned earlier, motivation also played a predominant role in this improvement. Third, another CAR study done by Agusta (2015) shows that students' ability in writing narrative text increased from 59 in the pre-test to 76 in the post-test (nearly 30% better). The study was conducted over two cycles with three meetings for each cycle; which means there were six meetings altogether. It also reported the use of movies can enhance students' grammatical knowledge, especially the one employed in narrative texts for past tense. Fourth, movies can be used in the teaching of reading because so many movies are adapted from literary works, this is especially so if captions in the target language are provided. This would be particularly relevant to the issues related to extensive reading such as novels or biography. As evidence, Alqadi (2015) states that movies have been profoundly influenced by literary works.

Fifth, concerning grammar, to the author's knowledge, no related studies have been found unless it is connected with the teaching of writing as mentioned by Agusta (2015). While for vocabulary, a research study by Gorjian (2014) reveals that students taught with movies subtitled with both L1 and L2 showed considerable development in vocabulary acquisition. The subjects of this study were 90 freshman students of English Translation at BA level in Abadan Azad University, Iran. They were divided into three experimental groups: one group was treated using bimodal subtitles (Group A), another was treated with standard subtitles (Group B), and the other group was treated with dual subtitles (Group C). Group A watched movies played with English sound and English subtitles, Group B watched movies in English with Persian subtitles, while Group C watched movies played with both Persian and English subtitles. After eight sessions of viewing, Group C with dual subtitles learned more vocabulary, the second largest

increase was shown by Group B with standard subtitles, and the least improvement was from Group A with bimodal subtitles.

Then too, movies can certainly be employed in building cultural awareness. This awareness includes geographic, sociolinguistic, socio-economic, socio-political, and educational issues [Istanto \(2009\)](#). Later, a study about the use of movies in ELT processes was done by [Nur \(2014\)](#) with a group of fourth semester college students in Sulawesi Selatan, Indonesia to determine the effects of movies on those students. There were five conclusions: first, the students said that movies were interesting materials; second, movies made classroom teaching-learning more interesting and fun; third, the students understood the materials better; fourth, they could comprehend other cultures better; and fifth, movies increased the students' knowledge because they got information they did not have before.

Based on those explanations about movies and their use in English language teaching-learning (ELT) this study aims to find out which skills or sub skills can be substantially affected by movies based on the perceptions of English teachers. Accordingly, this research is looking for the answers to the following research question: What EFL skills or sub-skills can be most affected by movies based on the perception of teachers?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Movies in Language Learning

Movies are the most well-known non-print media used in teaching foreign languages, including English. They are easily accessed and readily available in most countries around the world. Besides their popular means of entertainment, their use as teaching material is also significant amongst language teachers. Movies, especially with subtitles, can increase learners' motivation, solve confusion derived from cultural ambiguity and eliminate anxiety during learning ([Sabouri & Zohrabi, 2015](#)). Besides, movies also show learners a certain culture both from general and specific viewpoints, such as daily life and lifestyle practices. In addition, movies also provide chances to examine various sensitive issues such as race discrimination, drug abuse, violence in particular domestic violence and even aspects of religion e.g. tolerance and compassion. So, movies cannot only be used for teaching but also to educate students about social aspects.

From this stance, there emerges a contradiction. [Vanderplank \(2009\)](#) and [Kramsch and Andersen \(1999\)](#) argue that movies (which also refer to television and video) can make students confused as the information and meanings are both clear and hidden all at once. As most hidden meanings are bound to culture, the values could remain obscure for most learners who are non-native speakers of the language used in movies. Most teachers expect that their students can get a lot from watching movies. Some teachers have even become technophobes about movies, which means they believe that the students have already watched nearly all movies and nothing else needs to be watched anymore in the classroom. There is a solution for this. When watching movies outside of class, students do not have to prove their comprehension of the language or the values in those movies. So, teachers can get their students to discuss the language and the values in movies after watching them, even though they watch them out of

class. So, being a technophobe or not is not the absolute problem, the challenge is to understand the language and the values in the movies (Lam, 2000).

There are some advantages and disadvantages of watching movies as posed by Miller (2016). The advantages are learners can learn independently, shy students can have time practicing to be their best without having to interact with people, students do not have to pay for a class, and movies enhance the adoption of colloquial language, pronunciation and dialects. Furthermore, visualization in movies also helps students learn at their best (Silviyanti, 2014). Meanwhile, the main disadvantage is that learning language from movies is a slow process because most students focus on their entertainment goal, not on the learning language goal. Besides, there is no certain pattern that can be followed, and lastly, there is no interaction while watching movies.

2.2 Language Aspects

There are four major skills in learning a language, they are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, in this study, other aspects involved in the processes of learning a language are also presented, they are: grammar, vocabulary, and cultural aspects of the language.

The first skill for discussion is listening. Listening plays a significant role in language comprehension. There are two general ideas about the importance of listening as stated by Ahmadi (2016). Firstly, listening improves the ability to understand spoken words as it directly and naturally happens during a conversation. The messages are likely to be conveyed or, at least, the listener tries hard to draw meaning from the messages she is listening to. Secondly, listening promotes learners to learn some new language forms that are imitable and appear useful for language learners in term of learning from authentic materials. It is clear that during listening, two (or more) interlocutors not only listen for information being shared but they also imitate their word choices, the way of deliverance, even their facial expressions. For that reason, listening is no longer perceived as just a receptive skill but it is seen as a productive skill as well. Xu (2011) further says that in defining listening as an activity, we might have to use two different senses: a narrow and a broader sense. In the initial, narrow sense, listening is only seen as an activity of hearing sounds, while in the latter, broader sense, listening is an active activity to convey messages through sounds.

The second sense is speaking. Speaking is an interaction between two or more interlocutors with the objective to deliver messages. Once one speaks, it means that she wants to share certain information. Further, Brown (2001) says that speaking is an oral activity where two or more persons negotiate information in the form of meaning, ideas, and feelings. So that speakers should usually be aware of the ideas, unity and coherence present during the conversation. Speaking in a foreign language is basically an elaborate activity since one needs to be well-informed about the language aspects in the target language such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency, and comprehension.

Next, Murphy (1997) says that reading is also essential in the matter of language comprehension, especially for English. By reading, learners can develop their other language skills – particularly writing and speaking – besides improving their linguistic elements as well, for instance vocabulary and grammar. Moreover, reading comprehension is not merely understanding the written messages, but it is a process involving a complex integration (Kucan & Beck, 1996). The integration needed whilst

reading is the ability to decode information, knowledge of vocabulary both semantic and pragmatic meanings, background knowledge and other relevant strategies to make sense of texts.

Then, comes the most intricate skill which is writing. To master this skill, a learner needs to be good at setting goals and planning at length involving the issues of rhetoric and context and then must make it feasible by analyzing each part to finally narrate the ideas onto pages. Further, the ability to review, evaluate and revise is also needed because writing demands planning, drafting, revising and editing (Hyland, 2002). It is also important for a writer to understand and have knowledge of a large number of topics.

Next, comes the issues of grammar and vocabulary which are the basic building blocks essential for learning any language. As Zhang (2009) urges, these two linguistic items are the basis for knowledge of a language. Grammatical competence is an essential communicative competence which means that in communicating, grammar is vital for clarifying messages and ideas. Knowledge of vocabulary is also essential just like grammar. Besides of its importance, grammar in foreign language learning cannot be acquired automatically, it needs to be taught as grammar is not just random rules, but rules that give meaning. Like grammar, vocabulary shortcomings can lead to serious problems in using EFL. Many experts stress the paramount importance of vocabulary for learning ESL as learners need to rely heavily on vocabulary knowledge for both productive and receptive performance (Alqahtani, 2015).

Last is the cultural aspect. This aspect adheres to language permanently because learners adopt this aspect unconsciously as they learn a language. The cultural aspect is also considered important as it shapes learners' behavior towards the target language from which learners determine their success or failure toward the language learning process. This is so since behavior leads to motivation, which is an important catalyst in language learning. Moreover, movies can play a significant role in the motivation of EFL learners (Ismail & Wahyuni, 2016).

3. METHODOLOGY

A quantitative-qualitative approach was used in doing this study which had two sources of data. The first one, which was considered the primary data source, was a questionnaire with 12 questions; the second data source was several creative interviews (Douglas, 1985). A creative interview is an unconventional way for collecting oral reports from respondents without following the general protocols of interviewing. It is responsive and adaptable to the situation in less formal conditions (Douglas, 1985). The questionnaire, which was answered with a Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=don't know, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree), is shown below:

Table 1. Questionnaire.

No.	Items
1.	Teaching listening through movies helps my students understand audio texts.
2.	My students respond positively each time I teach listening using movies.
3.	Teaching speaking through movies helps my students express their ideas orally.
4.	My students respond positively each time I teach speaking using movies.
5.	Teaching reading through movies helps my students understand various written texts

Table 1 continued...

6.	My students respond positively each time I teach reading using movies.
7.	Teaching writing through movies help my students express and generate ideas in written form.
8.	My students respond positively each time I teach writing using movies.
9.	Teaching grammar through movies helps my students reinforce their grammatical ability.
10.	My students respond positively each time I teach grammar using movies.
11.	Teaching English through movies helps my students expand their knowledge of vocabulary.
12.	Teaching English through movies helps my students recognize cross-cultural understanding issues better.

