Journal of ELT Research

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From the Editors

Welcome to the January 2017 issue of *Journal of ELT Research*. This issue, apart from celebrating New Year, is in coincidence with the happiness permeating across the University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA's (UHAMKA) campuses. The National Accreditation Board for Higher Education (BAN-PT) has officially announced that UHAMKA is accredited 'A' as an institution. This brings the consequence for the institution, and for us as an inseparable part of it, to keep progressing. As regards, we are determined to increase the quality and expand the coverage of this journal to reach wider readers. Our January 2017 issue touches several issues in ELT.

Our first article, "Case Study: The Use of Recast in the EYL Classroom," by Dede Shandra and Gunawan Suryoputro, investigates the use of recast technique in correcting students' errors in the English for Young Learners (EYL) setting. They used observation and interview to find out the role of recast in teaching-learning processes and to explore student and teacher perceptions of recast technique. Results of this study show that recast could encourage students' motivation and independence and suggest that the technique can be used as an alternative feedback when giving correction to students' errors. Further studies on recast in different educational level on different language skills in the Indonesian context seem beneficial to make us, ELT practitioners, see this topic more broadly.

In the second article, "Communication Strategies Used by EFL Students with High and Low Self-Esteem," Rahmi Aulia Nurdini investigates communication strategies (CSs) used by EFL students with low self-esteem and those with high self-esteem when speaking English. This study used questionnaire, observation, and interview, with the results revealing that students with low self-esteem employed fewer strategies compared to students having high self-esteem. The strategies used by students having low self-esteem were, among others, non-linguistic means, appeal for help, and fillers or hesitation device, while those with high self-esteem used more varied strategies. This study suggests that EFL teachers need to pay more attention to low self-esteem students in order that they also get much benefit from the learning process.

Siti Zulaiha's article, "Teachers' Grading Practices: In Search for Clear Grading Criteria," discusses marking as an important role in EFL, though it can be considered as a complicated process. The article reviews teachers' grading practices and discusses this issue. At the end, the article presents the implication of the marking practices and gives some suggestion based on experts' recommendation.

Silih Warni's article, "Facilitating an Implementation of Online Portfolios in an EFL Writing Class," presents a study on integrating online portfolios in the EFL writing class and explores both students' experiences in learning EFL writing using the online portfolios and his own experiences as a researcher in facilitating the online portfolio implementation. This action research used interview, reflective journals, and students' online portfolio entries as methods. The study reports some emerging problems dealing with the use of a blog, online feedback,

and students' reflection. The study suggests that EFL teachers need to understand their roles when implementing online portfolio.

In the article "The Use of Song Worksheet to Enhance EFL Elementary School Students' Vocabulary Mastery," Ahmad Fadhli conducts a study to enhance students' vocabulary mastery through the use of song worksheet. It took place at an elementary school, with the number of participants reaching 22 students. This action research found that song worksheet could enhance students' vocabulary mastery. Besides this, students gave positive responses to the use of song worksheet. This study supports not only the use of songs in the EFL context which could make teaching-learning processes more fun but also the use of worksheet as an additional component to the song-based classroom activities.

In her article titled "The Effect of Instructional Methods and Cognitive Styles toward Speaking Skill," Nita Kaniadewi investigates the effect of instructional methods (Communicative Language Learning - CLL and Task-Based Language Learning - TBL) and students' cognitive styles (Field Dependence - FD and Field Independence - FI) toward speaking skill. This experimental research using a two-factor ANOVA showed that (1) the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL was higher than the students taught by TBL; (2) the speaking skill of FD students was higher than FI students; (3) there was an interaction between instructional methods and cognitive style to speaking skill; (4) the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL was higher than the students taught by TBL in the group of FD students; and (5) there was no significant difference in speaking skill between students taught by CLL and those taught by TBL in the group of FI students. The findings can be inferred that in general, CLL is more effective than TBL in teaching speaking.

In our final article "The Effect of TPR and Audio-Lingual Method in Teaching Vocabulary Viewed from Students' IQ," Anita Dewi Ekawati conducts a study to investigate the effect of Total Physical Response (TPR) on elementary school students' English vocabulary mastery with regards to their Intelligence Quotient (IQ). The interaction between the teaching method and IQ in teaching vocabulary is also investigated. The study reveals that TPR is an effective method for teaching vocabulary in elementary school, and the effectiveness of the method is influenced by the level of students' IQ. The results of the study become a reference for EFL teachers to apply an effective method to teach English vocabulary to elementary school students. Moreover, EFL teachers should take into account students' IQ in implementing the teaching method.

Finally, thank you for your submissions. For the readers, we hope this January 2017 issue of *Journal of ELT Research* give you some insight to do further studies and some new ideas to be implemented in your teaching-learning processes.

Editors

CONTENTS

Case Study: The Use of Recast in the EYL Classroom

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This paper reports the use of recast technique in correcting students' errors in the EYL (English for Young Learners) classroom. Observation and interview methods were conducted to collect the data. While observation was implemented to find out the role of recast in teaching-learning processes, interview to ten teachers and twenty-four students was conducted in order to answer teachers and students' perceptions of recast technique. Findings showed that teachers and students gave positive perceptions of recast. Recast can encourage students' language awareness, motivation, and independence. The findings of this study suggest that recast technique can be used as an alternative feedback in giving correction to students' errors. The study confirms literature showing that recast is an effective corrective feedback.

Keywords: recast technique, English for Young Learners (EYL), case study, teachers and students' perceptions

Artikel ini melaporkan penggunaan teknik recast dalam mengoreksi error siswa di kelas bahasa Inggris untuk anak-anak (English for Young Learners). Metode observasi dan wawancara dilakukan untuk mengumpulkan data. Observasi dilakukan untuk mengetahui peran recast dalam proses pembelajaran, sedangkan wawancara terhadap sepuluh guru dan dua puluh empat siswa dilakukan untuk mengetahui persepsi guru dan siswa terhadap recast. Penemuan studi ini menunjukan bahwa guru dan siswa memberikan persepsi positif terhadap recast. Recast mampu mendorong kesadaran berbahasa, motivasi, dan kemandirian siswa. Hasil studi ini mengusulkan bahwa teknik recast dapat digunakan sebagai alternatif umpan balik dalam memberikan koreksi terhadap kesalahan yang dibuat siswa. Penemuan studi ini juga mengkonfirmasi literatur yang mengatakan bahwa recast merupakan cara memberikan koreksi yang efektif.

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INTRODUCTION

In this globalization era, English speaking skill for both academic and non-academic purposes is needed. Teaching English speaking skill at school in Indonesia is the responsibility of English teachers. It could mean that Indonesian English teachers need to provide adequate techniques for teaching speaking; the techniques which can facilitate students' speaking progress to achieve the desired goals stated in the English curriculum. This is not an easy task, especially when connected to the teaching of English for Young Learners (EYL).

In Indonesia, English has actually been taught to elementary school students up to those in higher institution. However, the result seems unsatisfactory with regard to communication in the language. Most students are still passive in a sense that they still find difficulty using the language in conversation. Besides this, Indonesian students do not seem confident while speaking English. The objective of teaching English speaking in this country, therefore, could be considered still unsuccessful.

One of the inhibiting factors contributing to the unsatisfactory result of teaching speaking skill may be the inappropriate teaching technique. The teaching technique which seems to be neglected concerns feedback-giving or error-correcting. Giving feedback appropriately may play an important role in teaching a foreign language, especially in the Indonesian context, since students in this country could be considered 'polite.'

In general, there are at least two kinds of correcting students' errors: implicit and explicit. The example of implicit correction is recast. Recast technique is the corrective feedback which emphasizes the boldness of students to recast or reproduce the new corrective form after getting correction from the teachers or instructors. Gass (2003) states that "recast is a technique which uses an instance in which an interlocutor rephrases an incorrect utterance with a corrected version, while maintaining the integrity of the original meaning" (p. 239). This can be inferred that when applied in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom, recast can be applied by the teacher as an interlocutor in such a way to make students aware of the mistakes they have made.

There have been some researchers who have conducted a study on recast (e.g. Abedi, Karimi, Mehrdad, 2015; Asari, 2015; Hawkes & Nassaji, 2016). Asari (2015), for example, conducted a study in Japan focusing on interrupting recast. One of the activities she assigned to students was interviewing each other. Results of the study showed that recast helped students correct their mistakes. Asari (2015) found that interrupting recasts "have encouraged the students to speak" (p. 7).

Abedi et al. (2015) conducted an experimental study in Iran. The study investigated the effect of recast in learning pronunciation. While one group received feedback via recast, the other was given direct feedback. According to Abedi et al., the result of post-test showed that the group given recast had a better score; this can be inferred that recast has positive contribution to the teaching of pronunciation.

The two studies above may show that recast can be beneficial in EFL. However, there has been very little information on how recast has a role in EYL. This study, therefore, attempts to investigate the use of recast in EYL. Two research questions were posed in the study: (1)

What are the teachers' perceptions of using recast in the EYL classroom? (2) What are the benefits of recast technique for young learners?

METHODS

Case study design was adopted in the study. Creswell (2012) argues that case study is "an in-depth exploration of a bounded system (e.g., activity, event, process, or individuals) based on extensive data collection" (p. 465). The events considered in the study were how recast could contribute to the teaching of English for young learners and how English teacher perceived the use of recast in teaching speaking.

This study was conducted at two elementary schools in Tangerang, Banten Province, Indonesia. Ten English teachers and twenty-four students participated in the study. Two methods were adopted: observation and interview. Observation was conducted to find out students' behavior during the implementation of recast, while interview was conducted to investigate teachers' and students' perceptions with regard to the implementation of recast. Interview was also conducted to uncover information which could not be obtained through observation. Semi-structured interview was conducted in order that the researcher could develop the questions without being too far away from the topic of interview. Both observation and interview were transcribed and coded.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Teachers' perceptions of using recast in the EYL classroom

The findings showed that the majority of teachers gave positive perceptions of using recast in the classroom. For example, the results informed that recast helped reduce students' anxiety, and it could encourage students to speak up because they were not afraid of making mistake, as can be found in the excerpt (all excerpts have been translated into English) below:

> *In my opinion, recast is very useful for school kids. This is because their language is still developing, and recast does not make them unconfident or discouraged.*

This finding is in agreement with that of previous study (Asari, 2015) which reveals that recast works effectively in the process of learning and promoting of language acquisition. This finding supports the notion that recast is beneficial in reducing students' affective filter.

Another finding of this study showed that recast could keep students' mental and motivation strong. Both mental and motivation are two important things in order to keep the spirit in learning. Based on the observation, it was found that when the teachers used recast technique as a corrective feedback, it did not make the students' embarrassed. This could be inferred that recast may not decrease students' motivation. The observation result was supported by the result of teacher interview when asked about their opinion on the use of recast, as can be seen from the excerpt below:

> *I think recast is one of appropriate techniques in correcting the students' errors. With recast, the teachers can correct the students' error without making them embarrassed/threatened. Students can admit their errors, so they can realize their*

errors and accept the correction from teachers easily. Finally, the students will not be afraid anymore and they are willing to try again.

Previous research (Abedi et al., 2015) has also indicated that recast is effective and can encourage language learners. It can therefore be concluded that recast has positive impact for the learners since it does not demotivate students' motivation.

The teachers also believed that recast technique could increase the students' speaking ability. They mentioned that the technique was used not to blame the students' mistakes but to correct the students' perceptions of the mistakes, thus building their awareness of the mistakes. They also believed that students would not feel guilty when they got correction from the teachers. Besides this, the teachers became aware of the time in correcting the students' mistakes. One of the teachers stated as follows:

For me, recast as corrective feedback is necessary to help students facilitate the progress of their speaking ability, but the teachers have to know the condition when correcting them. There are some students who feel happy to be corrected by the teachers, while some other don't. Recast actually can reduce the number of students who feel inconvenient when getting teachers' correction.

This finding supports the study by Hawkes and Nassaji (2003) that reported recasts allowed students to detect and correct their mistakes more quickly.

Another finding was the teachers perceived that recast technique encouraged students to be independent. This is because the technique lets the students correct their mistakes by themselves, so the students are forced to be autonomous, as can be seen in the excerpt below:

Children think independently; they will look for the correct one themselves.

As mentioned, it has been argued by Hawkes and Nassaji (2003) that recast allows the students to detect the errors by themselves. It can be inferred said that recast makes could promote independent or autonomous learning.

Finally, all teachers gave positive perceptions of recast technique as corrective feedback used in the EYL classroom. They also encouraged and supported the use of the technique in language learning in a different setting. The following table summarizes the teachers' perceptions of the use of recast.

Table 1: Teachers' perceptions of the use of recast

Teachers' perceptions of recast	a. Recast promotes language acquisition.
	b. Recast keeps the students' mental and motivation.
	c. Recast increases students' speaking ability.
	d. Recast promotes autonomous learning.

The benefits of recast technique for young learners

In this study, the writer observed two classes; they were fourth and sixth graders. The writer used observational protocol as a guide in conducting the observation. In the fourth grade, the writer found recast technique applied by the teacher during learning and teaching process, as can be seen in the interview excerpt below:

Student A   : "ten time ..."
Teacher WU   : "ten times ..." (recast)
Student A   : "ten times ..."

The type of recast was 'timing'; this happened when the student's error was directly corrected by the teacher before the talk was finished. This recast above happened in the middle of the conversation. Based on my observation, the student did not seem to feel burden when the teacher corrected her error. On the contrary, the student seemed enthusiastic and tried to correct her language.

In the sixth grade, the students were more active, and they looked enthusiastic about interacting with their peers when the teacher gave them assignment to make a short dialogue. Based on the observation, recast also happened during the dialogue performance. The teacher corrected the student's error by changing the word, as can be seen in the following excerpt:

Student   : "how much time do you exercise?"
Teacher   : "you mean how long ....?"(recast)

Again, the observation showed that the student did not look embarrassed about the teacher's correction. He just seemed happy. Besides this, his face did not show anger or disappointment.

Another timing recast which showed that student was just happy when being corrected happened when two students performed a dialog in the front of class, as can be seen below:

Student 1   : "what is your hobby?"
Student 2   : "my hobby is playing 'marawis'"

Student 1   : *"why?"*
Student 2   : *"I want to be become…."*
Teacher   : *"I want to become" (recast)*
Student 2   : *"I want to become …."*

Recast was not only conducted by the teacher but also the student. This happened in a dialog in which one student did not know how to say a word in English, as can be seen in the excerpt below:

Student 1   : *"I always join tournament,* lomba apa? *(what is 'lomba' in English?)"*
Student 2   : *"competition" (recast)*
Student 1   : *"I always join fishing competition"*

The difference in this observation was that the corrector was his peer. Student 2 did recast to student 1, and the type of recast was segmentation. Student 1 changed from the mistake segment into the correct one, and he felt happy about this.

The observation data above support that recast brings positive effects. Also, recast does not make students embarrassed or threatened. Findings of the observation are supported by the results of the interview: the majority of students gave positive perceptions of this corrective feedback, and only one participant mentioned a negative response by saying that recast could make students shy.

With regard to the question about the benefits of recast. The majority of students also said that it was beneficial. One participant responded by arguing saying that recast could make him know the mistake he had made. This can be concluded that recast can promote students' language awareness. This is in agreement with what Ebedi et al. (2015) argue that recast is effective in promoting language acquisition since students can be aware of the error they make.

There were seventeen out of twenty-four respondents (70%) who informed that they were happy if recast was included in learning processes. This feeling is important since language learning can be enhanced if it is done without stress. This is also supported by Hawkes (2003) who argues that students can detect their errors and correct them quickly without feeling burdened.

An interesting finding is that there were two students who said recast could give them spirit and motivation. Spirit and motivation are actually two factors which greatly contribute to the success of foreign language learning. This finding supports Hawkes' (2003) statement. All in all, interview data showed positive perceptions of recast. The table below lists the students' perceptions of the benefits of recast.

Table 2: Students' perceptions of the benefits of recast

The benefits of recast for students	a. Recast promotes students' language awareness.
	b. Recast makes learning processes more fun
	c. Recast keeps students' spirit and motivation.
	d. Recast encourages autonomous and independent learning.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study show that the teachers have positive perceptions of recast as corrective feedback; this can be seen from the results of the interview conducted to ten English teachers at two schools. Besides this, recast technique is beneficial for students who are learning English as corrective feedback which can be seen from the results of observation and interview. The findings can suggest that teachers, particularly Indonesian English teachers, can use this technique to correct students' errors, if the objective of giving correction is not to make students feel embarrassed.