The questionnaire was given to ten English teachers who teach in various public schools in Banda Aceh; five of them were senior high school teachers, two of them were junior high school teachers, and three of them were elementary school teachers. They were selected based on their availability and consent to participate in the study. The author held the creative interviews soon after the teachers had filled out the questionnaire to obtain their perceptions about using movies in EFL classrooms. As soon as the data was obtained, it was analyzed to find the percentages and the results from the interviews were used as complementary data.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The percentage answers for each question are shown in the chart below:

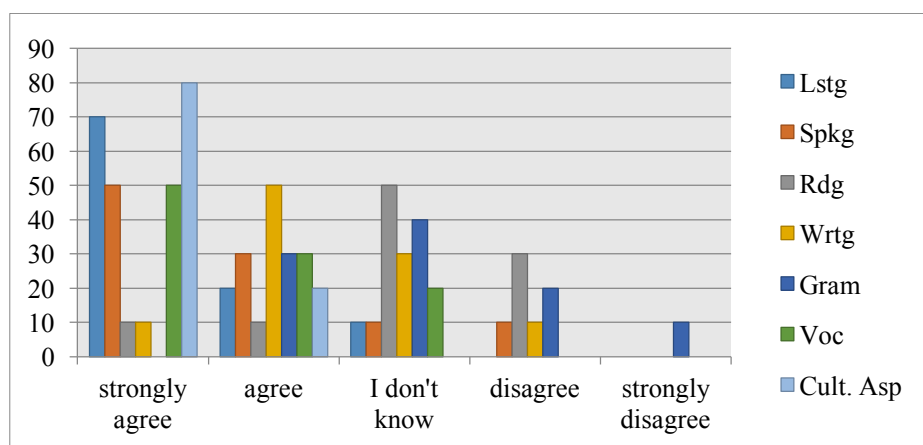


Figure 1. Questionnaire percentages (%).

It can be seen in Figure 1, most teachers agreed that the skills and sub skills which are mostly affected by movies are the cultural aspect, listening, speaking, and vocabulary, in that order; speaking and vocabulary have an equal percentage, 50%. The most dominant was cultural aspect, which was 80% followed by listening at 70%. This is somewhat similar to results from a study conducted by Ruusunen (2011) who found that most teachers strongly agreed (54%) that the cultural aspect is the most affected sub skill in the ELT process using movies. Next, is the listening skill that is influenced by the movies at 70%. There are only two sub skills with hardly any impact from watching movies: reading and grammar. For reading, only one teacher chose *strongly agree* and one chose *agree* while eight chose *don't know* or *disagree*, and for grammar

three teachers chose *agree* and six chose *don't know* or *disagree* and one chose *strongly disagree*.

Next, the author studied the teachers' perceptions about using movies in ELT classes based on the interviews. The oral information from the teachers was written down. Some excerpts from the keynote interviews are transcribed below. The interviews, originally in Indonesian, have been translated into English. The researcher/interviewer is indicated by initial *R*, and the Teacher/Interviewee by *T*.

Session 1:

R: What skills do you usually teach through movies? Do you integrate some skills?

T: Listening, but sometimes, if it's applicable for speaking, I'll teach speaking. But once, I integrated listening and speaking. And for writing and reading, it is also likely. But (to teach reading) I asked the students to read the story earlier.

In the interview above, the teacher confirmed that the skills with the possibility to be integrated are listening and speaking as well as reading and writing. This is in agreement with the proposition by Wu (2002) that one of the essential goals in teaching through movies is to improve abilities in speaking, listening, and interpretation. Rui (2014) further says that besides using movies for convenient access to foreign language learning, they can also extend students' listening skills. Regarding consolidation of reading-writing skills, movies and books are both sources of authentic materials that can be explored in and outside the classroom, and movies can stimulate the learners' reading habits and make the reading texts become more meaningful since movies visualize written texts with rich background and with additional background sound (Agulló, 2003; Raman & Vijaya, 2016).

Session 2:

R: What about vocabulary and grammar?

T: Vocabulary certainly improves; even it is only one or two words. But if we teach grammar alone, I think it (i.e. film) is irrelevant. Unless it is used with writing, we ask (the students) to write (about the film), then in the editing process, we check on the grammar.

Next, concerning the vocabulary development from the movie-watching technique, the teachers were absolutely convinced that there must be new word adoptions. This means the teachers agree that, after watching movies the vocabulary of their students increased. To clarify why the vocabulary increases after watching a movie, there is an explanation for this in Krashen's input theories (Ruusunen, 2011). While watching, learners are undoubtedly paying attention to encoding information during listening; hence, they are more likely to process the lexicons into their long-term intake processing. While regarding effects on grammatical ability, movies have no role in it unless it is actualized through writing (Ruusunen, 2011). However, Agulló (2003) argues that once the learners are familiar with the movie, they will automatically focus on developing their linguistic competences through vocabulary and grammar.

Session 3:

R: What about cultural aspects? Do you teach cultural aspects in your class?

T: That's the biggest impact. Many of our youth learn new trends from western movies. But there is a negative impact, because not everything shown in the movies is good. If we want to show a movie in class, we have to carefully select it. We do not show inappropriate scenes or attire. But I never explain that to my students because it is not demanded in the curriculum. But I'm certainly sure it has the biggest impact.

The teachers told us that cross-cultural awareness had never been specifically taught at their schools since there are no instructions to do so. Whilst, based on the findings shown in Figure 1, movies had more influence over learning cultural aspects than over any other skill and/or sub skill. The teachers all agreed about this in their interviews. As stated by Raman and Vijaya (2016), the post-activities after watching a movie can stimulate students' awareness towards cultural themes and ways of life. Besides, reflective discussions will also help the students broaden their knowledge. This is also one of the language learning strategies that can bring knowledge into practice. The knowledge will remain longer if it is experienced (Nur, 2014). When a student analyzes the issues found in movies, it leads to experiencing the process whereby he/she mentally feels and inquires into the issues shown, since knowledge will not be useful without experience (Weiler, 2011). In short, the easiest way to teach cultural aspects in an ELT classroom is by having the students discuss and reflect after watching a movie so that they can unveil the more intrinsic issues rather than just the extrinsic ones. So that is how the actual value of movies can be found – after a thoughtful careful selection of movies, of course.

5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, based on the teachers' perspectives, the language aspect which was most affected by watching movies was the cultural aspect. Furthermore, some integration is possible between listening and speaking as well as with reading and writing because watching movies works better with integration of skills. Apparently, even though vocabulary can develop with this technique, grammar is not enhanced alone without being accompanied by writing.

Nevertheless, this study is conducted not without limitations. The current study only employed ten teachers to fill in the questionnaires and further conduct interviews. Future related studies are recommended to have more teachers from more schools, public and private schools included, participating in the study to further gain detail on the impact and pedagogical values of movies in ELT classrooms.

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Lessons from Experience: ESL Student Teachers' Reflection during Practicum through Reflective Journals¹

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Abstract

Reflection is a prospective alternative in exploring student teachers' thinking during practicum. The data gained from student teachers' reflection are significant in informing teacher education programs on how to equip pre-service teachers to become quality teachers. It is also crucial in addressing issues and conflicts highlighted by student teachers when they interact with the real context. This study is conducted with six semester seven student teachers undergoing their Bachelor in Education with honors Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) program. The student teachers were asked to write reflective journal entries throughout the 14 weeks of their teaching practicum experience. The aim of the study is to identify the focus of the student teachers' reflection and the challenges faced by them during practicum. Data were gathered using the reflective journal entries and semi-structured interviews with all the participants. The data were analyzed according to emerging themes. The findings indicated that the student teachers focus on three main themes in their reflections, which are managing learning, pedagogy and teacher attributes. While the challenges highlighted were difficulty in socializing with members of the institution, lack of professional support and lack of ability to manage a classroom.

Keywords: Reflective journal, reflective thinking, student teacher, practicum.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Practicum has been described as a crucial component in teacher education as the experience has been reported to have an impact on student teachers' personal and professional development and it supports the development of quality beginning teacher (Crookes, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Starkey & Rawlins, 2012; Wong et al., 2015; Zhu & Zhang, 2014). Practicum refers to the supervised teaching experience student teachers gathered in the real context of teaching and learning to support their entry into the teaching profession. Practicum is regarded as the peak of the teacher education program (Barry & King, 1998; Cameron & Wilson, 1993; Darling-Hammond, 2006) as it provides the platform for student teachers to utilize their knowledge and skills about teaching and learning hence bridging theory and practice in the real context (Starkey & Rawlins, 2012; Wong et al., 2015; Yaacob et al., 2014; Zhu & Zhang, 2014).

Student teachers consider practicum as crucial in providing valuable experiences of teaching in the real context. Practicum allows the student teachers to reflect on their beliefs, assumptions and knowledge about teaching and learning and put them in practice (Starkey & Rawlins, 2012; Wong et al., 2015; Yaacob et al., 2014; Zhu & Zhang, 2014).