With regard to contributions, this study can contribute to at least two parties: teachers and students. For teachers, they could use recast as an alternative technique in correcting students' mistakes. The findings of this study have shown that recast is very possible to be implemented in the EYL classroom; thus it can also be implemented in the EFL context. For students, recast gives them some benefits. Firstly, it can encourage students to be more independent. Secondly, it can make them motivated, and thirdly, it can encourage independent learning. Therefore, it is worth implementing in the EYL classroom.

A number of important limitations need to be considered. First, the research instrument such as open-ended questionnaire may be added for more data triangulation. Further research, therefore, may include this method. Finally, there needs to be a study which investigates the use of recast in different English proficiency level and different level of education. Thereby, the role of recast in the EFL context would be more known.

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Communication Strategies Used by EFL Students with High and Low Self-Esteem

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This study aimed to investigate communication strategies (CSs) used by EFL students with low and high self-esteem in speaking English. Methods employed were questionnaire, observation, and interview. Findings showed that students with low self-esteem employed fewer CSs compared to those with high self-esteem. Students with low self-esteem only used the strategies such as non-linguistic means, appeal for help, and fillers or hesitation device, while the students with high self-esteem level used six kinds of communication strategies such as message abandonment, non-linguistic means, literal translation, code switching, appeal for help, and fillers or hesitation device. The study suggests that EFL practitioners pay attention to self-esteem aspect to obtain the optimum results of teaching-learning processes.

Keywords: communication strategies, low self-esteem, high self-esteem

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui strategi komunikasi yang digunakan oleh siswa yang memiliki self-esteem tinggi dan rendah. Metode yang digunakan dalam penelitian ini adalah questionnaire, observasi, dan wawancara. Penemuan dari penelitian ini menunjukan bahwa siswa dengan self-esteem rendah lebih sedikit menggunakan strategi dibandingkan dengan siswa dengan self-esteem tinggi. Siswa dengan self-esteem rendah hanya menggunakan strategi seperti non-linguistic means, appeal for help, and fillers or hesitation device, sedangkan siswa dengan self-esteem tinggi menggunakan enam jenis strategi, yaitu message abandonment, non-linguistic means, literal translation, code switching, appeal for help, and fillers or hesitation device. Penelitian ini menyarankan para praktisi EFL agar memberikan perhatian pada aspek self-esteem untuk mendapatkan hasil pembelajaran yang optimal.

INTRODUCTION

The importance of English can be seen from the fact that English in Indonesia is taught from kindergarten up to university level. Even though Indonesian students have been learning the language for years, they still seem to have difficulties in using the language, especially spoken

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English. At the university level, particularly at Economics faculty, English course is important to equip students for the business world.

With regard to English courses at Economics faculty, I have conducted a small-scale study at a private university. It found that the majority of second semester students majoring in management felt reluctant, shy and worried when speaking English; only a few students were willing to speak English in the classroom. However, students willing to speak English still got difficulty in expressing ideas and thoughts. They need to know communication strategies (CSs) to overcome their limitations. CSs are considered as one of fundamental factors in promoting students' ability to improve their speaking skills, and CSs can help them overcome communication difficulties such as lack of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and other linguistic factors.

CSs are strategies that learners use to overcome problems in order to convey their intended meaning. Besides this, CSs are considered to play an important role in language acquisition (Huang, 2010). Dornyei (1995) divides CSs into some categories, among others, avoidance/reduction strategies, achievement/compensatory strategies, and stalling/time-gaining strategies. In reduction strategy, speakers leave unfinished message as they do not know how to say a word, for example. While in compensatory strategy speakers paraphrase or describe a topic or thing, in time-gaining strategy, they use fillers or pauses.

Problems in communication are faced by all EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students. The problems can be categorized into linguistic and non-linguistic problems. Linguistic problems can be difficulties in pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammatical, while non-linguistic problems relate with learners' personality. Learners' personality could be the barrier to speaking proficiency, so teachers need to think about some aspects related to the problems. One of the learners' personality aspect is self-esteem. Based on the preliminary study, students with high self-esteem can be associated with successful language acquisition; conversely, students with low self-esteem may be associated with students whose language acquisition is less successful.

Self-esteem can be defined as how one sees, judges, and respects himself. It is therefore very important to know self-esteem to find out if there may be emotional and social effects, including in the field of EFL. Some studies (Bagheri & Faghih, 2012; Fahim & Rad, 2012; Ghaith, 2010; Juyandegan; 2016; Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Nakatani, 2010) have investigated communication strategies and self-esteem. Nakatani (2010) conducted a study at a Japanese college to investigate if the application of specific communication strategies help increase EFL students' proficiency in communicative tasks. It found that 'maintaining discourse' and 'meaning negotiation' strategies helped promote students' communicative ability. On the other hand, Mei and Nathalang (2010) investigated non-English-major undergraduate students studying English at a Chinese university. The study investigated CSs used by the students, and it found the CSs were affected by three aspects: the type of task, their language proficiency, and academic major.

Regarding self-esteem, Bagheri and Faghih (2012) and Juyandegan (2016) conducted a correlational study investigating the relationship between self-esteem and reading comprehension in Iran. With the samples of EFL students being 55 in Bagheri and Faghih's study and 45 in Juyandegan's study, both studies found a positive relation between reading comprehension and self-esteem. Another correlation study was conducted by Fahim and Rad

(2012) who investigated the relationship between self-esteem and paragraph writing. The study also found that there was a relationship between the variables. On the other hand, Ghaith (2010), who conducted the study on the effects of 'Learning Together' teaching model in improving EFL students' reading achievement and academic self-esteem, argues that there is no significant difference between the model and self-esteem, while there is a significant difference between the model and reading achievement.

The studies above show that knowing communication strategies and self-esteem benefits EFL students; however, the studies, especially on self-esteem, are conducted using quantitative approach. Besides this, there is very little information on the study investigating communication strategies and self-esteem in the EFL setting in Indonesia. This study is therefore interested in exploring the topic qualitatively, and it poses the following research questions: (1) What are the differences in communication strategies between students with high and low level of self-esteem? (2) What are possible strategies used for low self-esteem students in improving their speaking skill?

METHODS

This study adopted the principles of qualitative inquiry and took place at the Economics faculty at a private university in Jakarta, Indonesia. Six students participated in the study. Data collection methods adopted were observation, speaking test, interview, and questionnaire. This study focused on communication strategies in speaking. In the observation stage, the researcher investigated the students' behavior, for example, what students do in the classroom during speaking class, do they look confident or shy when speaking English etc. In the speaking test, the researcher analyzed data from video recording to find out kinds of communication strategies. The data were matched with the data from questionnaire and interview. To determine students' self-esteem, questionnaire from Rosenberg was used.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Communication strategies used by students with high and low levels of self-esteem

There were six students with low self-esteem and three students with high self-esteem. The students with low self-esteem tended to be passive and reluctant to speak English both to the lecturer and friends in the classroom. The findings showed that when they had to speak English in the classroom, they often used non-linguistic strategies such as asking for help.

On the other hand, the students with high self-esteem level tended to be more active and to have motivation to learn or speak English in the classroom both to the lecturer and friends. In group discussion, students with high self-esteem level were more active to give opinion to the other groups about the topic being discussed, while low self-esteem students used literal translation, non-linguistic means, code switching, and asking-for-help strategies. The following table lists the CSs used by low and high self-esteem students.

Table 1: CSs used by students with low and high self-esteem

Communication Strategies	Low Self-Esteem	High Self-Esteem
Avoidance or reduction: Message abandonment Topic avoidance	√	√
Achievement or compensatory: Circumlocution Approximation Use of all-purpose words Word coinage Use of non-linguistic means Literal translation Foreignizing Code switching or language switch Appeal for help	√ √	√ √ √ √ √
Stalling or time-gaining: Use of fillers/hesitation device	√	√

The table above shows that students with high self-esteem employed more CSs compared to those with low self-esteem strategies. This may be because they are more confident and motivated, so even though they found difficulty in speaking English, they could find some strategies to express their language. The findings of this study support findings of previous studies showing that self-esteem can influence students' language performance. This finding could bring further investigation which relates self-esteem and motivation.

The possible strategies used for low self-esteem students to improve their speaking skill
The findings of this study showed that students with high self-esteem often practiced speaking English outside the classroom. Compared to low self-esteem students, students with high self-esteem may have stronger motivation in learning the language. This motivational aspect may encourage their level of self-esteem, thus contributing to positive results.

Low self-esteem students, based on the interview, showed that they never practiced speaking English outside the classroom, as seen in the excerpt below:

Interviewer: How often do you practice speaking outside the classroom?
Student: Never

Another finding of this study showed that low self-esteem students did not like learning English as according to them it was difficult to learn the language, as seen in the excerpt below:

> Interviewer: Do you feel you fail or succeed in learning English?
> Student: There is very little progress. In fact, I am shy to speak English and don't really like the language because it is difficult. I have taken the language course, but I didn't finish it because I was bored.

The low self-esteem students' reluctance to practice speaking English and their boredom to learn the language may be related to low motivation as has been mentioned; therefore, their CSs were also fewer than those of high self-esteem students. Unfortunately, previous studies did not touch or explore this issue.

Since high self-esteem students apply various kinds of CSs to speak English, low self-esteem students can also apply the CSs. However, asking them to apply the strategies are not easy if there is no motivation. The crucial issue here, therefore, is how to encourage low self-esteem students to learn the language in order that they are willing to apply different kinds of CSs.

CONCLUSIONS

This study found that students with low self-esteem used limited kinds of CSs compared to those with high self-esteem. Students with high self-esteem used more various kinds of CSs: message abandonment, achievement or compensatory strategies (non-linguistic means, literal translation, code switching, appeal for help), and stalling or time-gaining strategies (fillers or hesitation device). The possible strategies used for low self-esteem students in improving their speaking skill are adopting CSs used by students with high self-esteem. However, it is easier said than done. Building their motivation is also important to improve their self-esteem.

Findings of this study suggest several points to the EFL practice. Firstly, self-esteem needs to be considered by EFL practitioners. Also, students with low self-esteem need attention from teachers in order that they also get the optimum results of teaching-learning processes. Finally, this study only adopted a few numbers of participants, so the results might not really reflect the EFL condition in Indonesia. Therefore, further studies need to consider more participants and different EFL setting.

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Teachers' Grading Practices: In Search for Clear Grading Criteria

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Grading is a complicated process yet serves many significant roles such as judging students' achievement and providing parental feedback. However, studies suggest that grading practices are not always uniform in that non-achievement factors are also frequently included in determining grades. Thus it is important to review and further understand teachers' grading practices. This article explores the discussion and debates around grading practices both in the general education field as well as studies in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context. The discussion, in particular, focuses on the range of factors that influence teachers' grading practices. Finally, this article reflects on implications of grading practices and offers suggestions that have been commonly recommended by experts.

Keywords: grade, grading, achievement, non-achievement factors

Penilaian merupakan proses rumit namun memberikan peran penting untuk mengetahui perkembangan siswa dan memberikan umpan balik. Sejumlah penelitian menyarankan proses penilaian tidak harus seragam karena factor-faktor non-pencapaian sering diikutsertakan dalam menentukan nilai, sehingga penting untuk mengulas dan mengerti lebih jauh tentang praktek penilaian guru. Artikel ini menampilkan diskusi dan debat tentang masalah ini dalam kontek pendidikan secara umum dan pembelajaran bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing. Pembahasan dalam artikel ini fokus pada faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi praktek penilaian guru. Di bagian akhir, artikel ini memberikan refleksi praktek penilaian dan memberikan usulan yang sebagian besar telah direkomendasikan oleh para pakar.

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INTRODUCTION

Grading is a major component of educational practice. Grades are frequently a significant issue among teachers, students, and parents. While some teachers may enjoy grading student achievement, there are certainly teachers who find the grading process distressing. From a student perspective, a student may frequently question a grade assigned by a teacher. Similarly, many parents question teachers as to why their children are assigned a particular grade or specifically a lower grade. Thus teachers' grading practices are under scrutiny in relation to what grade a teacher assigns actually means or does not mean (Brookhart, 1994; Brown, 2004; Cheng & Sun, 2015; Randall & Engelhard, 2010). In other words, what an assigned grade represents is commonly under scrutiny by parents. For example, does getting an 'A' in an English writing course reflect the actual student's writing skill? The answers to questions such as this will reveal the specific factors of teachers' grading practices.

The question about what should be comprised in grades has become the focus of ongoing debates. Some assessment experts and educators advise that grades should only be based on academic achievement (Gronlund, 1998; McMillan, 2008). However, other studies offer evidence that while teachers consider achievement factors when grading students, they also commonly include non-achievement factors when assigning the final grade to students (Cheng & Sun, 2015; Liu, 2013; Randall & Engelhard, 2009; 2010; Sun & Cheng, 2013; Yesbeck, 2011). In light of this, this article discusses teachers' grading practices in the general education field as well as in the context of EFL and clarifies the meaning of grading. The article further reviews several studies on teachers' grading practices and focuses on the factors influencing teachers' decision making in grading. Finally, reflections and implications are discussed.

MAKING MEANING OF GRADING

Grades have a great impact on students. At a glance, the process of assigning grades seems simple. Teachers assess students and give students letter or number grades based on students' performance. However, in reality, the grading practice is notably complex. In fact, researchers have long been attempting to clarify and comprehend the meaning and purposes of grading.

A grade is defined as a symbol of a students' achievement level of the learning goals in a particular reporting period (Frisbie & Waltman, 1992). Brookhart (1994) defines grading as "the reporting of student achievement or progress for a report card period or a term" (p. 120). Grades should just reflect academic performance towards learning goals (Randall & Engelhard, 2010). From these definitions, it is clear that a grade should accurately represent students' mastery of the course materials (Liu, 2013). Nonetheless, Wormeli (2006) states that many teachers use grades to communicate students' performance in both academic and other factors such as effort, conduct, and attitude.

Many experts advocate that a grade should represent a student's attainment in that teachers should only consider the achievement factor in their grading decision making. Gronlund (1998) for example, contends that grades should only include achievement factors as the inclusion of non-achievement factors will misrepresent the meaning of the grade as evidence of the student's achievement. Similarly, Linn & Miller (2005) question the appropriateness of the inclusion of another element in the final grade. Likewise, Brookhart (2004) recognizes the need for teachers to assess non-achievement variables. However, she

suggests that these variables must not be graded. Several researchers further argue that grading only on students' achievement will inform students, parents, and other stakeholders of a student's actual achievement and progress. Thus the inclusion of non-achievement factors may risk the inferences made of grades (Brookhart, 1993; Cheng & Sun, 2015; Zoeckler,2007).

Literature shows that meaning is variedly defined, and that grading has multi purposes. There seems no congruence between experts' advice and teachers' perceptions and practices. Thus, how teachers determine grading will influence their grading practices and the validity of the grades they assign. Cheng and Wang (2007) noted that teachers' beliefs and their considerations of the purpose and consequences of grading become the basis of teachers' practices. In the next section, studies on teachers' grading practices are discussed to understand the complexity of this issue.

TEACHERS' GRADING PRACTICES: WHAT STUDIES TELL US

Research has documented that teachers' grading practices are significantly variable. Teachers consider a variety of factors and criteria in assigning grades to their students (Brown, 2004; Sun & Cheng, 2013). In the general field of education, extensive studies investigating teachers' grading practices have been done. Studies indicate that teachers' grading practices are not consistent with the recommended practices provided in the literature. Many teachers use achievement as well as non-achievement factors when assessing and grading students. The most commonly mentioned factors are effort, behavior, participation, study habits, and improvement as found in the following reviewed studies.

In 2001, McMillan & Lawson examined 213 secondary school teachers' practices representing urban, suburban, and rural schools. Their study investigated the factors that teachers used to grade students, the types of assessments used, the cognitive level of assessments, and the grades assigned. The results indicated that teachers used a variety of factors to grade students. The most important factor was academic performance, but effort, participation, and extra-credit work were also important components of elementary school teachers' grading decisions.

Conducted in a primary school context, McMillan, Myran, & Workman (2002) examined assessment and grading practices of over 900 grades responsible for grading class three to five students. The teachers in this research specified the various factors they used to grade students, and the grades awarded. The findings showed that teachers used an assortment of factors; placing most weight on academic performance as well as academic enabling behaviors such as effort and improvement, and much less emphasis on homework, comparisons with other students, grade distributions of other teachers, and borderline cases.

In a survey study carried out in both elementary and middle school, Randall and Engelhard (2009) reported similar results with teachers considering non-achievement factors such as behavior and effort when assigning final grades. Randall and Engelhard examined differences in the grading practices between elementary and middle school teachers. The 234 public school teachers were asked to respond to 53 scenarios to illustrate a variety of student characteristics that may influence the grades that teachers gave. Results indicated that, in general, elementary school teachers gave higher grades than did their middle school colleagues. Randall and Engelhard further concluded that grade-level differences in grading practices might be related to student behavior and effort.

In a later study involving 516 American public school teachers, Randall and Engelhard (2010) investigated the meaning of grades and aspects teachers consider when giving final grades with a focus on borderline cases. Randall and Engelhard found that in general although teachers followed the local grading policy, they tended to use non-achievement factors for several borderline cases.

In the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) context, very few studies have been done on teachers' grading practices. However, the findings of these studies show that the issue of non-achievement factors influencing grades is also common in the EFL context. Sun and Cheng (2013) surveyed 350 junior and senior school English language teachers in China to examine the meaning of grades teachers assigned to their students and the value judgments they made in grading. Regarding construct validity, the findings indicated that the teachers included achievement as well as non-achievement factors such as effort, habit, attitude, improvement, and motivation in assigning grades. Moreover, among the non-achievement factors mentioned the teachers in this context placed particular weight on effort. Recently, Cheng and Sun (2015) published their study on secondary school English language teachers in China focusing on the factors and types of assessment teachers used for grading. The results showed that the teachers placed greater weight on non-achievement factors (e.g. effort, homework, and study habits) when grading. Moreover, these teachers used multiple types of assessment including performance and project-based assessment, teacher self-developed assessment, as well as paper and pencil testing.

All of these studies together confirm that teachers consider a variety of factors when grading for different reasons. Researchers have documented that teachers have a desire to be fair to students (McMillan, 2001; Zoeckler, 2007). Teachers tended to use non-cognitive factors when dealing with borderline cases resulting in lower proficiency students receiving additional scores (Randall & Engelhard, 2010). Teachers were also concerned about the consequences of grades increasing students' confidence and good behavior (Brookhart, 1994). There was also evidence that teachers used non-achievement factors to motivate students. In shorts, teachers used grades not only as an indicator of students' achievement but also as a tool in classroom management and student motivation.

REFLECTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It is apparent that grading practices are not as simple as it would seem. The complexity of grading has been marked by the different beliefs and values held by teachers, researchers, and assessment experts. It is interesting to note, although studies on grading practices were conducted across various educational levels, subject matters, and countries, that studies yield similar finding that teachers consider both achievement and non-achievement factors when assigning the final grade. The most noteworthy issue is perhaps the fact that regardless of the concerns about validity and reliability of grading, the grading practices remain the same. In a recent extensive literature review of research in grading practices, Brookhart, Guskey, Bowers, McMillan, Smith, Smith, Stevens, and Welsh (2016), also confirm that over 100 years of research, "grades typically represent a mixture of multiple factors that teachers value" (p. 834).

Given this fact, the questions that should be considered now are how should we better approach the practice of grading? and What are factors to consider for a more accurate, reliable and thus more accountable grading? Several experts commonly agree to factors to be

considered to improve grading practices, yet, consideration of these factors is not without constraints. These factors are particularly relevant within an EFL context where it is particularly important to provide legitimate grading both in terms of outcomes and ongoing motivation of students.

One of the crucial factors to consider is context. Context involves social and cultural factors, variations between education systems, individual grading policies and the specific beliefs that stakeholders in a particular institution hold about grades and the grading process. When considered together, this combination of factors will influence teachers' grading practices. Studies have shown that one of the factors affecting teachers' grading practices is the local/institution grading policy (Zoeckler, 2007). Teachers, therefore, have to comply in their practices with the policy in their teaching context. Brown (2004) elucidates that each institution has its own grading beliefs and grading regulations. Brown further says that "some institutions, for example, mandate deductions for unexcused absences. Others require that only the final exam determines a course grade" (p. 285). Unfortunately, not many studies to date look into the beliefs of stakeholders in a variety of contexts, especially in Asian EFL settings and in particular in Indonesia. Most studies focus on teachers' practices, yet, teachers experience pressure from the principal, parents, and students when assigning grades. This includes the pressure to change grades (Tierney, 2015). Understanding such a context is essential.

Teachers' roles, moreover, as perceived by teachers and the local educational community, may also determine teachers' grading processes. A study conducted by Sun and Cheng (2013) of secondary EFL teachers in China showed that "the teacher's role in educating students as an all-rounded person is more emphasized, especially at the K-12 school level" (p.340). They further stated that teachers are not only required to nurture the "intellectual aspect" but also students' "emotional necessitates". Thus the teachers' multi-roles as an educator, mentor and, counselor are embedded in teachers' grading practices where teachers consider non-achievement factors to hold themselves accountable for the roles they perceived.

However, studies indicate that although stakeholders hold different beliefs about grading that in fact these beliefs are not necessarily shared nor negotiated, parents and students view grades differently to teachers or administrators. Also, teachers do not share their grading practices with fellow teachers (Kain, 1996). Given this, Friedman and Frisbie (2000) advocate that teachers and administrators need to have a common understanding of what constitute a grade as a grade should reflect actual students' achievement and progress which are very important for parents to know. It is therefore of vital importance that stakeholders in one specific context share the beliefs and practices they hold about grading.

Another factor that is commonly proposed for improved grading practices is training on assessment and grading. Researchers have documented that one of the reasons causing invalid and unreliable grading is a lack of teacher training in essential grading practices (Brookhart et al., 2016; Brookhart, 1994; Stiggins, 1998). It is argued that training will help teachers to develop clear criteria and observe as well as interpret achievement and non-achievement factors accurately (Brookhart et al., 2016; McMillan, 2003). However, the content of the training should not solely focus on grading but also focus on how assessment and instruction including feedback are conducted in a way that will help students to improve their learning. Moreover, it is also important that school administrators are involved in such training.

Training is a great opportunity for both administrators and teachers to come together and thus have shared perceptions of grading practices for the school. In this way administrators can also support teachers in their practices. The need for such training also has implications for pre-service teachers Training Institution. The system within Teacher Training Institution should include and discuss a particular topic on language assessment and grading to consider the many complex issues research in this field has shown.

The next factors worthy of attention is the need to develop and communicate clear purposes and grading criteria. Studies reveal that many teachers do not have a set of clear criteria as the basis for assigning grades. Clear criteria will hold teachers accountable in grading. Regarding non-achievement factors, Brookhart (1993) acknowledges that there is the need for teachers to accommodate non-achievement factors in grading such as effort and achievement as a consequence of roles and responsibilities that are attached to teachers. Responding to this issue, some experts posit a solution for teachers to assess and grade achievement as well as non-achievement factors separately. This is true in the case of Indonesia.

The Indonesian 2013 Curriculum promotes character building and thus has three aspects of graduate competency standard, i.e., attitude, skills, and knowledge. In this framework, EFL teachers have to assess and grade students' language performance as well as students' attitude. Although the two factors are reported separately on the report card, this practice is not unproblematic. One still can question what counts as achievement and non-achievement factors? For example, does teachers' assessment of language performance purely reflects the performance factor only. Research evidence shows that teachers who actually state that they only consider the achievement factor were also found to occasionally include factors such as effort and attitude when grading (Hay & Macdonald, 2008).

Given this fact, the challenge then remains as to how to measure non-achievement factors validly and reliably. Brookhart (1994) argues that it should be made clear what constitutes effort, attitude, and achievement when grading. Nonetheless, Brown (2004) contends that teachers need to acknowledge the subjectivity of non-achievement factors by converting such factors into clear and assessable outcomes. The criteria then should be specified in a rubric. Czekanski and Wolf (2013) emphasizes the needs for an explicit rubric as it provides structured criteria and detailed expectations used for assessing and scoring students' overall achievement. Moreover, teachers should be encouraged to involve students in developing scoring criteria.

Many works of literature support the idea that students should have a voice in designing and establishing the criteria so that students will have a better comprehension of teachers' expectations and how to meet them as well as having control over their learning (Czekanski & Wolf, 2013). However, research shows that this rarely occurs. Interestingly, in an interview of 79 ESL/EFL University teachers in Canada, Hong Kong, and China, Cheng and Wang, (2007) found that although most teachers in the three contexts developed their rubrics for grading, they did not involve their students in creating the scoring criteria. Moreover, the institution grading policy should carefully consider the weight of non-achievement factors in the overall scoring criteria listed in the rubric. Brown (2004) proposes that non-achievement factors should receive a small amount of weight so that a grade mostly represents students' achievement. The criteria

and the weight that are presented in a rubric then need to be communicated to students early in the learning period so that students know what they will be assessed and graded on.

Meaningful and regular feedback has been seen as an influential factor in improving students' learning and achievement as well as grading practice. Grading and feedback are perhaps two of the prevailing approaches in which teachers communicate students' learning progress and achievement to students and other relevant stakeholders (Guskey, 1987). Research has found that feedback has impacts on students' motivation and learning (e.g., Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In the case of grading, students perceive grades as their responsibility if they are given regular feedback (Cheng & Wang, 2007). Moreover, frequent feedback helps students to change their attitudes and strategy before the final grade is assigned (Brown, 2004).

Nevertheless, studies show that there are factors that influence teachers in providing comprehensive feedback. One of them is class size. This applies in particular in the Chinese context as Cheng and Wang (2007) found in their study that most teachers had large classes and thus found that giving an individualized feedback was a real challenge. It is perhaps also true in Indonesian context where EFL teachers in one school have several classes to teach, and each class has a large number of students. In this case, teachers should explore and judge the best possible way of giving feedback in a manner that is in the students' best interest. Feedback, after all, is crucial to help students to make meaning and also hold students accountable for their learning and maybe of more importance than the actual grading itself in terms of student's motivation and learning (Wormeli, 2006).

Last but not least is the importance of using multiple assessment strategies before teachers assign the final grades. For example, in language assessment, "performance does not indicate actual competence..." (Brown, 2004, p. 117). Therefore, Brown further argues that to measure the actual competence, teachers should not use one single assessment strategy. The use of multiple assessment strategies such as standardized tests, teacher-made tests, portfolios, and journals provide a documentation of students performances that better reflect competence and hence provide a more reliable and valid grade.

In summary, grading practice is context-specific. Moreover, grading has to be seen as an integral part of instruction and assessment process. Therefore, the above factors need to be considered in light of the local context. The challenge for researchers now is to document more practices in a variety of contexts that focus not only on grades but also on how grades relate to assessment, instruction, and socio-cultural aspects that are specific to the teachers' teaching context (Brookhart et al., 2016). Studies of this nature are needed especially in Indonesia as studies on grading practices are currently scarce. The findings of future studies hopefully will provide us with a better understanding of the complexity of grading practices to develop better classroom practice.

CONCLUSIONS

Grading is unarguably a complex issue that must take into account the values and beliefs held by all stakeholders. Teachers define the meaning and purposes of grading differently, and this in itself leads to different practices that consider both achievement and non-achievement factors and thus do not necessarily comply with what experts have recommended. However, there is clearly a need for teachers to assign grades both in terms of ongoing reporting procedures and as part of classroom management tools. Therefore, there should be an effort to

help teachers clarify grading criteria that is grounded in courses provided in teacher training institutions. Factors such as the impact of the specific local institution and pressures from this system to moderate grades and the complexity of teachers' multiple roles must all be considered. A joint commitment to an improved grading practice via strategies such as the development of strong grading criteria to include multiple grading processes, a consideration of variables such as class size, grade level difference, and ongoing discussion about the means in which non-achievement factors can be adequately assessed will offer a sound opportunity to make a difference and is in the best interest of all students.

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Facilitating an Implementation of Online Portfolios in an EFL Writing Class

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This article presents part of a study on the implementation of online portfolios in an EFL writing class and is focused on the facilitation of online portfolio implementation. Students' experiences in learning EFL writing using the online portfolios and my experiences in facilitating the online portfolio implementation were explored through action research. As for methods for generating data, this study involved students' interviews, my reflective journals, and an analysis of students' online portfolio entries. The study reveals that throughout the action research, problems emerged dealing with the use of a blog as the online portfolio platform, online feedback activities and students' reflection. Some changes in the instructional plan were made throughout the three action research cycles in this study which include; guidance for peer feedback and reflection, organization of students' online portfolios and procedure of peer commenting. The study suggests that the success of the online portfolio implementation in facilitating students' learning of EFL writing requires teachers' understandings of their own roles as well as their willingness to undertake and develop their roles as facilitators in an e-learning environment.

Keywords: online portfolio, blog, feedback, reflection.

Artikel ini menyajikan bagian dari sebuah penelitian tentang penerapan portfolio online dalam sebuah kelas academic writing yang difokuskan pada fasilitasi penerapan portofolio online. Pengalaman mahasiswa dalam belajar menulis bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing menggunakan portofolio online dan pengalaman saya dalam memfasilitasi penerapan portofolio online dieksplorasi melalui penelitian tindakan kelas. Metode pengumpulan data dalam penelitian ini meliputi wawancara, jurnal reflektif, dan analisa entri portofolio online. Penelitian ini mengungkap bahwa selama proses penelitian tindakan kelas, beberapa masalah muncul berkaitan dengan penggunaan blog sebagai platform portofolio online, aktifitas umpan balik secara online dan penulisan refleksi mahasiswa. Beberapa perubahan dalam rencana pembelajaran dilakukan dalam tiga siklus penelitian tindakan kelas ini yang meliputi; bimbingan dalam menulis umpan balik dan refleksi, pengorganisasian portofolio online di blog dan prosedur aktivitas umpan balik secara online. Studi ini menunjukkan bahwa keberhasilan pelaksanaan portofolio online dalam memfasilitasi siswa belajar menulis

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bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing membutuhkan pemahaman pengajar akan peran mereka sebagai fasilitator serta kesediaan mereka untuk melakukan dan mengembangkan peran tersebut dalam pembelajaran menggunakan e-learning.

INTRODUCTION

The use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in language learning has become one of the prominent challenges in language teaching. Specifically in the Indonesian context in the globalization era, with the rapid development of science and technology, it may, with its potential, engage students in language learning (Kariman 2005). The availability of the internet which can serve as a source of various materials, and a medium for publication as well as for intercultural communication makes its value in language teaching undeniable.

The potential benefits of ICT to support teaching and learning processes have encouraged me to utilize the ICT tools to facilitate students to learn English writing skills. Although writing is an important skill to which all EFL programs at Indonesian universities give a high priority, based on my experience, many students still face serious difficulties in achieving good competence in this skill. My observations and experiences as an EFL learner and teacher in Indonesia suggest some possible reasons why it is difficult for many Indonesian students to achieve a good competence of EFL writing. Among the possible reasons I highlight is students' lack of enthusiasm to learn and practice the EFL writing skills. Learning tools that enable students to develop enthusiasm and continuously improve their writing competence need to be developed and implemented.

According to Richards and Renandya (2002), writing has been viewed as the most difficult skill for second and foreign language learners to master. The skills involved in writing are highly complex as foreign language writers have to be concerned with higher level skills of planning and organizing as well as lower level skills such as spelling, punctuation and word choice (Richards & Renandya, 2002). The complexity of skills required in foreign language writing requires writing teachers to explore and examine teaching approaches and innovative tools with the potential to support EFL writing. Badger and White (2000) suggest an approach that takes into account the product, process and genre of writing which they refer to as process-genre approach. In this approach, the writing class essentially recognises that writing involves students' knowledge about language, knowledge about the context of the writing particularly the purpose for the writing, and the development of students' skills in using the language in their writing occur by "drawing out the their potential and by providing input to which the learners respond" (Badger & White, 2000, p.158).