Hence, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the focuses of student teachers' reflection during practicum?
2. What are the challenges faced by the student teachers?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Reflective Thinking

Reflective thinking is considered as one of the key elements in developing quality thinking teachers who reflect on their own teaching philosophy and focus on their pedagogical reasoning skills (Rieger et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2015; Yaacob et al., 2014; Zhu & Zhang, 2014). Reflective thinking in teacher education also has been reported as a practice that promotes student teachers' motivation to improve in their teaching ability and their own profession accountability (Hussin, 2003; Ibrahim et al., 2008).

Reflective thinking is a concept introduced by Dewey (1933, p. 7) and he defined it as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supported form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and further conclusions to which it tends". He further illustrated that reflective thought "transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled and harmonious" (Dewey, 1933, p. 195). Dewey (1933) mentioned that two main components are involved in reflective thinking which is the process and the content.

Another influential work in reflective thinking is the framework by Manen (1977) that aimed to assist teachers and educators in reflecting on their past decisions and actions to inform their future interactions in the classroom. Manen (1977) proposed a framework that categorized reflective writing into three hierarchical categories: technical reflection, practical reflection and critical reflection.

Table 1. Levels of Reflectivity (Manen, 1977).

<i>Level of reflection</i>	<i>Features</i>
Technical	The technical level refers to reflections on the methods and strategies employed in teaching. Teachers analyzed the success and failure of the instructional decisions made.
Practical	At the practical level, reflections are on the underlying assumptions made on teaching and learning and the impacts of the decisions on the students learning experience in the classroom.
Critical	Reflections at the critical level consider moral, social and ethical factors that might have an impact on the students' learning experience.

Reflective practice in teacher education relates to teachers' thinking or cognition about their actions and decisions and their cognition about teaching and learning which is deeply influenced by their beliefs, assumptions, knowledge and experience (Borg, 2008; Woods, 1996).

The Higher Education Sector, Ministry of Education Malaysia has highlighted the importance of bridging theory and practice in teacher education programs (Hussin, 2003). Reflective practice is one of the key elements that has been reported to promote critical evaluation that makes student teachers become more active in reflecting on their behavior, pedagogical decisions and connecting the theories underpinning their decisions (Hussin, 2003; Ibrahim et al., 2008; Yaacob et al., 2014; Zhu & Zhang, 2014). Reflective practice also promotes self-improvement process that develops student teachers teaching quality (Ibrahim et al., 2008; Yaacob et al., 2014). It is also a key exercise that enables exploration of emerging thoughts, deeply held beliefs, changes in beliefs and perceptions, self-awareness of beliefs and principles and show converging patterns and trends (Albakri et al., 2012; Borg, 2008; Collier, 1999; Ismail et al., 2014; Kabilan, 2007; Woods, 1996).

Realizing the importance of reflective practice in professional development of pre-service teachers, all teacher education institutions in Malaysia have put an emphasis on the practice of reflection particularly during practicum. Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI) for instance made it a requirement for all student teachers to provide their self-reflection of their teaching after each lesson conducted. The aim of the self-reflection section is to get the student teachers to think about their lessons and how they can improve the lesson to further develop the effectiveness of their teaching.

Several studies however have reported that student teachers reflect at superficial level during their reflective practice (Bean & Stevens, 2002; Collier, 1999; Hatton & Smith, 1995). Therefore, teacher education institutions are encouraged to emphasize on developing trainees reflective skills. Trainees need to be taught on how to write constructive reflection that get them to explore their thoughts, feelings, behavior, actions and underlying beliefs and assumptions (Wong et al., 2015; Yaacob et al., 2014; Yinger & Clark, 1981).

To ensure the reflections done by the student teachers in this study are structured, a four step critical reflection process is used based on the work of York-Barr et al. (2006). The reflection process is presented in the following Figure 1.

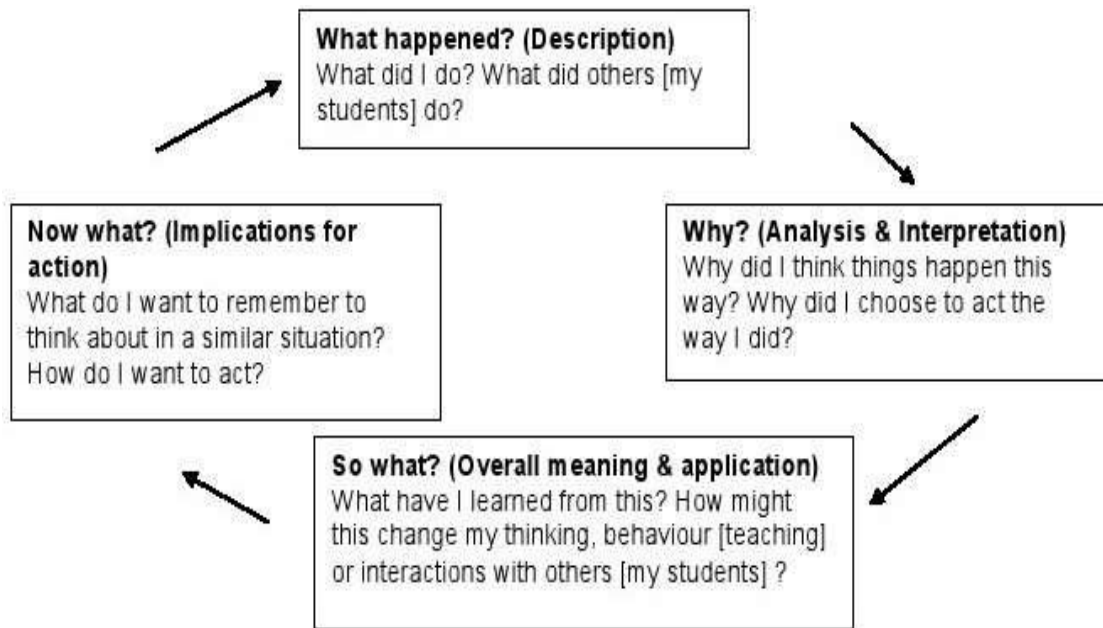


Figure 1. The 4-Step Reflection Process Framework (adapted from York-Barr, Sommers, Ghore & Montie (2006) by NIE, Singapore (2015, p. 58)).

3. METHODOLOGY

Six student teachers participated in this case study. The participants are UPSI semester seven student teachers from Bachelor in Education with honours Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) program. During the study, the participants were undergoing teaching practice for 14 weeks in secondary schools around the state of Perak and Selangor.

The participants were selected based on their willingness to participate in the study to further facilitate data collection procedure. Prior to their teaching practice, the participants were briefed on the reflection. The participants were also given samples of reflection to familiarize them with the format and to give them a general idea on how to write their reflections.

The participants were asked to write a reflective journal entry every week. A total of 63 reflective journal entries (RJE) were gathered for analysis. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with all the participants to gather detailed elaborations and clarifications of the reflective entries they submitted. The interview also aimed to gather data on the issues or challenges they faced during their practicum experience. The interviews were recorded and the data were transcribed for thematic analysis.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This study aimed to explore the focus of students' reflection during practicum. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the reflection is based on individual's experience, beliefs, knowledge, assumptions and it is heavily influenced by the context (Albakri et al., 2012; Borg, 2008; Borko & Putnam, 1996; Ismail et al., 2014; Woods,

1996). Three main themes emerged from the analysis of the reflective journals which are managing the learning environment, pedagogy and teacher attributes.

The first theme, managing the learning environment, is one of the main focuses of the student teachers' reflection. It relates to the trainees' specific context and their familiarization with the school structure and the community. Managing the learning environment also involves building relationship with the students, teachers and staff and understanding the learning context, the needs and preferences of the students.

All of the students reflected on how to manage the learning environment and adapt to the school culture and learners' behaviour at the beginning of the practicum experience. The student teachers were more concerned about developing a learning relationship with the students in their respective classes. After several weeks, the student teachers' thinking is dominated by selecting appropriate strategies. After week seven, the student teachers showed development in their understanding of the context and were able to make more strategic decisions to manage the learning environment and employ multiple strategies.

Pedagogy is the second theme that emerged and being reported by all of the participants. The theme centers around pedagogical reasoning and actions based on the interaction with the context and what worked and did not work in the context. Understanding what the students know and how they learn and how these informed the selected instructional strategies is a generic subtheme reported by all the participants. The reflection showed evidence of evaluation, assessment and awareness and understanding of teaching among the participants (Isikoglu, 2007; Starkey & Rawlins, 2012).

The third theme, teacher attributes concerned development of qualities and dispositions of a teacher, understanding and connecting to the role as a teacher and relating to individual beliefs, assumptions and views about being an English language teacher. The participants' exposure to the real context has given them the opportunity to explore their own identity and notions as a teacher. They learn to resume their position of authority and their feeling of being accountable for students' learning increased as their interaction with the context grew.

These findings support previous studies on pre-service teacher reflection during practicum that indicate student teachers' focus on managing their classes, improving their teaching, understanding the context and how to teach, stimulating their awareness of their beliefs, assumptions and values about teaching and learning (Isikoglu, 2007; Starkey & Rawlins, 2012; Subramaniam, 2012). The data also provides evidence that the student teachers converge in their focus of reflection during practicum hence showing their concern as collective issues that need to be addressed by teacher training institutions.

Data from the reflective journal entries and interviews have highlighted three primary challenges faced by the student teachers throughout their practical teaching experience. The first challenge highlighted by the student teachers is the difficulty in the process of socializing with the members of the institution. This refers to the mentor, teachers, staff and the principal. The participants related the difficulty in building interpersonal relationship with the school community as they lack the exposure and skill in communicating with senior teachers particularly. Hence, they find the process of adaptation quite challenging at the beginning of their practicum. Some of the subthemes under this category are teachers' attitude and response, trainees' lack of communication skill and lack understanding of the culture of the school.

The second challenge described by the student teachers is lack of professional support from the experienced teachers. Some student teachers mentioned that they did

not receive structured mentoring and coaching during practical teaching. Comments were not constructive and feedbacks include little suggestions for improvement in teaching. The data echoed data from past studies on the concerns and conflicts faced by student teachers regarding mentoring and feedbacks during practicum (Goh & Matthews, 2011; Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999).

Some participants highlighted that the mentor was unavailable to provide them support and some mentioned that the mentor teachers gave conflicting advices. Several also responded that the mentor teacher lack pedagogical skills in relation to technology and innovation hence unable to give the appropriate feedback to the mentees. The data shows that the trainees clearly need coaching and guidance in enhancing their teaching and make their experience meaningful.

Classroom management is another challenging factor mentioned by the student teachers. They described the beginning of the practical teaching involves managing students and it was difficult as they have never been exposed to the real teaching context. They also expressed that they received little guidance on the decisions and actions to be taken when resolving conflicts in the classroom such as misbehaved students. Classroom with more than thirty students also pose as a challenge to the student teachers in terms of class control.

Based on the data gathered and analysed on the main challenges faced by the student teachers, some issues occurred because the student teacher receive lack of exposure and coaching on how they present themselves in the context of the school. The student teachers' lack of maturity and experience communicating with senior teachers may create conflicts in building good relationship with the teachers. Lack of exposure in the real context of teaching also may cause difficulties in their pedagogical reasoning and understanding of the students' behaviour and needs hence caused the mismatch in selection of strategies and materials.

5. CONCLUSION

This study has identified significant insights on the focus of professional learning among pre-service teachers during practicum. Clearly, the student teachers share collective focus during their practicum particularly at the beginning of practicum experience. The insights form a significant basis to revise the content of teacher education program and the practicum structure to address student teachers preparation for practicum. School orientation is clearly crucial in preparing the pre-service teachers prior to placing them in the real teaching and learning context. The institution needs to revise the structure of the program and include school orientation, teacher assistantship and internship to provide the trainees with opportunities to develop interpersonal skills and familiarity with context. They will then be better prepared for their practicum.

Mentor teachers have to be trained and coached to provide more constructive feedback and structured mentoring practice on the student teachers. Guidelines have to be prepared in mentoring pre-service teachers to enable clear focus on the elements that contribute to the professional development of student teachers. A manual can also be developed to promote standardized and structured mentoring.

Student teachers also require strengthening in skills and strategies to manage the classroom and diverse learners. They need to be exposed to ways to resolve classroom conflicts and resume the role of the person with the authority in the classroom.

Issues and conflicts experienced by pre-service teachers during practicum need to be addressed with more partnerships with schools that will enable selection of good mentor teachers and more opportunities for school exposure and teacher assistantship. The student teachers will have the platform to interact with the real context and learn from the engagement through observation and experience.

In addition, student teachers need to be exposed to reflective thinking. They need to be guided and coached on how to reflect critically and they need to be equipped with critical reflective skills to promote critical reflection. Proper scaffolding has to be injected in assisting the student teachers to reach a higher level of reflection. Reflective journals can be a good practice to be employed in some of the courses during teacher training to promote reflective thinking from technical and practical level to critical reflection level. The higher level the students achieve in their reflective thinking, the more they develop their understanding of teaching and learning from the surface level of reflection to a more integrated analysis and understanding of teaching, learning and teacher attributes.

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Model Answers for Yes/No Questions from EFL Students in Public Senior High Schools

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Abstract

This research aims to find out the typical categories of answers to Yes/No questions most used by students at selected Public Senior High Schools in Medan, Indonesia. These schools were classified into top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite schools. Through a stratified clustered random sampling technique, six schools were chosen consisting of two schools from each classification. A number of 40 students were chosen from three class X, three class XI and three class XII at each of the six chosen schools, making a total sample of 720 students with 360 sets of dialogue scripts. Data was collected through documentation-recording dialogues. The data was transcribed and analyzed by descriptive analysis. The results of the research showed that: 1) the categories of the students' answers to the Yes/No questions were distributed variously in terms of the six models. However, the distribution of the answers was not proportionally equal amongst all the models, 2) the dominant distribution of the answers was the third model with the formula Yes/No+additional information such as confirming, supporting, etc., reaching 37% of the total answers, whilst the least common models were the sixth and fourth categories respectively, which had 1% and 3% of the answers respectively, and finally 3) there was no significant difference in the distribution of the students' answers in terms of the class of school whether top favorite, medium favorite or non-favorite. In conclusion, the ways to answer Yes/No questions need to be developed amongst students by their teachers by teaching and learning using natural, real life-like situations and in contextual ways.

Keywords: Yes/No questions, model answers, EFL students, public senior high schools.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Using questions for communication is very common and necessary in both formal conversations such as in classes, meetings, and in informal situations such as talking amongst friends outside of class. The use of questions plays a very important role and can determine whether a conversation is fluent or not. Moreover, questions can also determine how far that information or a conversation is understood (Wälchli, 2005). In the context of ESL teaching and learning processes, the use of questions also serves as a model and a design for information transmission, repetition, strengthening of information, and language manipulation exercises (Brown, 2007; Nodine, 2003). In addition, Morley (1979) and Wälchli (2005) have also asserted that the use of questions can function for:

- (1) a model and design for information transmission,
- (2) repeating and strengthening information,
- (3) a language manipulation exercise,
- (4) testing the understanding of concepts
- (5) one way to develop participation and interaction between the teacher and students in the teaching and learning processes, and
- (6) intensifying the communication processes in using language.

In trial instructional contexts in various classes, students, when tested, seemed unable to use various models of answers to Yes/No questions. They also seemed unable to use the various models of answers for Yes/No questions contextually. For instance, when they were asked “*Do you speak English every day?*” they would often only answer “*Yes*” or “*No*” or “*Yes, I do,*” or “*No, I don’t*”. Another example is when they were asked “*Do you have money?*” they mostly answered “*No, I don’t,*” or “*No, I don’t have*” or “*Yes, I do,*” or “*Yes, I do have*”. Actually, in natural-contextual responses, the answer to Yes/No questions can be answered with various model answers depending on the situation and the context of the conversation.

Referring to contextual conversations, theoretically Yes/No questions can be answered variously depending on the context of conversation. For example, a question from a teacher to her student, “*Do you understand lesson 5, John?*” John is supposed to answer it based on its context. It means that if John understands 100% of materials in lesson 5, he can answer it by model, “*Yes, I do,*” or “*Of course*”, or “*Sure*”. However, if John only understands 40% of all the material, he should answer it by saying something like, “*Not really,*” or “*not much*”. So, it is not appropriate with the context if John only understands around 75% of lesson 5 and he answers “*Yes*” or “*Of course*” (Singer, 1986).

In accordance to the background of this study, the objectives for this study are formulated as follows:

- to find the various types of answers to Yes/No questions used by students from public senior high schools in Medan.
- to find model answers to Yes/No questions from students from public senior high schools in Medan.

In line with the objectives of this study, the research questions are formulated as below:

1. What are the various types of answers to Yes/No questions from students from public senior high schools in Medan?

2. What are the model answers to Yes/No questions from students from public senior high schools in Medan?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

So what is actually the definition of a Yes/No question? Terminologically a Yes/No question is called a polar interrogative or a polar question or a bipolar question according to Nodine (2003). Related to the definition and the nature of the answer to Yes/No questions, Murphy (2004) asserts that a Yes/No question is a question which needs a 'Yes or No' answer by using an auxiliary at the beginning of the question sentence. In other words, it is a question which often produces a simple and brief answer where the questioner focuses more on his or her knowledge of existing information. A similar view was also expressed by Nodine (2003). Nordquist (2017) said that such questions are generally started with an auxiliary or modal such as *be*, *have*, *do* or a *modal verb* and are replied to by an answer such as *yes* or *no* or synonyms thereof.

In the context of how to answer Yes/No questions, numerous linguists and English practitioners have provided various different arguments. The potential answers depend on the context and the situation for both the questioner and the answerer. This means that a Yes/No question cannot only be answered by a model such as "*Yes*" or "*No*" or "*Yes, I do*" or "*No, I don't*", but can also be answered by other variations like "*Of course*", "*I expect so*", "*Not much*" or "*Nothing*" and so on. The possible variety of model answers depends on the context and the situation, where & when the conversation takes place (Wälchli, 2005).

Nevertheless, both theoretically and practically and based on the context of natural, real-life conversations, English linguists, practitioners, and also researchers agree that the answers to the Yes/No questions fall into six models of answers, which are appropriate for natural real-life situations just like those which are elaborated by Morley (1979), Murphy (2004), Napa (1995), Nodine (2003), and Richards (1985). Those six models of answers to Yes/No questions are set out below:

Model I: only a simple "*Yes/No*" answer. For example (E refers to Example):

- E1 *A: Is your wife an American?*
 B: Yes.
 A: Do you like watching Western movies?
 B: No.