Reading literature on the approaches in teaching writing and the tools to assist writing development as well as having a reflection on my English teaching and learning experiences using technology tools, I came up with an idea to introduce and facilitate the use of online portfolios in an EFL writing class by drawing on process-genre approach. An online portfolio is part of online space where learners purposefully select and store diverse evidence of what they have learned at particular times and which they have reflected on and designed for a particular audience (Barrett 2005; Hartnell-Young, Harrison, Crook, Pemberton, Joyes, Fisher & Davies, 2007; Joyes, Gray & Hartnell-Young, 2010). The use of the online platform enables students to publish their work and develop learning activities such as giving constructive

comments and input to their peers' work.   Online portfolios can be created and developed in various online platforms such as a blog, which is a personal web page that is easy to use and gives the users the opportunity to present information and interact with other users (Sim & Hew, 2010). The online portfolio can link students to other learners for collaboration and feedback. Specifically in a writing context which is the focus of this study, Freedman (1987) suggests a comprehensive definition of feedback. She states that:

> feedback on students' writing includes all reactions to writing, formal or informal, written or oral, from teacher or peer, to a draft or a final version. It can also occur in reaction to talking about intended pieces of writing, the talk being considered a writing act. It can be explicit or less explicit (p.5).

The above definition is suitable within the current study as the online feedback activities incorporated in the online portfolio implementation became a process of communication through which learners involved in dialogues about their writing performance and writing criteria. In this context, the feedback is intended to provide input for students to develop their writing performance. In this regard, the purpose of feedback is relevant to the concept of assessment for learning. Assessment for learning is intended to provide information on students' performance which is useful to support students' learning and to improve teaching (Black & William, 1998; Parr & Timperley, 2010).

There is a well-established body of literature focusing on the use of technology to facilitate students' learning EFL writing. However, relatively limited research has been conducted which focuses on the exploration of students' experiences in using an online portfolio to develop their writing skills and teacher's experiences in facilitating the online portfolio implementation, particularly in the Indonesian context. Considering the tools which it has such as posting, documenting and commenting tools, I assume that the online portfolio has great potential to facilitate students' writing development. Any effort to examine the potential of an online portfolios in the EFL writing class would, I believe, be worthwhile. Moreover, I believe that implementing such technology tools in the Indonesian context can have unique challenges which would be explored through this study.

In order to ensure that technology skills do not become factors hindering students from the potential advantage of technology to support students' learning, teacher's facilitation of students' technology skills throughout the technology implementation is very crucial. As the e-learning concept implemented in this study involved an online environment in addition to the face-to-face teaching, "it is important to develop an insight into the complex online teaching processes and strategies to build the necessary skills and competencies to teach online" (Harasim, Hiltz, & Teles, 1997; Stephenson, 2001, as cited in De Laat et al., 2007, p. 260). Goodyear, Salmon, Spector, Steeples and Tickner (2001, p.68) suggest that a wide range of competencies and skills is needed by the online teachers to enable them to play their main roles: the *Process Facilitator* (facilitating the range of online activities that are supportive of student learning (contrast with content facilitator), the *Adviser-Counselor* (working with learners on an individual or private basis and offering advice or counselling to help them get the most out of their engagement in a course), the *Assessor* (providing grades, feedback, and validation of learners' work), the *Researcher* (engaging in production of new knowledge of relevance to the content areas being taught), the *Content Facilitator* (facilitating the learners' growing

understanding of course content), the *Technologist* (making or helping make technological choices that improve the environment available to learners), the *Designer* (designing worthwhile online learning tasks), and the *Manager-Administrator* (dealing with issues of learner registration, security, record keeping, and so on).

However, not all of the above roles have equal importance in any particular circumstance of online teaching; some might be highly important while some others might not even be used in certain situations (Goodyear et al., 2001). In the learning which incorporates online environment, González et al. (2011) assert a transformation in the teacher role: "from a teacher who teaches directly, he becomes an instructional designer; from being a person who teaches, he becomes a learning facilitator; from being an advisor, he becomes a motivator" (p.155). The transformation of the teacher roles is characterised by the teacher's ability "to adopt a learning model that meets the specific needs of the student and of the institution that welcomes them" (González et al., 2011, p.155).

With regards to my intention to facilitate students to learn English academic writing skills using online portfolios, this study is intended to address the following questions: (1) How do I experience facilitating the online portfolio implementation in an EFL writing class? (2) What problems emerge during the online portfolio implementation?

METHODS

In an attempt to respond to the research questions, this study drew on action research (AR) approach. McKernan (as cited in Anderson, 2005) defines AR as "a form of self-reflective problem solving, which enables practitioners to better understand and solve pressing problems in social settings" (p. 4). Referring to this definition, AR enables me to investigate and evaluate my work, and create new theories about my practice (McNiff & Whitehead, 2005). As a practitioner, I am committed to continuously improve my own knowledge and at the same time offer explanations for how and why I am doing what I do (McNiff & Whitehead, 2005). AR in a classroom environment involves contributions from the teacher and students and a negotiation between them to formulate their ideal roles for the sake of improvement in the teaching and learning practices (McNiff, 1988).

Many models of AR exist; however, an AR inquiry generally focuses on an educational setting which is defined by the practitioners themselves, and the inquiry topic is centred on a *looping* process or cycle (McNiff, 1988; Wallace, 1998). Lewin (as cited in McNiff & Whitehead, 1996) developed "a theory of AR as a spiral of steps involving planning, fact-finding (or reconnaissance) and execution, and which later came generally to be understood as an action–reflection cycle of planning, acting, observing and reflecting" (p. 40) that can be seen in the following figure:

Figure 1: Action-reflection cycle
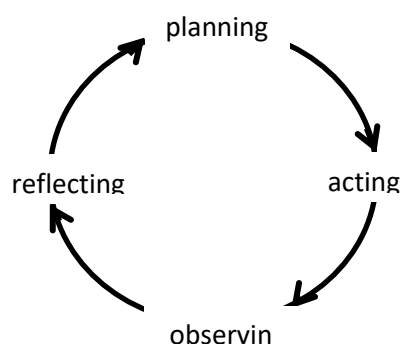
Following this cycle, there would be the next cycle of re-planning, acting, observing and reflecting, and possibly produce a new cycle, as can be seen in the figure 2 below:

Figure 2: Sequences of action-reflection cycles
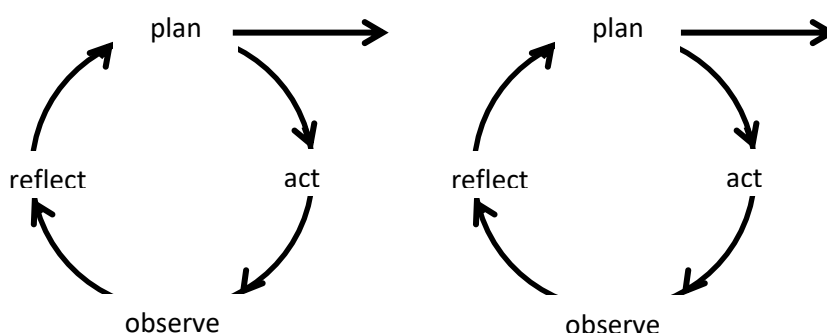
According to Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), *Planning* refers to formulating the question to be answered and the strategy to answer it. *Acting* is examining the strategy. *Observing* involves recording the results of the strategy implementation, thoughts and reactions towards the experiences. Based on the records of the entire experiences, the step is then continued with *reflecting* to conclude the experiences and become the basis to revise the original plan for the new cycle.

The implementation of online portfolios through AR was attempted to facilitate the process of students' writing. Prior to the online portfolio implementation, students were required to create their blog using the WordPress blog site as the platform of their online portfolios. Students were given instructions and guidance in creating the blog and using the blog features to create their online portfolios on their individual blog. By having an individual online portfolio in their blogs, the students were able to maintain ownership of their blog-based online portfolios. The students were required to complete all writing tasks and post them as their online portfolio entries. The number of entries every student had to post throughout the online portfolio implementation was 12. It consisted of three writing assignments with four entries in each assignment: original draft of students' writing, draft after self-editing, final draft, and reflection. With regards to the process of writing during the online portfolio implementation, the study drew on the process-genre approach theories of writing. Throughout the online portfolio implementation, different genres of writing were discussed and models of the writing with different genres were provided. Students then got involved in the process of writing using online portfolio tools. The process of writing involved writing the original draft, self-revising, peer feedback activities and writing the final draft. Some guiding questions of self-revision and peer feedback were given, highlighting specific important aspects in academic

writing such as " a strong thesis statement, clear topic sentences, specific supporting details, coherence, and effective conclusion, and so on" (Oshima and Hogue, 2006, p. 313).

As students finished their second draft (draft after self-revising), they posted the draft on their blog and engaged in the online feedback activities. Students were asked to voluntarily make comments on their peers' writing drafts. They were given the freedom to choose whose work to comment on, and they were allowed to write more than one comment. By asking the students to write comments voluntarily, it was expected that they would not feel it as a burden. In addition, every student received the teacher's feedback on the writing draft they posted. The feedback from both peer and teacher was intended to be a form of assessment for learning.

The next writing process after receiving the teacher and peers' feedback was to revise their second draft based on the feedback they received, and to post it as the final draft on their online portfolios. However, students were informed that they did not have to agree with every feedback they received. As emphasized earlier, the use of blog-based online portfolio was very supportive to the feedback activities. The availability of online commenting tools was expected to encourage the students to engage in the activities.

As the last activity in each online portfolio assignment, students reflectively wrote about the final draft they posted. Students reflected on the final draft of their writing with regard to the overall learning process they experienced that led them in producing their final draft. Every student wrote three reflective writings on their three final writing drafts, and guidance for students to reflect on their writing draft was given prior to the first reflective writing task. This study was carried out in an English education department at a graduate school in Jakarta, and five participants from the class took part in the in-depth interviews.

In order to generate data, this study applied qualitative research methods including semi-structured interviews, teacher's reflective journal and students' online portfolio entries (writing tasks, comments and reflection). Throughout the three cycles of aAR, students' perceptions about the online portfolio implementation were gathered through interviews. There was an interview after each cycle. The data were analysed using thematic analysis methods and then discussed with regard to the literature in order to respond to the research questions. Pseudonyms for the participants are used in this study, and the participants were informed that the data were analysed and reported anonymously.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results of data analysis are discussed. As mentioned, the AR in this study involved three cycles with one writing assignment in each cycle. Interviews with five participants were conducted after each cycle in order to gain students' perceptions on the online portfolio activities they had done. Moreover, I observed and evaluated every phase of the online portfolio implementation in the academic writing class to identify any emerging problems and find their solution.

Preparing the instructional materials was one of the important steps prior to the first cycle. I started the instructional materials preparation by exploring references on teaching academic writing including teaching materials and approaches, as sufficient knowledge was required to underlie my teaching academic writing practice, particularly when it incorporated the use of technology tools. The knowledge became increasingly important particularly because implementing technology tools also has potential constraints that the teacher must be

prepared for. Another important step I needed to take was to make sure that every student could get access to the internet service provided by the university, and therefore I ensured that the university computer lab had a sufficient number of computers and internet access.

The first cycle of my AR which was covered within the first five meetings was intended to inform the students of my AR agenda, to explain the course syllabus, to teach sentence structure, and to introduce the concept of online portfolio with all learning activities included (self-revising, feedback activities and reflection). Students were introduced to the concept of blog before they started to use it for the platform of their online portfolio. On the third week of the academic writing class, before they were asked to post their first online portfolio entry which was the first writing assignment, students were trained to create and operate their own blog. With different levels of technology skills among students, the time needed by each student to accomplish the task to create their blog varied; some students with experiences in working with the technology could finish the task more quickly than those without any experiences.

Students identified their unfamiliarity with a blog as one of the problems in working with the blog as the online portfolio platform in the first cycle. Some students faced difficulties in creating and managing the blog even though guidance was given. The problem in using the blog caused a slightly slower pace than expected for some students in the online portfolio activities. Some students stated that the features of the blog and how to operate them were not familiar to them. As a result, it took them some time to learn how to create the menu, how to create categories and how to manage them (interview#1 Arin). The following extracts of students' interviews also show that a few students faced difficulties in creating and operating the blog.

> *I have some technical problems ...how to upload, how to put this into the file, how to make menu. I think that is the difficulty I found during the time (interview#1 Arin).*

> *However, there was a problem when I was about to post the writing because my writing was not posted successfully (interview#1 Wawan).*

In relation to the students' unfamiliarity with the technology tools, some arguments and reports regarding the utilization of computers to assist language learning (CALL) have shown that besides the advantages that it offers, there are also some potential constraints that a teacher must be prepared for (Jones, 2001). Among those constraints is the learners' potential lack of technical competence. Moreover, Jones (2001) states "most initial CALL classes are likely to have a mixture of technical abilities, perhaps the whole range from complete or near-novices to expert users."

Working together in the online portfolio activities in the computer room, some students became aware of problems their friends faced dealing with the blogging activities. They noticed that some of their friends faced difficulties in the process of creating their blog and online portfolio. This was clear to them as those with problems did not hesitate to share the problems they faced with each other during the blogging activities. Moreover, there were some students who were more competent in working with information technology compared to other students

and they seemed to be willing to help other friends. With such a situation, the class developed activities of peer teaching or what was also labelled by Kalkowski (2001) as peer tutoring in its manifestation.

During the first cycle, internet connection was identified by students as another problem hindering the use of the blog in the writing class. Some students highlighted the same problems as demonstrated in the following extracts of students' interview.

> *Yes, sometimes there is an error in the blog. For example, when I tried to post yesterday, I did not know why there is a notification from WordPress, may be the connection was bad or may be another problem, but it is still like that now (interview #1 Tia).*

Problems in the online feedback activities dealing with difficulties in writing comments and the commenting procedures emerged during the first cycle. Before writing a comment on their peers' writing for the first assignment, students were given guidance on writing feedback, which was drawn from the writing guidelines suggested in the academic writing handbook. Instead of grading a peer's writing draft, the feedback was given in a written comment form. Even though peer feedback guidance was given, some students were not confident in writing feedback for their peers as they were not experienced in writing comments on others' writing. For instance, a student in her interview stated:

> *To be honest this is my first time to give comments on others' works…Sometimes I found difficulties. For example, when it deals with my confidence. When we read our friend's writing draft, then we feel that we are not so sure whether our comment is right or wrong (interview#1 Tia).*

The student's statement above also showed that not feeling confident to write comments was partly because they felt that they lacked knowledge about the aspects of writing they wanted to comment on. This issue was also demonstrated in the following students' statements.

> *… May be some of the difficulties is when I do not understand what they are writing about, and may be because of my grammar, sometimes I forgot, is this correct?...(interview#1 Arin).*

The issue of improving students' ability to write comments became part of my concern. In addition to the peer commenting guidance, involving teacher's comments in the online portfolio activities has been beneficial in helping students understand how to write comments. In this regard, the role of the computer for supporting the learning activities was not intended to replace the teacher's roles. Instead, it must be viewed as a medium to interact, generate questions to be asked, and work collaboratively with peers and teachers (Kern, 1996). For this reason, it was necessary for the teacher to participate in students' communication and learning. As well as providing guidance and assistance in students' development of technical skills, a teacher can take part in providing teacher's feedback in a writing class utilizing an online portfolio. In the blended learning environment, I had to understand my vital roles as a facilitator

"to provide feedback on the quality of the online discussion in the face-to-face class and activities which prepared and skilled students for their online activities" (Stacey & Gerbic, 2008, p.967).

As for the procedures of peer feedback activities, the decision in the first cycle to ask students to voluntarily write feedback did not run as well. It was expected that every student would write at least one comment for a peer and that they would have at least one peer comment posted on their own blog. In practice, the procedure did not run as expected. Instead of having at least one comment from a peer, some students received a number of comments while others did not receive any comments at all. Students also highlighted these problems of the commenting procedures, as can be seen in the following extract of a student's interview:

> *But the negative side is that some students might not get any comments, and it is impossible for every student to check all their friends' blogs to know whether they have got comments or not because we do not have that much time to work on the online portfolio. So we cannot make sure that every student get the same number of comments from their friends (interview#1 Arin).*

Another emerging problem is related to the reflection as the last entry of each online portfolio assignment, which also became a concern for me to act on. At the beginning, students perceived reflective writing as a difficult task as it was a new experience for them. Some students were still not sure about what they should write and the language style they needed to use in writing reflection. The majority of students' first reflections were dominated by a summary of the subject matters they learned and the activities they did rather than their reflection.

In the interview, one student stated that writing the reflection was a bit difficult to do. Because he did not have many personal ideas or had forgotten what he had done or learned during the learning activities, writing reflection became a difficult task. At the beginning, he was a bit shocked with the task of writing reflection on his final draft. He should have remembered more of what he had learned to make writing reflection easier for him. Moreover, he still had difficulty in terms of the writing style that he should use in writing his reflection (interview#1 Wawan). Another student shared a similar experience. She said that writing reflection was very confusing. She did not know exactly what kind of reflection she had to write, so she wrote the reflection without any clear understanding of what and how to write it (interview#1 Vina).