Model II: the answer is derived from "*Yes/No*" + *repetition of the verb or auxiliary verb* from the question. For example:

- E2 *A: Did you live in Seattle last year?*
 B: Yes, I did.
 A: Is there anything I can do for you sir?
 B: No, thank you, there is not.

Model III: the answer derived from “Yes/No”; there is no repetition of the verb or auxiliary verb but there is additional information in the form of confirming, affirming, supporting, refusing, modifying, and or commenting on the answer given to the question. For example:

- E3 *A: Did you stop in Rome?*
 B: Yes, I spent a week there. [confirming, affirming]
 A: Is English a compulsory subject in your school?
 B: No, it depends on the course. [modifying]

Model IV: This model of answer uses the verb or auxiliary verb without being started by “Yes/No”. Usually the additional information is in the form of confirming, affirming, supporting, refusing, modifying, and or commenting on the question. For example:

- E4 *A: You’re not going now, Rini?*
 B: I am. [confirming/affirming]
 A: Are the lecturers paid well in your school?
 B: The men are; the women aren’t. [affirming]

Model V: This model of answer uses a similar expression or synonym for the “Yes/No” word or uses the answer in the form of an idiom which has a similar or the same meaning with “Yes/No” or a meaning between the two which means that the meaning is in the range between “Yes” and “No”. For example:

- E5 *A: Are you feeling alright dear?*
 B: Of course. [Yes]
 A: Do you have much money now?
 B: I have some but not a lot. [In between]

For clearer examples, Table 1 of answers to Model V Yes/No questions follows. The words on the left-hand side are synonyms for 100% Yes and those more to the right are lower levels of agreement with Yes until the words on the far right-hand side which are synonyms for No or antonyms for Yes.

Table 1. Synonyms for “Yes/No” answers.

<i>Synonyms</i>		<i>Antonyms of yes</i>	
Yes		No	
Uh...uh	As usual	May be	Of course not
Certainly	Rather	I know not well	Never
Of course	I think so	I don’t think so	Nothing
Sure	I believe so	I don’t believe so	Not a bit
Why not	I suppose so	Not really	Not at all
Terribly so	I expect so	Not much	Absolutely not
Very	Mostly		No way
Very much	I guess so		Not on my watch
Definitely	I hope so		Etc.
Plenty			
Perfectly			
Absolutely			

Model VI: This model of answer has a close relationship to the Modal V category of answers consisting of models of answers with positive, negative or neutral meanings. Whether the answer is positive, negative or neutral, it can be concluded based on the context and situation. In this case, positive means “Yes” and negative means “No”. Meanwhile, neutral has a meaning in the range between the positive and negative meanings. For example:

- E6 *A: Are you going home now?*
 B: As soon as possible. [positive]
 A: Has something happened, mom?
 B: I'll be all right in a minute. [positive]

Related to models of answer to Yes/No questions, empirically [Ginting et al. \(1999\)](#) in their research on English textbooks for senior high schools concluded that a variety of models of answers to Yes-No Questions were presented in conversations in the textbooks with relatively similar proportions amongst the six models of answers. This means that theoretically these textbooks should be sufficient as guidance and good for use as learning sources, especially the materials concerning models of answers for Yes-No questions. Furthermore, [Dirgeyasa et al. \(2000\)](#) said that the models of answers for Yes/No questions in Junior High School text books were also quite various and showed how a Yes/No question is supposed to be answered although the answers in these books were not really proportional among the six models of answers.

3. METHOD

The population of this research was students in grades X, XI, and XII from six randomly selected public senior high schools in Medan in the 2015/16 academic year. The schools were categorized into top favorite schools, medium favorite schools, and non-favorite schools. The categories of top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite schools were determined by the following indicators:

- 1) The average National Exams scores of students after every school year,
- 2) The average National Exam scores of students entering the school,
- 3) The level of school fees, and
- 4) The school's facilities.

After all the schools were categorized into top favorite, medium favorite, and non-favorite schools, two schools from each category were then chosen at random by using a random sampling technique. Then, two classes from each of grade X, XI, and XII were chosen from each school selected. The number of classes is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. The distribution of classes for each grade and each category of school.

Category of Senior High School	Grade						Total
	X		XI		XII		
	A	B	A	B	A	B	
Top favorite	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Medium favorite	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Non-favorite	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Total	3	3	3	3	3	3	18

Note: A = First school, B = Second school

The number of respondents from each class in each school depends on the existing students in that class. This study assumed that the average number of students in the public senior high schools in Medan is 40 students in each class. Thus, the total respondents came from all grades (grade X, XI, and XII) and from the three school categories (two top favorite schools, two medium favorite schools, and two non-favorite schools), so the total number of classes was 18. So, assuming there were 40 respondents in each class, the total number of respondents was 720 which was equal to 360 dialogue scripts.

Two techniques were used to collect data for this research, first the data was recorded, and then the recordings were transcribed. The data from this research was analyzed in two steps. Firstly, the data was analyzed based on the type of school i.e. top favorite school, medium favorite school, and non-favorite school. Then the data was analyzed separately based on the grades i.e. grade X, XI or XII. The result of this integrated analysis would show the models of answers to Yes/No questions from students in the public senior high schools in Medan. The technique of data analysis used in this study is a descriptive analysis technique.

4. FINDINGS

The total of Yes/No questions dialogues collected was 942 answers from 360 sets of dialogue scripts which came from the 18 classes in the six schools. It was found that a) there were 271 answers from the top favorite schools, b) 342 answers from the medium favorite schools and c) 329 answers from non-favorite schools.

From the 271 answers from the top favorite schools, 79 came from grade X, 89 from grade XI and 103 from grade XII. For the medium favorite schools, 111 answers came from grade X, 122 from grade XI and 109 from grade XII. Meanwhile, from the non-favorite schools, 101 answers came from grade X, 109 from grade XI and 119 from grade XII.

Based on the total answers from each class and school, the variety and distribution of models of answer of Yes/No questions are set out in Table 3.

Table 3. The model answers to Yes/No questions for grades at top favorite schools.

Grade	Category of answers of Yes/No questions												Totals	
	I		II		III		IV		V		VI			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
X	20	25	18	23	30	38	5	6	5	6	1	1	79	100
XI	18	20	25	28	32	36	5	6	7	8	2	2	89	100
XII	15	15	33	33	38	38	5	5	10	10	2	2	103	100
Totals	53		76		100		15		22		5		271	
Average %		21		28		37		6		8		2		100

Table 3 shows that the most frequent answers (37%) to Yes/No questions were Model III i.e. Yes/No answers, with no repetition of verb or auxiliary verb but with additional information in the form of confirming or supporting or commenting such as “Not yet, I will work this subject with...” or “No, it is no problem”. Then, 28% were in the category of Model II with the pattern of Yes/No + repetition of verb or auxiliary verb such as “Yes, I can” or “No, I don’t.”

Moreover, 21% were Model I answers with the answer pattern of Yes/No only, while answers with Models IV, V, and VI were only 6%, 8%, and 2% respectively with answer patterns using synonym or similar expression of Yes/No or answers using words/idioms/expressions referring to a Yes/No meaning or between the two. For instances: “*Of course* [Yes]”, or “*I don’t know* [No]”, or “*Maybe*” [In-between].

The distribution of model answers to Yes/No questions for the medium favorite schools was relatively similar to that for the top favorite schools as shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Model answers to yes-no questions for grades at medium favorite schools.

Grade	Category of answers of Yes/No questions												Totals	
	I		II		III		IV		V		VI			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
X	23	21	32	29	48	43	2	2	5	5	1	1	111	100
XI	27	24	40	36	43	38	3	3	7	6	2	2	122	100
XII	23	21	34	31	37	34	4	4	8	7	3	3	109	100
Totals	73		106		128		9		20		6		342	
Averages		22		32		39		3		6		2		100

The distribution and variety of answers to Yes/No questions from students in the medium favorite schools was generally similar to the answers from the students at the top favorite schools; for instance, the most common model of answer was Model III with 39%, which was higher than that from the students at the top favorite schools. The same thing also occurred in answers in Model I (22%) and Model II (32%). Model I answers, the simplest category of answer because they are only Yes/No answers, was in the third rank with a total of 22% of answers. Meanwhile, the least common answers were from Model VI with only 2% of the answers.

From the non-favorite schools, the students’ model answers to the Yes/No questions was slightly different from the other two school categories, for example the percentage of Models II and III answers was relatively the same with both reaching 34%. The complete distribution of model answers to the Yes/No questions from the non-favorite schools is shown in Table 5 that follows overleaf.

Referring to Table 5, the distribution of model answers from students at non-favorite schools was not spread evenly amongst the six categories or models. Models II and III each had 34% which was similar to the results from the students in the top favorite and medium favorite schools. Moreover, Model I reached 29% of answers; while Models IV, V, and VI each only reached 1%, 2%, and 0% of all the answers from the less favorite schools. When the model answers to Yes/No questions from the three categories of school are combined and the data are analyzed by grade level (X, XI and XII), the distribution of the answers in terms of model answers is not really different amongst them.

Table 5. Model answers to Yes/No questions for grades at non-favorite schools.

Grade	Category of answers of Yes/No questions												Totals	
	I		II		III		IV		V		VI			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
X	32	32	36	36	32	31	0	0	2	2	0	0	101	100
XI	30	28	37	34	39	36	1	1	2	2	0	0	109	100
XII	33	28	38	32	42	35	2	2	3	3	1	1	119	100
Totals	95		111		113		3		7		1		329	
Averages		29		34		34		1		2		0		100

Table 6 shows the distribution of model answers for Yes/No questions from all school categories (top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite schools) based on grade X only.

Table 6. Model answers to Yes/No questions for grade X at all schools (top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite).

Grade <i>X</i>	Model answers to Yes/No questions												Totals	
	<i>I</i>		<i>II</i>		<i>III</i>		<i>IV</i>		<i>V</i>		<i>VI</i>			
	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%
Top favorite	20	25	18	23	30	38	5	6	5	6	1	1	79	100
Medium favorite	23	21	32	29	48	43	2	2	5	5	1	1	111	100
Non-favorite	32	32	36	36	31	31	0	0	2	2	0	0	102	100
Totals	75		86		109		7		12		2		291	
Averages		26		29		37		3		4		1		100

When the results from all school categories, top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite schools, are merged based on grade X only, the results are as shown in Table 6, in which the distribution of model answers is similar with the students' answers which were analyzed by the school category. The distribution of answers is not spread evenly.

The data above show that most students' answers (37%) were categorized as Model III with Yes/No answers in which there is no repetition of verb or auxiliary verb but there is additional information in the form of confirming or supporting, or commenting such as "Yes, My name is Asai", or "Yes, very good." Moreover, 26% and 29% of answers were categorized as Models I and II. Meanwhile, Models IV and V answers were only 3% and 4% of all answers and Model VI answers were only 1%. The distribution of the model answers for Yes/No questions from grade XI for all school categories was also not spread evenly amongst the six model answer categories, as can be seen in Table.

Table 7. Models answers for Yes/No questions from grade XI for all schools.

Grade XI	Model answers to Yes/No questions												Totals	
	I		II		III		IV		V		VI			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Top favorite	18	20	25	28	32	36	5	6	7	8	2	2	89	100
Medium favorite	27	24	40	36	43	38	3	3	7	6	2	2	122	100
Non-favorite	30	28	37	34	39	36	1	1	2	2	0	0	109	100
Totals	75		102		114		9		16		4		320	
Average		24		33		37		3		5		1		100

From Table 7, the distribution of model answers for Yes/No questions from students from grade XI for all school categories was similar to that from the students' in grade X. Model III answers were 37% of all these answers.

This was followed by Models II and I answers with totals of 33% and 24%, respectively, of all their answers. These model answers are relatively simple in which the answer is just Yes/No followed by repetition of the verb or the auxiliary verb such as "Yes, I do." Meanwhile, Models IV, V and VI answers which are the most difficult answers were only 3%, 5% and 1% respectively.

Table 8, which follows, shows that the model answers to Yes/No questions from all school categories (top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite schools) for grade

XII was not really much different from the results for the other two grades, X and XI. Models II and III answers to the Yes/No questions were dominant compared to the other model answers.

The distribution of model answers to Yes/No questions in grade XII is similar to the distribution in grades X and XI in which all models of answer exist but are not distributed evenly. Model III answers are still the most common with 36% overall; a bit higher than Models II and I answers with 32% and 21% respectively of all answers. Then, the smallest are Models IV, V and VI answers with 3%, 7% and 2% respectively of the answers.

Table 8. Models answers to Yes/No questions from grade XII for all schools.

Grade XII	Model answers to Yes/No questions												Total	
	I		II		III		IV		V		VI			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Top favorite	15	15	33	33	38	38	5	5	10	10	2	2	103	100
Medium favorite	23	21	34	31	37	34	4	4	8	7	3	3	109	100
Non-favorite	33	28	38	32	42	35	2	2	3	3	1	1	119	100
Totals	71		105		117		11		21		6		331	
Average		21		32		36		3		7		2		100

When the model answers to the Yes/No questions from the three school categories (top favorite, medium favorite and non-favorite) and their grades are combined, the distribution of the model answers was not really significantly different as can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9. Percentage of model answers to Yes/No questions for all grades: x, xi and xii

Grade	Percentage of model answers to Yes-No questions						Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
X	26	29	37	3	4	1	100
XI	24	33	37	3	5	1	100
XII	21	32	36	3	7	2	100
All grades	23	31	37	3	5	1	100

Generally, students' models answers still rely on Model III answers which totaled 37% of all answers and were followed by Model II answers with 31% of all answers and Model I answers with 23% of all answers. Meanwhile, Models IV and V answers were 3% and 5% of all answers and Model VI answers were only 1% of all answers.

5. DISCUSSION

Based on these results, it can be said that the students' model answers to Yes/No questions were distributed amongst all categories. When the data was analyzed for the top favorite schools only, the dominant variety of answer was Model III (37%) with the pattern of Yes/No with additional information, supporting and/or confirming the answer. Then, with the medium favorite school, Model III answer was similar at 39% and the same category was a bit lower at 34% from the non-favorite schools. The majority of answers were Model III from all students because this answer category is the most contextual answer and the most appropriate to the situations and conditions

when there is communication between students or language users (Choi, 1991; Morley, 1979; Nodine, 2003; Nunan, 1995). Besides, Model III answers are seen to be the most interesting answers to use.

Nevertheless, in the top favorite and medium favorite schools, Model III answers are a bit higher than from non-favorite schools and also the non-favorite school does not have a lot of variety with other answers such as Models IV or V. Hence, maybe the students in non-favorite schools are decelerating in getting information in the teaching-learning processes. The fact that Model III answers are in the majority is relevant and in line with what exists in the senior high school textbook (Ginting et al., 1999). Dirgeyasa et al. (2000) have also mentioned that the distribution of answers in the textbook for junior high school relies on Model III answers which total 39% from all answers in all the text books studied.

Model VI answers have the pattern of positive, negative and neutral answers, which can be concluded based on the context and situation even though those answers are not explicitly “Yes” or “No” or both. Basically, this answer to which additional information can be added such as supporting, refusing, or just affirming, was the most rarely used by the students in communication (Brown, 2007; Koshik, 2002). Model VI answers from all schools were only 1% of all answers.

The low percentage of Model VI answers is also supported by Dirgeyasa et al. (2000) where they were only 10% of all answers in the junior high school textbooks. This shows that there is similarity between the model answers in the textbooks used in the schools and the real answers given by students in communication. This implies that the teachers were not promoting innovation and variation in their teaching. They only taught what is in the text-books without using many varieties of answers which theoretically and practically exist in the language use of native speakers. Model IV answers were also relatively low, with only 3% of all answers (Richards, 1985; Wälchli, 2005; Zhu & Wu, 2011). This model of answer is very specific and cannot be answered by the other categories of answer. For instance, an example from Brown (2007) is as in E7:

- E7 For the question: “*Are the teachers here generally well paid?*”
One possible answer is: “*The men are; the women aren’t.*”

The question above can only be answered as such if the context is truly like that in which male teachers are paid better than female ones. It is not possible for it to be answered by Model V such as “*Of course*”, which would mean that all teachers are paid well. Nevertheless, based on the context in E7, male teachers are better paid than female ones. Basically, this model of answer has strength in which there is a kind of answer that cannot be generalized like Models III or V answers (Napa, 1995; Wälchli, 2005; Zhu & Wu, 2011).

If the school category is noticed, there are almost no Model VI answers from students in non-favorite schools and only 2% from medium favorite schools, and the same from top favorite schools. This shows that non-favorite schools do not have many weaknesses compared to medium and top favorite schools. It is presumed that the weaknesses they do have are lack of access to information, low resources, low learning motivation and lack of learning sources. The textbooks also have a big influence on the students’ experiences. Contextually, Model VI answers are not common in the textbooks used by the students; with only 10% of them (Dirgeyasa et al., 2000).

In fact, textbooks make a great contribution to the teaching-learning processes because they are the main source of information for the students. Napa (1995) furthermore said that textbooks are tools for providing and fulfilling the students' learning experience indirectly in big numbers and organized systematically.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results, there are some points that can be concluded from this research. First, model answers to Yes/No questions from students in public senior high schools in Medan were distributed variously amongst answers of Models I, II, III, IV, V and VI. However, if it is seen from the percentage of each model answer, the distribution of the answers amongst the categories was not proportional and even for every model. For instance, Model III answers were 37% of all answers while there were only 1% of Model VI answers from all the answers collected. Secondly, compared to the textbooks used in these schools which are relatively proportional in the distribution of model answers from the different categories of answers for Yes/No questions, the students' answers were less proportional and less appropriate compared to the textbook answers usually produced by native speakers. Thirdly, students still answered the models of Yes/No questions monotonously and they did not seem to consider the context of the communication, yet. Finally, the teachers seemed to lack innovation, creativity and variety in teaching-learning to develop model answers for Yes/No questions in natural real-life like situations and in contextual ways.