In the second cycle, I made sure that there was sufficient support from me as the facilitator and from more competent peer through peer teaching when dealing with students' difficulties in operating and managing students' online portfolios. Moreover, the ICT staff was ready to help whenever there was a technical problem in the internet connection.

Some changes were made on the peer feedback activities in this cycle. Students were assigned to comment on at least two of their peers' works. They would see the list of students' names on my blog as the link to their friends' blogs. They would take one name above and one name under their names to comment on. This way, every student would get at least two comments. However, students were allowed to write more than two comments. Some problems

related to the content of peer feedback still emerged on the second cycle, as demonstrated in the following statements:

> *But I think the part that needs to be improved is giving comments because some friends just gave comments "yes or no"; they did not base the comments on the guidance book (interview#2 Vina).*

The problems dealing with reflection during the first cycle discussed earlier partly relate to the degree of depth of reflection, and this problem became my concern in the second cycle. The issue regarding the depth of reflection while implementing it as a new practice was not surprising. The phenomenon of the use of reflective activities with students, concerning the depth of reflection was previously observed by Moon (2001). She revealed that reflection could be "superficial and little more than descriptive or can be deep and transformative (and involved in the transformative stage of learning)" (p.10). In a previous study, Hatton and Smith (as cited by Moon, 2001) also mentioned that it could be "difficult to get many students to reflect at greater depth" (p. 10). Regardless of the difficulties and challenges of implementing reflection, deep reflection is necessary when it is intended to support learning which is to result in behaviour change (Moon, 2001).

In order for students to be able to have deep reflection, support from a teacher/facilitator was required. As the content of reflection could be very personal, an environment with a relationship of trust was created to make students feel comfortable to share any feelings related to the learning they experienced. Moon (2001) suggested that reflective writing is a skill that can be developed through training and guidance. My role as a facilitator was to make sure that sufficient support was in place whenever students faced any difficulties in writing deep reflection. Since students were inexperienced in working with reflection and time allocated for training them to write reflectively was very limited, I kept reminding them that in writing a reflection, the reflective aspects were more essential than the summary of the subject matters they learned, or the description of the activities they experienced. Since every student might encounter different problematical aspects in writing a reflection, I encouraged them to ask for the teacher's support and more personal guidance if required. After practicing, experiencing and discussing any unclear aspects of reflection, students felt more comfortable when writing their reflection in the subsequent writing task (interview#2 Tia).

The third cycle of the online portfolio implementation was done during the last two meetings. Students did not face any technical problems while working on the third online portfolio assignment, and I noted that they could work on their online portfolios smoothly. Most of the technical problems dealing with students' unfamiliarity with the blog occurred only in the early stages of the blogging activities, as can be seen in the following statement:

> *The thing that didn't run well was the first time when I got confused how to make menu and how to make the parent or things that I think most of it is...that part of because it was my first time using the blog, that later on after how many times I use it I know very well how to use a blog (interview#3 Arin).*

As discussed earlier, even though I have tackled some emerging problems in the previous cycles, a problem of writing comments was still present in the second cycle, and I needed to be concerned with this problem in the third cycle. Some of the students' comments in the second online portfolio assignment still did not highlight specific writing aspects that were helpful for their peers to improve their writing drafts (interview #2 Tia). In the third cycle, I reviewed and emphasized the criteria used in the writing rubric. I gave students opportunities to ask about any writing aspect included in the writing rubric which was still unclear to them. As I noted in my reflective journal, students looked more confident in writing comments on their peers' work. I could see students' cooperation in working on their online portfolios. They could work as a team, not only with the peers to whom they wrote their comments, but also to other peers. Students, particularly those who were very interested in the online portfolio and willing to support their friends, could create the cooperative atmosphere which was very helpful for those who were less motivated.

As I implemented the online portfolio through an action research project, which took into account my professional development, problems and their solutions naturally became part of the process. What I needed to do was to give students the opportunities to experience the excitement of working with online portfolios and the benefits of using the tools in their learning. Students had to understand that any emerging problems throughout the learning process would be discussed and solved together and were part of the learning process that enabled students and me as a facilitator to make use of the ICT facilities and to improve both their technology and writing skills.

CONCLUSIONS

Having discussed the results of data analysis related to my experiences in facilitating online portfolio implementation and the emerging problems, I thought the tasks involved in the online portfolio implementation comprising blogging, self-revising, peers and teacher's feedback (commenting) activities, and reflection generally worked well. However, there were some minor obstacles caused by intermittent problems with internet connection, students' technology skills, online feedback activity procedures, and students' unfamiliarity with the concept of reflection.

As part of my AR agenda, I observed the abovementioned problems, researched relevant references, made changes, observed and reflected on the consequences of my decision, reflected on the results of my decisions, and then made other changes accordingly following my action research cycles. The online portfolio had become a meaningful tool for students to support their learning, particularly to improve their EFL writing performance in their academic writing class. Moreover, the study suggests that the success of the online portfolio implementation to facilitate students in learning EFL writing is determined by teachers' understandings of their own roles as well as their willingness to undertake and develop their roles as facilitators in an e-learning environment. The institution intending to support the incorporation of ICT in the teaching and learning facilities should provide training for teachers who are willing to utilize ICT in their learning. As revealed in this study, the teacher's skills in facilitating students' learning can be developed through AR. When more than one teacher

intends to implement ICT in their teaching in the same term, AR can be conducted collaboratively.

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The Use of Song Worksheet to Enhance EFL Elementary School Students' Vocabulary Mastery

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This study aimed to enhance students' vocabulary mastery through the use of song worksheet. Twenty-two fourth graders of an elementary school in Indonesia were selected as participants. Action research was adopted in this study consisting of three cycles. To find out students' achievement, vocabulary test was given. To investigate students' responses, observation and interview were implemented. Findings showed that song worksheet could enhance students' vocabulary mastery. They also gave positive responses to the use of song worksheet. However, students complained that the songs were too fast. This study supports the use of songs in the EFL context which could make teaching-learning processes more fun.

Keywords: vocabulary mastery, song worksheet, action research

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk meningkatkan perbendaharaan kata (vocabulary) melalui penggunakan worksheet lagu. Dua puluh dua siswa kelas empat di sekolah dasar di Indonesia berpartisipasi dalam penelitian tindakan ini yang terdiri dari tiga siklus. Untuk mengetahui kemajuan siswa, tes penguasaan kata diberikan. Dan untuk mengetahui respon siswa, observasi dan wawancara dilakukan. Hasil penelitian ini menunjukan bahwa worksheet lagu dapat mendorong penguasaan perbendaharaan kata. Tetapi, siswa mengeluhkan tentang lagu yang terlalu cepat. Penelitian ini mendukung penggunaan lagu untuk pembelajaran bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing yang berpotensi membuat proses pembelajaran menjadi lebih menyenangkan.

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is a language component which should not be neglected, including in the teaching of English for elementary school students which can be considered as EYL (English for Young Learner). Regarding vocabulary, Rivers (as cited in Nunan, 1991) contends that "... adequate vocabulary is essential for successful second language use because. Without an extensive vocabulary, we will be unable to use the structures and functions we may have learned for

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comprehensible communication" (p. 117). Almost similarly, Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that it is "a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write" (p. 255). Teaching vocabulary to Indonesian elementary school students is not always easy. Based on my own experience as an English teacher at an elementary school, it shows that fourth graders of elementary school still found difficulty in learning vocabulary. However, they were very active, so they always asked me when dealing with unfamiliar words they did not understand.

Apart from the difficulty in teaching vocabulary, learning it is also difficult, especially when the vocabulary is not used, be it in speaking or writing. Harmer (2012) suggests repetition and states that "repetition has always played a part in language learning…" (p. 56). Besides this, exposing students to the use of vocabulary in context and in a fun way seems helpful. Using songs may be a good idea in this regard.

Considering the use of songs in classroom activities, Saricoban and Metin (2000) argue that "songs offer a change from routine classroom activities…They can also be used to teach a variety of language items such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation, rhythm, adjectives, and adverbs" (p. 1). In addition, songs can be an effective material for EYL. Şevik (2014) finds that "in fact, songs are regarded as among one of the most appropriate and effective materials for young EFL learners" (p. 51). It could be inferred that songs can stimulate young learners to study English attractively and possibly effectively as songs could be easily memorable. Another author such as Medina (as cited in Diakou, 2013) states that songs can enhance memorization since the information conveyed is accompanied with music. With regard to the teaching-learning process, Saricoban and Metin (2000) propose some techniques to deliver songs, among others, close texts, true-false statements, dictation, and antonyms/synonyms.

The delivering technique in using songs can be combined with worksheet. Worksheet can be defined as a printed material "to help students to gain knowledge, skills and values by providing helpful comments about the course objectives" (Kaymacki, 2012, p. 57). With its flexibility to be used in the educational setting, worksheet is possible to engage students and make them active in the learning processes. Teachers can use worksheets for many tasks in order to make students get benefits (Harmer, 2012). In addition, Lee (2014) says that worksheet can be used to support study and promote active learning. It could be inferred that worksheet is beneficial for not only making students become active in the study but also stimulating students' interest to study.

There have been some studies on the use of songs in EFL (English as a Foreign Language). Shaffer (2004), for example, conducted an experimental study to find out the effect of songs in learning. Songs were given to the experimental group, while the control group was not given songs at all. Results show that the group given songs was better than the group without songs. A classroom action research which was conducted by Arévalo (2010) to investigate the English performance of students after being exposed with some English songs also show that songs were effective enough to improve the performance of the first academic semester students at the university. A study by Tse (2015) in Malaysia that investigated the use of songs to young learners also show that songs provided lots of repetition, reduced students' anxiety when studying English, and made learning more interesting. However, the study suggests the appropriate songs for young learners.

The studies confirm that songs can be used in the EFL context with its various benefits. However, the use of songs combined with worksheet has not been popular. This study, therefore, is interested in integrating songs with worksheets. As regards, two research questions are posed in the study: (1) Can the use of song worksheet enhance the students' vocabulary mastery? (2) What are the students' responses concerning the use of song worksheet?

METHOD

This study adopted action research and took place at a public elementary school in Bogor. Twenty-two students sitting at the fourth grade participated in the study; their ages ranged from 9 to 11 years old. There were three cycles in this action research, with each cycle consisting of four stages: planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. Vocabulary test and interview were done to support the observing and reflecting stages, and observation was implemented to find out students' reaction during the study. The test given was in the form of multiple choice, and it was conducted at the beginning of the study and after each cycle to see the effectiveness of the activities given in each stage. The interview was also conducted to investigate students' responses regarding the use of songs and worksheet. There were 12 students selected for the interview. They were taken from three categories: top, middle, and low scorer. Each category was represented by 4 students.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Cycle One

In the planning stage, I planned to teach regarding the theme of 'numbers.' This theme was decided based on materials in the syllabus. Furthermore, I prepared a book of songs with its audio files created by Carolyn Graham, who is a teacher trainer, writer, and musician. The songs about numbers titled 'Books, Books,' 'Make a Circle,' 'The Student,' and 'The Purple Sneaker Song' were selected since they corresponded to the materials and syllabus in the elementary school. The worksheet, which contained numbers and assigned students to identify incorrect words based on the songs, was made ready for each student. The lesson plan for the first meeting was both studied and rechecked. Besides this, the observation to observe the ongoing process and test to see the students' progress were prepared.

In the acting stage, through the white board and projector, the teacher elicited the learning material in order to know whether some students already knew the material or not. It was important since there was a possibility that students already knew the material. In the lesson, students were encouraged to count some fruits in English. Before the song worksheet was distributed, songs were played without their lyric, so the students were given a chance to focus firstly on their listening skill. After the worksheet was received by students, they were led to indicate incorrect words based on the songs. Then to experience studying the word meaning, the students did additional activities in the worksheet, consisting of numbering pictures, circling answers, and matching numbers. Moreover, to relate the material with the reality and to strengthen the students' vocabulary mastery, the students were asked to count things in their classroom and house.

In the observation, both strengths and weaknesses during the action process were noted and identified. What students did both verbally and non-verbally also became the focus of the observation. Consequently, there were some problems found during the observation. First,

from the exploration of students' understanding regarding numbers as the theme of learning (random numbers were shown), it was found that there were six students who could not be able to count number 1 until 10 in order. Second, some students were reluctant to sing the song altogether, and some others were silent or could not sing clearly. Third, when the song worksheet was given and the task based on the song was instructed, some students still got confused on how to do the task due to their unfamiliarity. They kept asking their friends even after the instruction was explained. Fourth, when dealing with the fourth song in the first cycle, namely 'The Purple Sneaker Song,' the students told that song was too fast to be comprehended and completed in the song worksheet. Finally, the main instruction in the song worksheet, identifying incorrect words based on songs played, seemed too easy to enhance students' vocabulary mastery though the students were completely beginner.

In the reflecting stage, it was found that some songs made the students enjoy to study and to finish tasks given. It could be seen from the students who looked pleasant (for instance, smiling, nodding their head, and clapping hands while listening to the music), enthusiastic, and eager to answer the task. I therefore planned to prepare a song played with introductory music and more songs in order not only to increase the interest of students but also to give more time for the students to focus on the songs since in the beginning. Having dealt with the second song in this cycle, 'The Purple Sneaker Song,' it was realized that the song was too fast or even the fastest among the other songs in the cycle 1. Then I decided to carefully select the songs by paying attention to the lyric and tempo of songs before used.

The main instruction of song worksheet in this cycle, identifying incorrect words based on songs played, seemed too easy to enhance students' vocabulary mastery. I considered planning to use different task to expose students with the song, like more focusing on each letter in the song lyric; so, the task of identifying incorrect words was planned to be replaced with 'asking students to fill in the blanks' and 'indicating whether the statement was true or not' based on the songs played. To anticipate either too fast explanation or ambiguous instruction regarding the task given, I planned to always recheck whether the students already understood the instruction or not, particularly for activities which were still unfamiliar for the students. Based on the post-test in this cycle, there was not much progress for the students' average score; their average score increased from 61.68 to 62.18, while the minimum required standard was 70.

Cycle Two

In the planning stage, 'colors' as a new theme for study was prepared. The song worksheet for this cycle was modified due to reflections in the cycle 1. For instance, identifying the incorrect words was not used. It was replaced with filling-in-the-blank task, and students were directed to indicate whether the statements were true based on the song lyrics. Those tasks were given to make the students become more attentive or careful with vocabulary. The songs having the color theme used were 'What Color is This?' 'This is Blue, This is a Book,' 'The Yellow Chair,' and 'The Black Cat.' Finally, to anticipate fast explanation and/or ambiguous instruction, I rechecked students' understanding.

In the acting stage, students were shown a picture of rainbow and asked to say its colors in order to know students' basic understanding of the lesson. Afterward, I played the song containing numbers before the worksheet was distributed. While students worked with the

worksheet, they were encouraged to do the gap filling activities which was more challenging than identifying incorrect words in the previous cycle. However, stimulating students to tell meaning of words in the songs was still conducted in this cycle. Interestingly, the song titled 'This is blue, this is a book' was suitable to introduce colors to elementary school students because it was easy to study. I continued exploring the songs in this cycle by providing additional activities related to numbers in the daily life, for instance, counting sneakers and uniform.

There were at least two noticeable problems found during the observation: (a) the more challenging task, the more students asked for repetition. They needed more time to comprehend and write the words, and (b) some students did not stay connected to the lesson for a few times; instead they were joking and playing around with one another that had nothing to do with the lesson. Having seen 'puzzled' looks on some students' faces, there was still a possibility that they were just either confused or bored during their study.

Through reflection, it was revealed that some students needed three times for song repetition, while in the previous stage repetition was not necessary. First and second repetition might be needed to make the students accustomed to the song and its task, and third repetition was for comprehension. Due to the speed of the song which may be too fast for the students, I realized that I needed an additional supportive task for vocabulary activities or practices in the worksheet which was not related to the song, but to the theme of learning material or students' daily life.

I thought that some students' enthusiasm to show their answer of the song worksheet could be stimulated by providing competition. It was also expected to cheer up the class and give students a chance to learn each other. For the students who looked unwilling to stay connected to the lesson due to their confusion or boredom in the second meeting of this cycle, the graded and varied tasks were planned to be conducted in the next cycle. As a result, the main tasks in the cycles 1 and 2 were planned to be combined with another variation of tasks in the cycle 3.

After knowing that the problems in the second cycle were less than the first cycle, I assumed that the students could retain materials and had better progress. Based on quantitative data of the test result, it could be inferred that there was progress in this cycle. More than half of the students achieved the score above 70. A different strategy in using songs and worksheet was conducted in the next cycle.

Cycle Three
In this last cycle, 'foods' as a new theme for study was prepared; it was in accordance with the educational syllabus for elementary school. I decided to use songs about foods, for instance, 'Do You Want Chicken?' and 'What Do You Want for Dinner?' Referring to the reflecting stage conducted in the cycle 2 in which there was a need to cheer up the students and make them learn each other, students could compete to show their answer in front of the class. Varied tasks were also planned to be conducted. However, not all instructions of the tasks were new since I decided to reuse earlier tasks such as identifying incorrect words, indicating whether statements were true or not, and filling in the blanks based on the songs played. It was done to make students become familiar or confident to cope with the tasks, starting from the easiest to the hardest ones. The new task given was asking students to arrange wrong order of simple

sentences into the right sequence while the song was being played. In addition, to introduce the ingredients of foods and their tastes, I also prepared pictures of foods and musical videos of making foods such as meatballs and fried bananas. Those aforementioned tasks were designed to challenge students to be more comprehensive in learning vocabulary through the song worksheet.

In the acting process, I investigated whether the plan facilitated the students' vocabulary mastery. Having considered the low achievers who had 'confused looks' in the previous cycle, the lesson was conducted with the easiest to more complex tasks of the song worksheet, for instance, identifying incorrect words based on the song lyric, deciding whether statements in the song worksheet were right or not based on the song lyric, filling in the blanks, and arranging sentences into the correct sequence based on the song played. Next, to check the students' understanding regarding vocabulary in the first song, they were shown pictures of things related to the previous song, allowed to discuss with their peers, and encouraged to compete in finishing tasks in the song worksheet. As students could be bored when they were explained too much, all students were encouraged to put more effort into their vocabulary practices.

To introduce more knowledge about foods, I showed musical videos of making foods as has been mentioned above, and the students did additional activities in the song worksheet concerning food ingredients and their tastes. Then the students were encouraged to show their answer in front of the class. When nobody wanted to show the answer again, I checked and explained the answers. In this stage, the students were also given the opportunity to ask questions about the material.

There were two problems found during the observation. First, every task in the worksheet required me to explain the instruction or demonstrate how to do the task in detail, otherwise the students were confused. Second, only half of the students could correctly answer the new task, namely, arranging sentences into the correct sequence.

As the reflection in this cycle, teaching process of the third cycle, in general, was successful. Most students participated in the process. There were some students who always showed enjoyment or happy reaction, for example, smiling, nodding their head, and clapping their hands when the songs were played. I also did not rush to finish the lesson. However, to avoid the students' confusion, I consistently provided information dealing with the students' understanding of the task given, particularly for the new task in the song worksheet. Having seen only 36% (in the cycle 1) and 59% (in the cycle 2) of the students who achieved the minimum required score (70), the cycle 3 showed the successful result: 77% of the students achieved the minimum score.

After the three cycles were finished, I interviewed twelve students as has been mentioned in the method section. The findings show the following three points. First, the majority of students already had exposures to children songs in their life. Second, most of them stated that the songs given were too fast. Third, they felt excited when learning through the song worksheet. They said the activities were fun especially identifying incorrect words. The most interesting finding was that students belonging to the low achiever informed that the use of song worksheet was pleasing and guiding; they wanted to have it more.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has shown that the use of song worksheet can enhance elementary school students' vocabulary mastery, and the EFL students at elementary school respond positively to the use of song worksheet even though there are a few flaws such as the speed of songs. Some strategies regarding the activities based on worksheet can be interesting and make them excited. Therefore, EFL teachers need to consider classroom activities which are suitable to children since they may easily get bored. The choice of songs suitable to their language proficiency and age also needs to be taken into account. Finally, the use of song worksheet may also be successful for teenagers or adults learning EFL. The focus can be expanded to not only vocabulary but also pronunciation, for example. Further studies can investigate this aspect.

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The Effect of Instructional Methods and Cognitive Styles toward Speaking Skill

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This study investigated the effect of instructional methods and students' cognitive styles toward speaking skill. It was an experimental research using a two-factor ANOVA at 0.05 and 0.01 significance level. Because an interaction between the variables involved was found, the analysis was then continued by Tuckey Test. The data was collected using oral test rating scale and a cognitive style questionnaire. The findings showed the following points: (1) the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL (Cooperative Language Learning) was higher than the students taught by TBL (Task-Based Language Learning); (2) the speaking skill of FD (Field Dependent) students was higher than FI (Field Independent) students; (3) there was an interaction between instructional methods and cognitive style to speaking skill; (4) the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL was higher than the students taught by TBL in the group of FD students; (5) there was no significant difference of the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL in the group of FI students. The findings above led to a conclusion that generally CLL was more effective than TBL in teaching speaking skill. Moreover, besides instructional methods, cognitive style also gives a significant effect to students' speaking skill.

Keywords: speaking skill, CLL (Cooperative Language Learning), TBL (Task-Based Learning), FD (Field Dependence), FI (Field Independence)

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menemukan pengaruh metode pembelajaran dan gaya kognitif terhadap keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris mahasiswa semester I Program Studi Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar (PGSD). Metodologi yang digunakan adalah eksperimen dengan desain ANOVA dua jalur pada taraf signifikansi 0,05 dan 0,01. Data dikumpulkan dengan menggunakan dua instrumen yaitu keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris yang berupa rubrik penilaian dan gaya kognitif yang berupa angket. Temuan penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa (1) keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris mahasiswa yang belajar dengan metode CLL lebih tinggi dibandingkan keterampilan mahasiswa dengan metode TBL; (2) keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris mahasiswa yang memiliki kecenderungan gaya kognitif FD lebih tinggi dibandingkan keterampilan mahasiswa dengan kecenderungan gaya kognitif FI; (3) terdapat pengaruh interaksi antara metode pembelajaran dan gaya

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kognitif terhadap keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris; (4) keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris mahasiswa yang belajar dengan metode CLL lebih tinggi dibandingkan dengan yang belajar metode TBL pada kelompok mahasiswa yang memiliki kecenderungan gaya kognitif FD; (5) tidak terdapat perbedaan yang signifikan antara keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris mahasiswa yang belajar dengan metode TBL dan CLL pada kelompok mahasiswa yang memiliki kecenderungan gaya kognitif FI. Secara keseluruhan penerapan metode CLL lebih efektif dibandingkan metode TBL dalam pembelajaran keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris. Selain itu, gaya kognitif juga terbukti memberikan pengaruh yang signifikan terhadap keterampilan berbicara bahasa Inggris.

INTRODUCTION

Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar (PGSD) or Primary School Teacher Training Program, a bachelor program preparing its graduates to be a primary school teacher in Indonesia, obtain a two-semester English courses. The courses aim to produce students to have English speaking skills. This is because the ever-growing number of elementary schools adopting English as a medium of instruction in almost all subjects requires elementary school teachers to have a good command of English. There are still some problems, though. Based on the writer's preliminary investigation, the courses do not seem to achieve the expected result yet: many students cannot speak English well in spite of their previous courses at secondary education. Two causes of the problems may be the improper application of instructional methods and the teachers' unawareness of students' cognitive styles. Therefore, this study is interested in investigating the two aspects.

The instructional methods the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) literature offers are, among others, Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) and Task-Based Language Learning (TBL). CLL is a method of teaching that engages students to work together in groups and requires students to get involved in interaction and communication to help each other to achieve a goal. CLL highly depends on the process of information exchange that occurs in the group, and all members of the group are responsible for not only their personal success but also the group members' success. Two examples of CLL are Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD) and jigsaw. STAD, according to Slavin (1995), consists of five components: class presentations, teams, quizzes, individual improvement scores, and team recognitions. He goes on to say that STAD emphasizes group work in which all members help each other in order to achieve a goal. However, every student still has the responsibility to excel individually. On the other hand, Jigsaw involves active participation of all members. This technique could build students' responsibility for both personal and group learning success (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

With regard to TBL, it is an instructional method that uses tasks to achieve the learning objective. There are at least three main elements of TBL. First, it employs communicative approach (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), meaning that meaning is more important than sentence patterns. Second, it involves meaningful interaction that requires students to complete a certain task (Branden, 2006). Finally, the task must be relevant to students' real needs (Nunan, 2004). What is task in TBL? Willis (1996) argues that any activity that involves using language to communicate can be categorized as task. However, instead of emphasizing sentence patterns mastery, task focuses more on students' ability to convey meaning or message (Nunan, 2004). Willis (1996) offers a general model of how to implement TBL by dividing it into three stages: pre-task, task-cycle, and language focus. In the pre-task, the target language is exposed and presented in large numbers. Then students are given the opportunity to use whatever language they have to complete a certain task in

the task-cycle stage. In the final stage, they bring all aspects of language that comes naturally as they perform the task.

As mentioned, another problem of teaching English for PGSD students may be the teachers' unawareness of students' cognitive learning styles. Two cognitive styles are Field Dependence (FD) and Field Independence (FI). Some authors have proposed the characteristics of FD and FI (e.g. Brown, 2007; Saracho, 1997; Sternberg, 1997; Tinajero & Paramo, 1998; Woolfolk, 1993), and some authors have conducted a study on FD and FI (e.g. Guillot, Collet & Dittmar, 2004; Hansen, 1984; Liu & Chepyator-Thomson, 2009; Rahmani, 2016; Zhang, 2004). The characteristics of FD and FI have been synthesized, as can be seen in the table below:

Table 1: Differences between people/students with FD and FI

Field Dependence (FD) People/Students	Field Independence (FI) People/students
prefer general and abstract things	prefer detailed and concrete things
tend to take longer time than FI people to resolve problems	tend to take less time than FD people to resolve problems
show high interest in people; more attentive to people; able to impress a lot of people; very concerned about what other people do, say, or feel; enjoy being with people; very responsive to other people's emotional expression, either of facial expressions or utterances; use other people's emotional expression as their social framework	tend not to be affected by other people's companion, feelings, words, and emotional expressions; tend to be more independent, competitive, and confident
prefer and more successful in studies related to dimensions of human life; prefer and more successful in jobs that involve a lot of interaction with people, such as school teachers, traders, or rehabilitation counselors	prefer and more successful in areas that are impersonal and abstract (like mathematics and physics) and jobs that do not require too much interaction with other people (such as astronomers or engineers)
will be more responsive to teachers and undoubtedly use all the opportunities they have to ask questions, answer, give comments, etc.	tend to be more passive in the classroom and do not respond much to teachers.
tend to accept the learning material as it is from the teacher and have difficulties in rearranging unstructured learning materials	are better in rearranging unstructured learning materials from the teacher
would be greatly helped by learning which involves natural communication with other people	are more successful through classroom activities such as drilling, written exercises, tests, quizzes, and so on
would learn a second language easier when they have direct contact with the native speakers in a structured way	will usually be better in understanding and applying language rules, in identifying a wide range of grammar, and in doing written exercises such as cloze tests. In addition, the ability to focus on details will make them easier to recognize grammatical functions and identify specific language rule

are best motivated through: verbal praise, external reinforcement, being given opportunities to help teachers, and doing useful activities to others.		are best motivated through: scores, competition, choice of learning activities, especially activities that bring many advantages for them personally.	

Based on the abovementioned information, the writer poses five research questions: (1) Is there any difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL? (2) Is there any difference between the speaking skill of FD students and FI students? (3) Is there any interaction between instructional methods and cognitive style to speaking skill? (4) Is there any difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL in the group of FD students? (5) Is there any difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL in the group of FI students?

METHOD

This study adopted experimental research taking place at a private university in Jakarta, Indonesia. All participants were PGSD students. It aimed at investigating the effect of instructional methods and students' cognitive style towards speaking skill. CLL was applied in experimental group (n=40), while the control group (n=40) was given TBL. The treatments in both groups were conducted in 10 meetings each. The study used 2 x 2 factorial design, as can be seen below:

Table 2: Matrix of the research design

Independent Variables		Instructional methods (A)	
		CLL (A_1)	TBL (A_2)
Cognitive Style (B)	FD (B_1)	A_1B_1 Cell 1	A_2B_1 Cell 2
	FI (B_2)	A_1B_2 Cell 3	A_2B_2 Cell 4

The instruments used to collect the data in this study were oral test rating scale and cognitive style questionnaire. The data were analyzed using a two-factor ANOVA at 0.05 and 0.01 significance level. Since the interaction between the variables was found, the analysis was continued using the Tuckey Test.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The table below summarizes the data obtained with regard to the five research questions posed in this study: (1) the speaking score of the students taught by CLL; (2) the speaking score of the students taught by TBL; (3) the speaking score of FD students; (4) the speaking score of FI students; (5) the speaking score of FD students taught by CLL; (6) the speaking score of FD students taught by TBL; (7) the speaking score of FI students taught by CLL; and (8) the speaking score of FI students taught by TBL.

Table 3: The summary of the speaking scores

No.	Group of Data	Statistical Data				
		n	lowest score	highest score	mean	standard deviation
1	CLL (A_1)	22	15	30	23.86	3.17
2	TBL (A_2)	22	15	27	20.86	1.94
3	FD (B_1)	22	16	30	23.73	2.72
4	FI (B_2)	22	15	30	21	2.4
5	CLL - FD (A_1B_1)	11	20	30	26.18	2.71
6	TBL - FD (A_2B_1)	11	16	26	21.27	2.84
7	CLL - FI (A_1B_2)	11	15	30	21.55	4.38
8	TBL - FI (A_2B_2)	11	15	27	20.45	3.1

Before the data were calculated using 2-way ANOVA, the writer did Liliefors and Barlet tests to find out normality and homogeneity. The results showed that the data were normal and homogeneous. The analysis was continued with the hypothesis testing by using 2-way ANOVA. The table below displays the summary of ANOVA calculation.

Table 4: Summary of two-way ANOVA calculation

Variance	df	Total Square	Mean Square	$F_{computation}$	F_{table}	
					α = 0.05	α = 0.01
between column (A)	1	99.00	99.00	8.12**	2.84	4.31
between row (B)	1	81.82	81.82	6.71**	2.84	4.31
interaction (AB)	1	40.09	40.09	3.29*	2.84	4.31
internal	40	487.77	12.19			
Total	43					

Note:
Column (A)   : instructional methods (CLL and TBL)
Row (B)   : cognitive styles (FD and FI)
*   : significant
**   : very significant

Since an interaction between A (instructional methods) and B (cognitive styles) was found, the analysis was followed by Tuckey test to determine which groups were better. The table below displays the result of the calculation.

Table 5: Summary of Tuckey test

Group of Data	df	$Q_{computation}$	Q_{table}		Notes
			$\alpha = 0.05$	$\alpha = 0.01$	
$A_1 - A_2$	22	4.05**	2.95	4.02	very significant
$B_1 - B_2$	22	3.69*	2.95	4.02	significant
$A_1B_1 - A_2B_1$	11	4.68**	3.11	4.39	very significant
$A_1B_2 - A_2B_2$	11	1.04	3.11	4.39	not significant

The Effect of Instructional Methods (CLL and TBL) towards Speaking Skill
The first results of ANOVA and Tuckey calculation answered the first research question: Is there any difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL? As seen on Table 4 and 5 above, the results showed that $F_{computation}$ (A) = 8.12 > F_{table} and $Q_{computation\ (A1-A2)}$ = 4.05 > Q_{table}, both at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\alpha = 0.01$. This was an empirical evidence that speaking skill of the students taught by CLL was higher than those taught by TBL. How could this happen?

First, in this research, jigsaw was implemented in the CLL class. This technique, though not instantly, managed to 'force' all students to become more active learning participants. They finally recognized that everyone had a very important role in helping the group. This condition naturally made them more responsible and participate more actively. Meanwhile, jigsaw technique was not applied in the TBL class. Students were not given the responsibility to teach a piece of material to their friends. Thus, the students' sense of responsibility and activeness were different from those in the CLL class.

Second, CLL allowed students to work together, interact, communicate, and help each other more intensively than TBL. This was mostly shown when the students returned to their home group to share the new material. It was also seen as they prepared for the individual quiz. It was the moment when they learned not only to share knowledge but also to teach each other so that everybody could reach the learning outcome. Moments like these were less seen in the TBL class. In other words, the collaboration, interaction, and mutual help that happened in the TBL class were not as intensive as in the CLL group.