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QAR Strategy Implementation for Reading Comprehension of Recount Texts

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Abstract

The objective of this research is to find out whether or not Question Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy is effective in teaching reading comprehension of recount text. This research used an experimental research design. This research took place at a junior high school in Banda Aceh. A second grade class or 8th grade was chosen as the research sample which consisted of 36 students. The research instrument used to gather the data was a set of essay tests which were divided into pre-test and post-test. The result of the research was analyzed by using paired t-test formula. The calculation result shows that the t-score value is higher than the critical value t-table ($-5.62 > -2.03$). It means that the alternative hypothesis (H_a) is accepted, and the null hypothesis (H_o) is rejected. To conclude, the implementation of QAR strategy is effective in teaching reading comprehension of recount text to the students as there is an escalation toward the students' scores after the implementation of QAR.

Keywords: Reading comprehension, Question Answer Relationship (QAR), recount texts, EFL students.

1. INTRODUCTION

English as the international language is mostly used in various situations, such as in corporation, marketing, and even in the education institutions. In Indonesia, English has not been counted as a second language, but it is used as a foreign language. Marhum (2009) gives some reasons why English has special functions in Indonesia: (1) English is a language that is used by people in all countries to communicate, (2) it is a mean of development supporter of Indonesian language to become one of the modern languages, and (3) it is a mean of science and technology transfer for national

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development. Those factors make English to be included in the national curriculum that is principally used at schools to prepare students to be ready to pursue their dreams. And for junior high school students, English is a compulsory subject (Leksono, 2009).

Based on the national policy in Content Standard 2006 (*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan* or KTSP), English at the junior high school is focused on the four language skills. They are listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. In learning English, especially for reading skill, students are expected to be able to know explicit and implicit ideas in the texts. Based on SK/KD 11/11.3, the students have to be able to respond meaning of rhetorical feature, in essays that are used in various written language accurately, fluently, and acceptable in daily life context in recount and narrative texts. However, for many students, reading is still considered as a difficult skill to master. Based on our initial study from informal interviews from a number of students at a junior high school in Banda Aceh, they informed that the common difficulties faced in understanding reading texts are caused by lack of vocabulary, difficult to identify main idea, understanding how to refer words in the text and detail of text. These problems were also faced by students in research previously conducted by Komariah et al. (2015), Gani et al. (2016), Natsir and Anisati (2016), and Yusuf et al. (2016). They have used various techniques and methods to overcome these problems.

Among the techniques, methods and strategies that teachers can use to overcome students' reading difficulties is the Question Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy. And so, to assist the students in the school under study, the researchers proposed to implement this strategy in the classroom. QAR strategy is effective in helping increase students' reading comprehension, especially in finding the main idea, inferences, implicit and explicit information. These have been proven by studies such as those conducted by Steubing (2011), Stafford (2012), and Wahyuni (2014), among others. In consequence, the research question for this study is: Can Question Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy improves 8th grade students' reading comprehension of recount text?

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Reading Comprehension

Reading is one of the skills in learning language beside listening, writing, and speaking. People who currently use the term know that reading is language ability and should be taught in close meaningful connection with the entire of language abilities, including talking, listening, writing and thinking (Gillet & Temple, 1994). Reading is a process in which readers actively search for making meaning in what they read. It is a complex process and essential skill that is used to dig up meaning and information from the text to be knowledge which relates to other skills in its process. Krashen (2004, p. 37), as quoted in Mourtaga (2006), states "reading is the only way, the only way we become good reader, develop a good writing style, an adequate vocabulary, advanced grammar, and the only way we become good spellers".

Experts have defined reading in different definitions. Schulz (1981) explains that reading is someone's capability in extracting meaning from the text he/she reads. He, then, adds that someone does not need to understand the meaning of each word of text, but he/she should have to understand the meaning that conveys from a series of word. This definition comes to a term called extensive reading. This term emphasizes that

reading is for global comprehension, instead of intensive reading. Extensive reading is useful for general people, who do not need to understand the meaning of each word, for example, reading to get information. On the other hand, intensive reading is very important for students. It is not to just get them to understand the series of words, but to also know the meaning of every word. Students who know every word from the text may extract more meaning or information than those who do not.

Meanwhile, reading comprehension has many definitions as described by experts. [Snow \(2002\)](#) describes reading comprehension as the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with written language. Furthermore, [Grellet \(1981\)](#), explains that reading comprehension is understanding a written text by means of extracting required information from it as efficiently as possible. By means of reading, a reader can find out the meaning, get the main idea, get the structure of the text, and reveal other information from the text.

Comprehension has three elements that are linked together and cannot be separated. The first element is the readers who are trying to understand texts. At this point, someone's ability and background knowledge have an effect to the reading. Second, the text that is the object to be comprehended by the readers. That text may be in the form of printed books or electronic books that are used to read. The third element is the reading activity. This activity includes the purposes, processes, and consequences that are related to the reading activity ([Snow, 2002](#)).

2.2 Question Answer Relationship Strategy

Question Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy is a kind of strategy in reading developed by [Raphael \(1986\)](#). According to [Raphael and Au \(2005\)](#), QAR is a reading comprehension strategy developed to clarify how students approach the tasks of reading texts and answering questions. It encourages students to be active readers of texts. QAR outlines where information can be found "In the Text" or "In My Head." It then breaks down the actual question-answer relationships into four types: "Right There", "Think and Search", "Author and Me", and "On My Own".

The procedure of QAR strategy includes four steps ([Bos & Vaughn, 2002](#)). According to [Bos and Vaughn \(2002\)](#), the first step is to explain to the students that there are four types of questions they will encounter. The teacher is to define each type of question and give an example. The four types of questions that are examined in QAR are

- (a) Right There Questions: literal questions whose answers can be found in the text. Often the words used in the question are the same words found in the text.
- (b) Think and Search Questions: answers are gathered from several parts of the text and put together to make meaning.
- (c) Author and You Questions: these questions are based on information provided in the text but the students are required to relate it to their own experiences.
- (d) On My Own Questions: these questions do not require the students to have read the passage but they must use their background knowledge to answer the question.

Second, [Bos and Vaughn \(2002\)](#) explain that the teacher read a short passage aloud to the students. Third, the teacher has predetermined questions she or he will ask after stopping reading. When the teacher has finished reading, she or he reads the questions aloud to the students and models how to decide which type of question she or

he have asked to answer. Finally, the teacher shows the students how to find information to answer the question.

3. METHODS

In this research, the researchers considered an experimental design which belongs to the pre-experimental design. [Arikunto \(2009\)](#) states that quantitative research is a kind of research required the use of numbers, ranging from data collection, data interpretation and the appearance of the result. The writer implemented one-group pre-test and post-test design as the design for this experiment.

A second grade class or 8th grade students of MTsN Model, Banda Aceh, was chosen as the research sample. The class consisted of 36 students. The research instrument used to gather the data was a set of essay tests which were divided into pre-test and post-test.

Test is a method that can be used to measure the individuals' skills, intelligence of knowledge, and aptitudes ([Arikunto, 2010](#)). The test should be valid and reliable in order to get accurate data. The data was collected quantitatively which was acquired from a pre-test and a post-test on students' reading comprehension. The tests were adapted from the English text book used by the school. Pre-test was given to see the students' reading comprehension before QAR strategy was applied. Meanwhile, the post-test was given to measure the progress of the students' reading comprehension after the strategy was applied.

The tests focused on recount texts; this text type is as required by the school syllabus for 8th grade students of Indonesian junior high schools. The function of recount text is to inform the reader or listener about past events in chronological order. The generic structures of the text are: orientation, events, and re-orientation. Language features of recount text are: 1) use of nouns and pronouns to identify people, animals or thing involved, 2) use of past action verbs to refer the events, 3) use of past tense to locate events in relation to the speaker's or researcher's time, and 4) use of conjunctions and time connectives to sequence the event.

For data analysis, the researchers detected the significance of data between the pre-test and post-test scores based on the students' achievement before and after three treatments (i.e. three meetings) of QAR strategy were conducted in the classroom. Moreover, in order to analyse the test result, some formulas were used. First, to evaluate the reading comprehension tests, the writer used a scoring system. The next step was the calculation of the students' correct answers for each question in score percentage. In order to find out the significance between the pre-test and post-test, data were analysed by using statistical formulas by [Hatch and Lazaraton \(1991\)](#).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Results

The pre-test, which was given to the students in the first meeting before the implementation of Question Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy, was conducted to

find out the students' initial ability in reading comprehension. Figure 1 illustrates the scores from this pre-test.

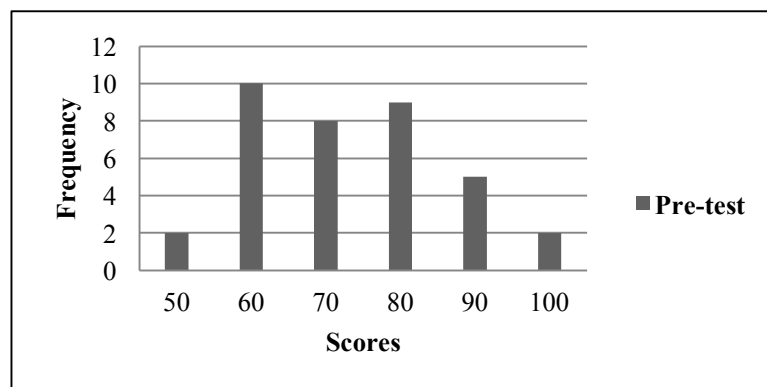


Figure 1. The students' pre-test scores.