Third, the CLL class always applied learning in groups. Learning in groups was very good for developing speaking skills. Group learning allowed interactions to happen simultaneously and enabled students to receive more language input. These things were less found in the TBL class. Because TBL emphasized learning task, learning in groups was never the primary focus. Thus, students' opportunity to interact and the language input students got were not as much as in the CLL class.

Fourth, more permanent group membership and being responsible for other people's success seemed to increase the opportunities for the group to be more solid and strong. As the group became more solid, the members would motivate each other more, providing support and encouragement despite without being asked by the teacher. This condition was very important in increasing the students' learning motivation. Unfortunately, this situation was less found in the TBL class.

Fifth, it was found that teaching in the CLL class was easier. The students in this class paid more attention and focused more on the lesson. This happened because each student was given a responsibility that affected not only himself but also all his group members. Moreover, the seat arrangement in this class required each student to sit with his group. In so doing, the student could not sit near his friends with whom he usually chatted during the class. These sort of things were less common in the TBL class. Besides not being

given a responsibility that affected other people's success, the students also tended to sit wherever they liked. It was easier for them to adjust the seating position with whom they felt comfortable, including with whom they felt comfortable chatting during lectures. Thus, in this case, teaching in the TBL class required greater effort and energy.

The differences between learning that took place in the CLL class and that in the TBL class, as described above, influenced the students' English speaking skills significantly. In other words, the main difference between CLL and TBL regarding English speaking skills is that CLL is better than TBL.

The Effect of Cognitive Styles (FD and FI) towards Speaking Skill
The second results of ANOVA and Tuckey computation answered the second research question: Is there any difference between the speaking skill of FD students and FI students? As seen on Table 4 and 5 above, $F_{computation}$ (B) = 6.71 > F_{table}, both at significance level α = 0.05 and α = 0.01. Moreover, $Q_{computation (B1-B2)}$ = 3.69 > Q_{tabel} = 2.95 at significance level α = 0.05. This was an empirical evidence that the speaking skill of FD students was higher than FI students.

As discussed earlier, this study raised the issue of FDI as one dimension of cognitive style. FDI affects how people process information and how they react to various situations, including learning situation in the classroom. The research showed that students with FD, who were better in interpersonal skills, tended to be more sensitive to the people around them. They paid more attention to the feelings and thoughts of others, more careful and friendly, and had high sense of empathy. In addition, they enjoyed learning activities that involved interactions. They believed that the success of learning a second language was acquired through direct communication with native speakers of the language, not through classroom teachings. Therefore, they considered grammatical analysis in the classroom was very boring. However, FD students' dependency to the existence of other people was quite high. They needed help from others not just to re-explain the lessons but also to find solutions to the learning difficulties they encountered. They were also heavily influenced by other people's criticism.

On the contrary, students with FI were more analytical and were capable of focusing on detail things. They loved grammatical analysis, drilling, cloze tests, and so on. They believed that the success of learning a second language came from classroom learning. They tended to be more independent in many ways such as in doing tasks, solving problem, and in providing reinforcement and motivation for themselves. They were not affected by outside criticism. However, students with FI were weaker in interpersonal skills. Their independent character made them prefer working alone and did not enjoy learning activities that involve too much interaction. They also tended to be less active in giving responses to teacher's explanations.

Speaking skill, as one of the variables in this study, promoted activities that required students to communicate with others, either in pairs or groups. In these activities, the students were 'forced' to speak, exchange information, negotiate meaning, etc. in order to complete the tasks assigned to them well. Of course, such learning conditions were not always beneficial. For FD students, whose interpersonal skills were better, the conditions were favorable. They had no difficulties in doing interactions with their friends, seemed to enjoy the lesson, and were more adaptable. Meanwhile, FI students who preferred to work alone did not really show signs of enjoyment. They tended to be quieter and less active in giving response. Actually, their being silence did not necessarily mean they did not understand or were confused what to say. They did understand, yet they did not seem to be as enthusiastic as FD students who actively immersed themselves in the activities that, once again, involved interactions. The teacher had to repeatedly remind and ask FI students to participate more

actively. This was what seemed to make FI students became weaker in pronunciation and fluency. They actually had enough grammar, yet because they tended to be more silent, their pronunciation and fluency did not develop well. As a result, the speaking skill of FD students was better than that of FI students.

The Interaction between Instructional Methods and Cognitive Styles towards Speaking Skill

The third result of ANOVA calculation answered the third research question: Is there any interaction between instructional methods and cognitive style to speaking skill? As seen on Table 4 above, $F_{computation}$ (AB) = 3.29 > F_{table} = 2.84 at significance level α = 0.05. This was an empirical evidence that there was significant interaction between instructional methods (CLL and TBL) and cognitive styles (FD and FI) towards speaking skill.

Speaking is a skill that involves a series of thinking. In order to be understood by others, a speaker must pay attention to the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation he uses. This generally becomes an obstacle for foreign language learners. They prefer to remain silent although they actually have something to say. They feel unable to use proper grammar and do not have a sufficient vocabulary to express their ideas. This is a sign for teachers to pay more and more attention to speaking skill. Teaching speaking skill, therefore, requires the application of appropriate methods.

In EFL, methods continue to develop. CLL and TBL are two methods currently used in teaching English. In this research, the differences of both methods have proven to affect the students. CLL that involved more teamwork and interactive activities was more advantageous for the students with high social sensitivity. Meanwhile, TBL, which gave more emphasis in the completion of tasks, either done individually or in group, was more advantageous for the students who enjoyed working alone. In other words, learning success through the application of both methods was greatly influenced by students' individual differences.

FD and FI are some types of individual differences that examine one's dependency towards a large field. Such dependency will affect the information processing in one's brain. In this research, FD students were found to prefer learning activities that involved interaction with others. On the other hand, FI students, whose interpersonal skills were not as good as FD students, preferred to work alone and did not like learning activities that involve too much interaction. With regard to the differences between CLL–TBL and FD–FI, it was found that those differences resulted in different effects to students' speaking skills. In other words, an interaction between instructional methods and cognitive style towards speaking skill existed.

The Effect of Instructional Methods (CLL and TBL) towards Speaking Skill in the Group of FD Students

The third result of Tuckey calculation answered the fourth research question: Is there any difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL in the group of FD students? As seen on Table 5 above, $Q_{computation}$ (A1B1-A2B1) = 4.68 > Q_{table}, both at significance level α = 0.05 and α = 0.01. This was an empirical evidence that the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL was higher than the students taught by TBL in the group of FD students.

As discussed earlier, CLL emphasized learning in groups. However, not all group learning can be considered cooperative learning. There are at least three fundamental principles that must be fulfilled, namely, positive interdependence, individual accountability, and group processing. With those principles, the students will naturally motivate, support, teach, and help each other. Meanwhile, TBL used the power of learning

tasks to achieve the learning goal. TBL applied communicative approaches that focused more on meaning rather than language rules. Students were free to use any sentence patterns or whatever grammar they had to convey the meaning well. Tasks were designed in such a way that resembled the actual language use.

Comparing the two methods, TBL did not put too much emphasis in group learning as in CLL. In TBL, either working individually, in pairs, or in groups was never the main concern. The focus was on the use of learning tasks. Students' interaction in TBL was not as intensive as in CLL. TBL did not provide the mutual support and assistance among students as CLL did. Also, the groups in TBL did not have a permanent membership. The differences between CLL and TBL were proven to affect the English speaking skills of FD students. The students, who tended to have higher social sensitivity, worked better with CLL. CLL was seen more suitable for developing FD students' interpersonal skills. Moreover, since CLL required all group members to help, support, and motivate each other, CLL was very suitable with FD students' dependent character. On the contrary, the learning atmosphere in the TBL class was not very much suitable with the characteristics of FD students. Hence, the speaking skill of FD students taught by CLL was higher than that of FI students taught by TBL.

The Effect of Instructional Methods (CLL and TBL) towards Speaking Skill in the Group of FI Students

The fourth result of Tuckey calculation answered the fifth research question: Is there any difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL in the group of FI students? As seen on Table 5 above, $Q_{computation\ (A1B2-A2B2)} = 1.04 < Q_{table}$, both at significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\alpha = 0.01$. This was an empirical evidence that there was no significant difference between the speaking skill of the students taught by CLL and the students taught by TBL in the group of FI students. In other words, the fifth hypothesis was rejected. How can this happen?

First of all, the discussion starts with the rationale of the fifth hypothesis. As stated earlier, CLL involves students to work in groups, where they interact, communicate, and help each other. FI students who are more independent and prefer to work alone are assumed will not benefit from this situation. Meanwhile, TBL seems to offer a friendlier learning atmosphere for FI students. In TBL, students do not always work in groups. Sometimes they work in pairs or individually. When they work in groups, they are not given the responsibilities to help other members. The group serves only as a means to accomplish a task. Instead of constantly working in groups as in CLL, this situation seems slightly better for students with FI. In addition, the last procedure in TBL, language focus, offers linguistic analysis activities assumed to match the character of FI students who naturally enjoy doing analysis. Thus, it is hypothesized the speaking skill of the students taught by TBL is higher than the students taught by CLL in the group of FI students.

However, the findings showed that the mean of the students taught by CLL and the mean of the students taught by TBL were not much different compared to the other mean (see Table 3). The difference was relatively smaller. It indicated that for FI students, CLL and TBL were not much different. The similarities and differences between CLL and TBL did not seem to affect students with FI. The findings showed that FI students, who tended to be more independent, were not easily influenced by other people or situation, including instructional methods. They always found their way to rearrange the learning materials no matter how the lessons were delivered or what method was used. This characteristic of FI students was believed to be the reason why the last hypothesis was rejected. In other words, there was no significant difference between the speaking skill of students taught by CLL and students taught by TBL in the group of FI students.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the aforementioned findings, it can be concluded that instructional methods and cognitive styles are proven to affect students' speaking skill. Therefore, there are some suggestions that can be done as an effort to improve students' speaking skill and similar research in the future. First, CLL may be used to teach speaking to the first semester PGSD students. This suggestion applies both for FD and FI students. Second, in implementing CLL, the fulfillment of cooperative learning basic principles should be prioritized. Without these principles, it is very likely the learning outcome be far from expectation. Third, in order to achieve better learning outcome, it is necessary to conduct an identification of students' cognitive styles, so that learning activities can be designed in harmony with students' cognitive styles. Four, English teachers are expected to continuously expand their knowledge about various instructional methods and individual differences that may affect learning success. Finally, since the result proves that there is an interaction between instructional methods and cognitive style to speaking skill, further research, using larger subjects and better methodology, needs to be conducted.

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The Effect of TPR and Audio-Lingual Method in Teaching Vocabulary Viewed from Students' IQ

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This research aimed to investigate the effect of Total Physical Response (TPR) on elementary school students' English vocabulary mastery with regards to their Intelligence Quotient (IQ). Whether or not there is an interaction between the teaching method and IQ in teaching vocabulary was also investigated in this study. The research was carried out at an elementary school in Central Java, Indonesia. The population was the fifth year students of two classes. Both the experimental and control groups consisted of 40 students. The data were analyzed using multifactor analysis of variance 2 x 2 (ANOVA). Then, it was analyzed using Tukey test. The study reveals that TPR was an effective method for teaching vocabulary in elementary school, and the effectiveness of the method was influenced by the level of students' IQ. The results of the study may become a reference for EFL teachers to apply an effective method to teach English vocabulary to elementary school students. Moreover, EFL teachers need to take into account students' IQ in implementing the teaching method.

Keywords: Total Physical Response (TPR), audio-lingual method, teaching vocabulary, Intelligence Quotient (IQ)

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui efek dari Total Physical Response pada penguasaan kosa kata bahasa Inggris siswa sekolah dasar dengan melihat aspek Kecerdasan (IQ) mereka. Ada atau tidaknya interaksi antara metode mengajar dan IQ dalam mengajar kosakata juga dikaji dalam penelitian ini. Penelitian ini dilakukan di sebuah sekolah dasar di Jawa Tengah, Indonesian. Populasi dalam studi ini adalah siswa tahun kelima dari dua kelas. Grup eksperimen dan control terdiri dari 40 siswa. Metode analisa data yang digunakan adalah analisa varian multifaktor 2 x 2 (ANOVA), kemudian dianalisis dengan menggunakan uji Tukey. Hasil penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa TPR merupakan metode yang efektif untuk mengajar kosa kata bagi siswa sekolah dasar. Hasil penelitian ini menyarankan kepada guru bahasa Inggris untuk mencoba menerapkan TPR sebagai sebuah metode yang efektif untuk mengajar kosa kata bahasa Inggris. Selain itu, guru juga dapat mempertimbangkan tingkat IQ siswa dalam menerapkan metode mengajar tersebut.

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INTRODUCTION

In Indonesia, English has been a compulsory subject for all levels of education. In the secondary education, students have to learn four major skills, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. To support those four skills, the language components such as vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and pronunciation, are also taught. Vocabulary, for example, is essential for succesful English learning since without extensive vocabulary, there may be some difficulties in communication (Zhihong, 2000).

To date, the teaching of vocabulary in the Indonesian EFL can be considered 'traditional,' in which translation or list of words are provided to students to be memorized. Consequently, young learners find that learning vocabulary not interesting. Therefore, English teachers need to be creative in designing classroom activities. There are some teaching methods which could be considered fun for young learners since the methods can facilitate one of young learners' characteristics, namely physically active. The methods are, among others, audio-lingual method (ALM) and Total Physical Response (TPR). ALM emerged during the Second World War by adopting behaviorism theory, while TPR appeared in the 60s and 70s. According to Rodgers (2001), in ALM teachers act as a language model and drill leader, while in TPR, teachers have a role as commander and action monitor.

A number of studies on ALM (e.g. Mart, 2013) and TPR (e.g. Hsu & Lin, 2011; Kariuki & Bush, 2008; Neupane, 2008; Pujiningsih, 2007) have been conducted. The TPR studies have shown that this method is beneficial to help students improve their vocabulary. However, no study above was connected to students' intelegence quotient (IQ), especially in the context of elementary school in Indonesia. Therefore, this study attempts to investigate the effect of TPR on elementary school students' vocabulary mastery viewed from their Intelligence Quotient (IQ) with the students being taught using audio-lingual method as the control group. Three research questions are posed in this study: (1) Is TPR more effective than the audio-lingual method in teaching vocabulary? (2) Do the students with high IQ have better vocabulary mastery than those with low IQ? and (3) Is there an interaction between teaching methods and IQ in teaching vocabulary?

METHOD

This research was conducted at a primary state school in the province of Central Java, Indonesia. The fifth graders were chosen as samples. The design of this research was quasi experimental study. The experimental group (class B) was taught using TPR, while the control group (class A) was taught using ALM. Each group was categorized into two different levels of IQ: high and low levels. There were 40 students in each class.

Two instruments were used in this research: vocabulary test and students' IQ document. The vocabulary test was designed by the researcher, while the IQ test was obtained from the first semester which conducted by a psychological institution chosen by the school. The vocabulary test was in multiple choices and oral test. The measurement of validity and reliability of the test was done before treatment. Moreover, the tests of normality and homogeneity were conducted before analyzing the data and revealed that the data were normally distributed and homogenous.

In order to analyze the data, the research used 2 by 2 multifactor analysis of variance, as can be seen in the table below:

Table 1: 2 by 2 multifactor analysis of variance

Teaching Methods (A) / IQ (B)	The Total Physical Response (TPR) (A_1)	The Audio-lingual Method (A_2)	Mean
High (B_1)	A_1B_1	A_2B_1	B_1
Low (B_2)	A_1B_2	A_2B_2	B_2
Mean	A_1	A_2	

The design of the research consists of 4 cells:

Independent variable : teaching methods (TPR and ALM).

Dependent variable   : vocabulary mastery.

Moderator variable   : students' IQ.

Experimental group   : the class taught by TPR.

Control group   : the class taught by ALM.

The meaning of the table:

A_1B_1: The mean score of vocabulary test of students who have high IQ and taught by using TPR method.

A_2B_1: The mean score of vocabulary test of students who have high IQ and taught by using the audio-lingual method.

A_1B_2: The mean score of vocabulary test of students who have low IQ and taught by using TPR method.

A_2B_2: The mean score of vocabulary test of students who have low IQ and taught by using the audio-lingual method.

A_1: The mean score of vocabulary test of experimental class which is taught by using TPR method.

A_2: The mean score of vocabulary test of control class which is taught by using audio-lingual method.

B_1: The mean score of vocabulary test of students who have high IQ.

B_2: The mean score of vocabulary test of students who have low IQ.

After analyzing the data by ANOVA (Analysis of Variance), the researcher used mean score to know which teaching method was more effective or better to teach vocabulary and which group was better. Tukey test or HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) was done when the result of ANOVA showed that the null hypotheses were rejected. It means each variable had influences. The statistical hypotheses are as follows:

1. The difference in vocabulary mastery between the students who were taught by TPR and those taught by audio-lingual method.

H_{01}: $\mu A_1 = \mu A_2$

$H\alpha_1$: $\mu A_1 > \mu A_2$

H_{01}: There was no significant difference in vocabulary mastery between the students who were taught by TPR and those taught by audio-lingual method.

$H\alpha_1$: The students who were taught by TPR had better vocabulary mastery than the students taught by audio-lingual method.

2. The difference in vocabulary mastery between the students who had high IQ and the students with low IQ.

H_{02}: $\mu B_1 = \mu B_2$

$H\alpha_2$: $\mu B_1 > \mu B_2$

H_{02}: There was no significant difference in vocabulary mastery between the students who had high IQ and the students with low IQ.

$H\alpha_2$: The students who had high IQ had better vocabulary mastery than the students with low IQ.

3. The interaction between teaching methods and students' IQ in teaching vocabulary.

H_{03}: $\mu A = \mu B$

$H\alpha_3$: $\mu A \neq \mu B$

H_{03}: There was no interaction between teaching methods and students' IQ in teaching vocabulary. It means that the effect of IQ level on vocabulary mastery did not depend on teaching methods.

$H\alpha_3$: There was an interaction between teaching methods and students' IQ in teaching vocabulary. It means that the effect of IQ level on vocabulary mastery depended on teaching methods.

Notes:

μ = average of the entire data (total mean)

A = teaching methods

B = students' IQ

A_1 = the students taught using TPR

A_2 = the students taught using audio-lingual method

B_1 = the students with IQ

B_2 = the students with low IQ

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

The data of the vocabulary test of the students taught using TPR (A1)

Descriptive analysis of the data A1 shows that the score was 48 up to 88. The mean score was 70.775, with the standard deviation 11.19, the mode 79.875, and the median 73.4. The range was 40, while the class was 6 and the interval of the score was 7.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students who taught using ALM (A2)
Descriptive analysis of the data A2 shows that the score was 52 up to 80. The mean score was 67.75, with the standard deviation 7.49, the mode 72.93, and the median 69.96. The range was 28, while the class was 6, and the interval of the score was 5.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students with high IQ (B1)
Descriptive analysis of the data B1 shows that the score was 52 up to 88. The mean score was 71.95, with the standard deviation 10.11, the mode 77.07, and the median 74. The range was 36, while the class was 7, and the interval of these score was 6.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students with low IQ
Descriptive analysis of the data B2 shows that the score was 48 up to 80. The mean score was 66.7, with the standard deviation 7.71, the mode 63.5, and the median 65.93. The range was 32, while the class was 6, and the interval of these score was 6.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students with high IQ who were taught using TPR (A1B1)
Descriptive analysis of the data A1B1 shows that the score was 72 up to 88. The mean score was 79.7, with the standard deviation 5.1, the mode 79.78, and the median 79.78. The range was 16, while the class was 5 and the interval of the score was 4.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students with high IQ who were taught using ALM method (A2B1)
Descriptive analysis of the data A2B1 shows that the score was 52 up to 80. The mean score was 64.3, with the standard deviation 7.44, the mode 65.5, and the median 64.75. The range was 28, while the class was 5, and the interval of the score was 6.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students with low IQ who were and taught using TPR (A1B2)
Descriptive analysis of the data A1B2 shows that the score was 48 up to 72. The mean score was 60, with the standard deviation 7.16, the mode 68.75, and the median 64.16. The range was 24, while the class was 5 and the interval of the score was 5.

The data of the vocabulary test of the students with low IQ who were taught using ALM (A2B2)
Descriptive analysis of the data A2B2 shows that the score was 60 up to 80. The mean score was 71.9, with the standard deviation 6.41, the mode 76.5, and the median 73.1. The range was 20, while the class was 6 and the interval of the score was 4.

Summary of a 2 by 2 Multifactor Analysis of Variance

Table 2. 2 by 2 Multifactor Analysis of Variance

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F_0	$F_{t(0.05)}$
Between columns (Method)	204.8	1	204.8	4.67	3.938
Between rows (IQ)	871.2	1	871.2	19.86	
Columns by rows (Interaction)	2880	1	2880	65.67	
Between groups	3956	3	1318.667		
Within groups	3332.8	76	43.85		
Total	7288.8	79			

Because F_o between columns (4.67) was higher than F_t at the level of significance α = 0.05 (3.938), the difference between columns was significant. It can be concluded that teaching methods differed significantly from one another in their effect on the subjects in the experiment. The students' mean score of C_1 (70.9) was higher than the students' mean score of C_2 (67.7), so the students who were taught using TPR were better in vocabulary achievement than those who were taught using ALM. It can therefore be concluded that TPR is more effective than audio-lingual method to teach vocabulary.

Because F_o between rows (19.86) was higher than F_t at the level of significance α = 0.05 (3.938), the difference between rows was significant. It can be concluded that the difference between the vocabulary achievements of the students with high IQ and those with low IQ was significant. The students' mean score of R_1 (72.6) was higher than the students' mean score of R_2 (66), so the students with high IQ had better vocabulary achievement than those with low IQ.

Because F_o interaction (65.67) was higher than F_t at the level of significance α = 0.05 (3.938), the interaction between columns and rows were significant. It can be concluded that there was interaction effect between the two variables: the teaching methods and the degree of IQ on the students' vocabulary mastery. It means that the effect of teaching methods used on the achievement depends on the subjects' degree of IQ.

Tukey test
After analyzing the variance, the Tukey test was done to test the difference of the mean of each group.

Table 3: Tuckey test

Between Group	n	q_o	$q_{t(0.05)}$	Significancy	Meaning
$A_1 - A_2$	40	3.05	2.86	Significant	$A_1 > A_2$
$B_1 - B_2$	40	6.3	2.86	Significant	$B_1 > B_2$
$A_1B_1 - A_2B_1$	20	10.26	2.95	Significant	$A_1B_1 > A_2B_1$
$A_2B_2 - A_1B_2$	20	5.94	2.95	Significant	$A_2B_2 > A_1B_2$

q_o between columns (A_1 and A_2) was 3.05. The value of q_t for $\alpha = 0.05$ and n = 40 was 2.86. Because q_o (3.05) was higher than q_t (2.86), TPR differed significantly from ALM method for teaching vocabulary. The mean score of the students who were taught using TPR (70.9) was higher than that those who were taught using ALM (67.7). It can be concluded that TPR was more effective than audio-lingual method for teaching vocabulary. Based on the result of ANOVA ($f_o > f_t$) and the result of Tuckey test ($q_o > q_t$), H_o was rejected, and $H\alpha$ was accepted.

q_o between rows (B_1 and B_2) was 6.3. The value of q_t for $\alpha = 0.05$ and n = 40 was 2.86. Because q_o (6.3) was higher than q_t (2.86), the students with high IQ were significantly different from those with low IQ. The mean score of the students with high IQ (72.6) was higher than that those with low IQ (66). It can be concluded that the students with high IQ had better vocabulary achievement than those with low IQ. Based on the result of ANOVA ($f_o > f_t$) and the Tuckey test ($q_o > q_t$), H_o was rejected, while $H\alpha$ was accepted.

q_o between two cells (A_1B_1 and A_2B_1) was 10.26. The value of q_t for $\alpha = 0.05$ and n = 20 was 2.95. Because q_o (10.26) was higher than q_t (2.95), TPR differed significantly from ALM for teaching vocabulary for students with IQ. The mean score of students with high IQ who were taught using TPR (80.2) was higher than that of those who were taught using ALM (65). It can be concluded that TPR was more effective than audio-lingual method for teaching vocabulary for students with high IQ. Based on the result of ANOVA ($f_o > f_t$) and the result of Tuckey test ($q_o > q_t$), H_o was rejected, and $H\alpha$ was accepted.

q_o between two cells ($A_2B_2 - A_1B_2$) was 5.94. The value of q_t for $\alpha = 0.05$ and n = 20 was 2.95. Because q_o (5.94) was higher than q_t (2.95), audio-lingual method differed significantly from TPR to teach vocabulary for students with high IQ. The mean score of students with low IQ who were taught using ALM (70.4) was higher than that of those who were taught using TPR (61.6). It can be concluded that ALM was more effective than TPR for teaching vocabulary for students with low IQ. Based on the result of ANOVA ($f_o > f_t$) and the result of Tuckey test ($q_o > q_t$), H_o was rejected, and $H\alpha$ was accepted.

Based on the result of analysis, TPR was more effective than ALM for teaching vocabulary for students with high IQ, and ALM was more effective than TPR for teaching vocabulary for students with IQ. It can therefore be concluded that there was an interaction between the teaching methods and the students' IQ for teaching vocabulary. Based on the result of ANOVA ($f_o > f_t$) and the result of Tuckey test ($q_o > q_t$), H_o was rejected, and $H\alpha$ was accepted.

Discussion

The results of this study show that TPR was more effective than ALM for teaching vocabulary. TPR is based on the fact that foreign language should be learnt in a similar way as children learn their mother tongue: they only listen to it and do what they are asked for. Therefore, the main skill in TPR is listening with concentration on listening comprehension. Mother tongue is rarely used in lessons. All explanations are done through voice, body language, gestures, and actions. Students can listen to a recording while looking at additional materials that help to understand the meaning from context. TPR is based on the premise that human brain has a biological program from acquiring any natural language in the world, including the sign language of the deaf.

TPR decreases students' stress in using new vocabulary, makes lessons more enjoyable, and encourages students to feel more confident and successful. It is in line with what Larsen-Freeman (2002) suggests that TPR is developed to reduce the stress people feel when studying foreign languages, thereby encouraging students to persist in their study beyond a beginning level of proficiency.

Meanwhile, learning through ALM means forming habits. The method is based on teaching drills of sentence patterns and their pronunciation. The main aim is to create communicative ability of learners in a short time and to make responses habitual and automatic. The only language used during lessons is the target language. Special importance given is pronunciation and memorizing of phrases.

Teachers have the central and leading role. Their work is also very demanding because they need to speak accurately. Except for automatic responses, there is a great effort to produce mistake-free utterances. Language is displayed through conversations, divided into lines that are drilled repetitively. Vocabulary is strictly limited and learned only in context. Hockett (as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006) states that the teacher's major task is to drill the basic patterns. Learners "require drill, drill, and more drill, and only enough vocabulary to make such drills possible" (Hockett in Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 101-102). During the process of drilling, the learners should be carefully guided through a series of carefully designed exercises, thereby eliminating the possibility for making errors. As the learners are helped to perform the drills, they are supposed to inductively learn the grammatical structure being practiced.

Teaching methods which are used by the teacher in teaching learning process helps the students to achieve their goal. Meanwhile, IQ is an important factor to predict score in the subjects. Kail (2010) says scores on IQ tests predict grades in school and occupational success.

TPR is associated with the idea that we all learn in different media. The memory we use when learning to tie shoelaces or to ride a bicycle is kinesthetic memory or 'muscle memory'. This, of course, is just one of the different 'intelligences' we use when learning a foreign language.

By TPR, students are not taught by their teachers' translation or repetition. The students are taught to be more active to know the meaning from their own movement. Richard and Rodgers (2001) state that TPR is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. It is also related to the theory of Multiple Intelligences that is introduced by Howard Gardner. One of the nine intelligences that is included in his theory is bodily-kinesthetic intelligence, which involves the use of fine and motor skills to solve problems and to perform a sequence of

movements. As TPR involves getting children to move a lot, it enhances their motivation. In terms of language teaching, teachers basically depend on commands when following TPR.

This study reveals that there was a correlation between intelligence and vocabulary achievement; the students having high intelligence had better vocabulary achievement than those with low intelligence. Researchers have also shown that vocabulary and intelligence are highly correlated. Anderson and Freebody (as cited in Marzano, 2004) state the strong relationship between vocabulary and general intelligence is one of the most robust findings in the history of intelligence testing. The students with high IQ will have better access to the brain in processing and storing information needed regarding their vocabulary. The ability to process and store information is a component of what cognitive psychologists refer to as fluid intelligence. Cattell (as cited in Marzano, 2004) states fluid intelligence is innate. One of its defining features is the ability to process information and store it in permanent memory. High fluid intelligence is associated with enhanced ability to process and store information. Low fluid intelligence is associated with diminished ability to process and store information.

The students with high intelligence retain most the vocabulary experiences as a new knowledge and store them in their memory, meanwhile for those having low intelligence will not. By doing so, the high IQ students and their vocabulary mastery grow all the times when they are faced with a new one. The students with low IQ do not participate totally in the learning process given by the teacher. They show lack of interest and little attention. They prefer to become the audience or listener in the learning process because it takes time to capture and store the new words. They also need more time on how or when to use those new words in their activity because it is quite difficult for them to understand the new material or word which is needed in the vocabulary achievement. Some have trouble relating to or communicating with their peers because of disparities in vocabulary size (especially in the early years), personality, interests, and motivation. Lahey (2009) argues that a child with low intelligence will often seem less competent than an average younger child with the same mental age.

Another finding in this study shows that there is an interaction between teaching methods and the students' intelligence for teaching vocabulary. The high IQ students have better understanding about the learning material which is proposed in the TPR. They can work cooperatively with other students, and they are very active in doing the instruction given by the teacher. They tend to have more initiative and be confident in doing something without waiting further command from the teacher. They tend to fix their mistakes and will avoid them to happen again. Christison (as cited in Richard & Rodgers, 2001) states that the more awareness the students have of their own intelligences and how they work, the more they will know how to use that intelligence to access the necessary information and knowledge from a lesson.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that TPR is more effective for students having high intelligence for teaching vocabulary. Meanwhile, ALM cannot motivate the students because the main focus of this method is the teacher. It is a teacher-centered lesson in which the teacher or the audio material is the model. Margolis (as cited in Abu-Melhim, 2009) points out that ALM approach results in "a lack of student motivation" (p. 43), arising in large part from "pattern drills" that has a tendency to be boring.

Drills, as part of ALM, have been applied to the teaching of English. In this case, teaching English as a foreign language makes teachers and students try to use English as a means of communication. Students having low intelligence tend to wait for some instruction from the teacher on what to do in the class. They also tend to have no curiosity in teaching and

learning process and keep silent even though they do not understand the lesson. ALM seems to be able to satisfy the students having low intelligence. In the ALM class, the students' focus is following orders from their teacher or the material such as tape and video by doing some drills. It can be concluded that ALM method is more effective to teach vocabulary for the students having low intelligence. This conclusion is in line with Kulhavy (1992, p.342) who states that "the academic performance of low-IQ children can be enhanced when instruction is conducted (1) in a domain for which they have substantial knowledge or (2) in a manner whereby the child's knowledge is built step by step" (p. 342).

CONCLUSIONS

The findings show that TPR is an effective method for teaching vocabulary in elementary school, and the effectiveness of the method is influenced by the level of the students' IQ. The result of the research proves that TPR is more effective than ALM to teach vocabulary. TPR brings a good atmosphere in the classroom activity. In TPR, the role of teacher is a model and commander. The teacher teaches vocabulary by saying and practicing the vocabulary with his/her gesture or body movement. First, the students only watch and hear the teacher. Second, the teacher asks the students to follow the gesture or body movement and say the words. Third, the teacher asks the students to practice the vocabulary unaccompanied by the teacher to know whether the students can catch the meaning of the vocabulary. After that, the teacher gives unconscious individual vocabulary test by asking the students to give commands to each other, while the teacher monitors the activity. In TPR, the students grasp the meaning indirectly through movement. The students probably enjoy it. It attracts the students' attention and helps them memorize the words easily. Since the result of the research also proves that there is an interaction between teaching methods and students' IQ, teachers should know the level of students' IQ before applying a teaching method. Finally, teachers need to consider implementing both methods appropriately since there are students with high and low IQ in each class.

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