The result of pre-test showed that most students got low scores in reading comprehension. It happened because students did not comprehend the text well. They were also still unfamiliar with some questions stated in the pre-test. During the pre-test, some students seemed confused and frequently asked their friends or teacher about the questions.

The post-test, which was given to the students after the treatments were given, was done to measure students' ability in reading comprehension to see the improvement after QAR strategy was implemented. Figure 2 illustrates the scores of the post-test.

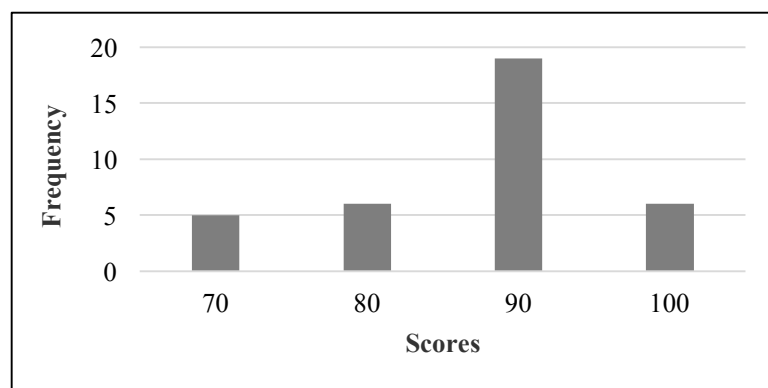


Figure 2. The students' post-test scores.

Figure 2 shows that the students' scores from the pre-test to post-test had increased, in which the lowest score in the pre-test was 50, but in the post-test, the lowest score was 70. This means that students who previously had scores below the standard minimum score set by the school (i.e. 70), yet after learning reading comprehension with QAR strategy, they could reach the score demanded by their school.

Furthermore, from the pre-test and post-test scores, the mean score of these tests were calculated. The different score of pre-test and post-test became the priority value in the formula to find the mean score. After finding the mean score, the standard

deviation of the pre-test and post-test were defined. Finally, the t-formula was calculated. Figure 3 shows the the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test.

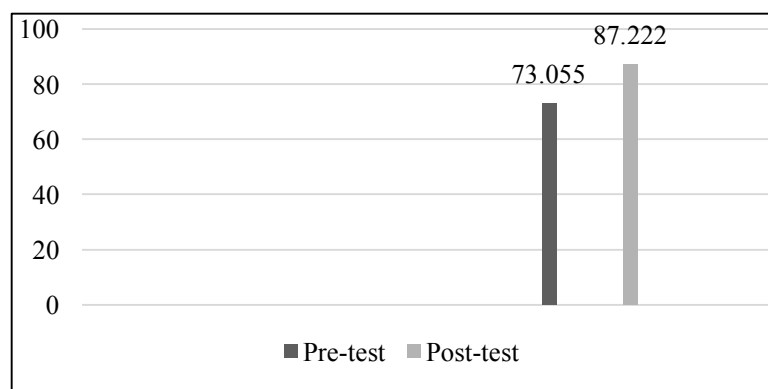


Figure 3. The mean scores of pre-test and post-test.

The two calculations in Figure 3 show the different results of the mean values. The mean value of the post-test (87.22) is higher than the mean value of the pre-test (73.05). As a result, a temporary conclusion is drawn, which is QAR strategy had worked effectively in improving the students' reading comprehension. However, to prove if the technique has given a significant effect on students' reading comprehension, a t-test must be calculated.

There are many aspects in reading comprehension, but here, the researchers only focused on four reading comprehension skills to be observed in this research, which are main idea, detail, vocabulary and reference. Figure 4 presents the result of each reading comprehension skill of the students' pre-test and post-test.

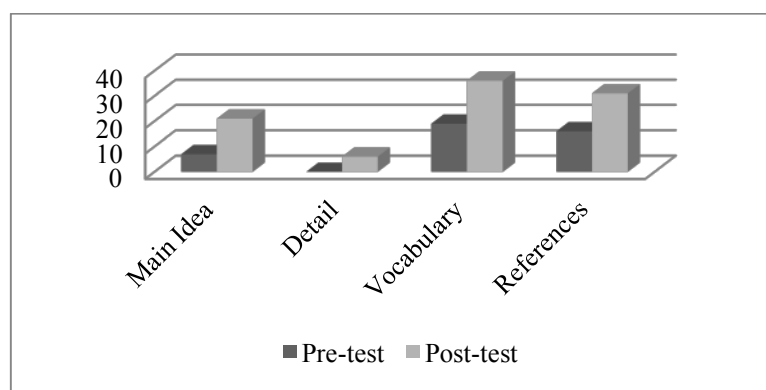


Figure 4. Students' average scores of reading comprehension skills.

The scores of pre-test and post-test are evidences of the students' improvement. The mean score of pre-test was 73.05 and the mean score of post-test was 87.22. It means that the score of post-test was higher than score of pre-test. In addition, there was a significant improvement for mean score of each reading comprehension skill. In the pre-test, the score for each aspect were: main idea (7), detail (0), vocabulary (19), and reference (16). Meanwhile, in the post-test the score were; main idea (21), detail (6), vocabulary (36), and reference (31).

In proving the hypothesis, two procedures were done. First, the researchers counted the mean score of the pre-test and post-test. Second, the mean score was

substituted into the t-test formula which resulted in choosing one of the two hypotheses provided. From the formula, it was found that the t-score is 5.62. The hypothesis was analyzed by using the t-score formula. It was referred to the t-table at the level significant of 0.05. The testing criteria used for the result of hypothesis is: if $t < t_t$ (the result of t-score is lower than t-table), it means that the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. The researchers used the degree of freedom failure in a particular significant (α), which is 0.05. The degree of freedom (df) here is 35 (2.03). It was obtained by using the formula $(n-1)$, which is $36-1=35$. From the result of study, the t-test calculated is -5.62. It must be compared with t-table score (-2.03). Thus, the t-score value is higher than the critical value t-table ($-5.62 > -2.03$). It means that the alternative hypothesis (H_a) was accepted while the null hypothesis (H_0) was rejected. So, the data indicates that the implementation of Question Answer Relationship (QAR) strategy can affect students' ability in reading comprehension. It can be concluded that there is an escalation toward the students' scores after the implementation of QAR.

4.2 Discussion

After collecting and processing the data taken from the tests, it was found that the scores of students increased after the implementation of QAR strategy. The score of the pre-test and post-test could be an evidence of students' improvement. The mean score of pre-test was 73.05 and the mean score of post-test was 87.22. It means that the score of post-test was higher than the score of pre-test. This finding is in line with the result of study done by [Murtado \(2011\)](#) who also used QAR strategy to improve the reading comprehension of 8th graders in one of the junior high schools in Curugbitung. He finds that by using QAR strategy, his students could develop their vocabulary, activate their prior knowledge, apply their higher-level of thinking, and enhance their interest and participation in the learning and teaching process. Furthermore, another previous study conducted by [Wahyuni \(2014\)](#) also obtained similar findings. She states that there was a significant difference of her students' ability in reading comprehension after they were taught by using QAR strategy.

In addition, there was a significant improvement for the mean score of each reading comprehension skill. In the pre-test, the score for each aspect are: main idea (7), detail (0), vocabulary (19), and reference (16). Meanwhile, in the post-test the score were; main idea (21), detail (6), vocabulary (36), and reference (31). These increasing points indicate that the strategy was effective to be used in teaching the aspects of reading comprehension.

Moreover, there were numbers of reasons why students got better scores in their post-test. First, QAR strategy had stimulated the students to be able to understand the content of the text through intensive reading. This reason is in line with the statement of [Raphael and Au \(2005\)](#) who state that QAR strategy is good to teach students to focus on the meaning of the text. Second, the students were able to identify fact and opinion sentences in the text. Using the questioning groups of QAR: "Right There" and "Think and Search", students could understand the reading text explicitly and include identification fact and opinion sentences in the text. Third, the students could find the information as a discussion material. Meanwhile, in the last questioning groups of QAR, "Author and You" and "On Your Own", students could get the information in the text that merged with the students' knowledge or experiences. Last but not least, the success in increasing students' reading comprehension ability could be achieved

through QAR strategy since students have made and considered reading as important to get the whole information in the text to deeply understand it.

5. CONCLUSION

Based on the previous discussion, it can be concluded that Question Answer Relationship is one of the potential strategies to be used in teaching reading comprehension. By using QAR strategy, students can activate their prior knowledge, apply their higher-level of thinking, and enhance their interest and participation in the learning and teaching process. The findings of this study indicate that QAR strategy is successful in improving students reading comprehension of the recount text. Therefore, the researchers recommend both teachers and students to apply this strategy in the teaching and learning of English reading comprehension.

Of course, this study was conducted not without weaknesses. It employed only one class from one school to conduct the experiment. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to other students from other schools or educational levels. To cover these limitations, therefore research with larger samples and more schools in different educational levels are recommended for future research in this topic.

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