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From the Editor

Welcome to the January 2016 issue of *Journal of ELT Research*. With the spirit of New Year, *Journal of ELT Research* emerges to give a space for not only academics at University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA (UHAMKA) but also academics from other higher institutions to share their studies and viewpoints with regard to English Language Teaching (ELT). Our January issue touches various aspects of ELT, ranging from developing listening materials to incorporating critical thinking skills into English textbooks.

Our first article, “Developing Native-Like Listening Comprehension Materials: Teachers’ and Pupils’ Perceptions of a Digital Approach,” by Herri Mulyono and Devi Nur Vebriyanti, investigates how ELT teachers develop native-like listening materials using a text-to-speech (TTS) technology. This study shows that there are positive responses from teachers and students concerning TTS. Since the use of technology in language teaching and learning has been fashionable, this research can give insights in this regard. One of them is that as the study reports the ELT teachers’ gaining more confidence in using technology, TTS can be integrated into teachers’ professional development programme.

In our next article, “The Relationship between Authentic Materials and Cooperative Learning Strategy towards EFL Students’ Reading Comprehension,” Siti Nurlela and Gunawan Suryoputro discuss the correlation between students’ perception of the authentic materials and cooperative learning strategy towards students’ reading comprehension. This study shows three important findings: there is positive correlation between students’ perception of the authentic materials and students’ reading comprehension, there is a significant positive effect of cooperative learning strategy towards reading comprehension, and there is a significant positive effect of reading materials towards cooperative learning strategy. The role of authentic materials has been discussed by ELT scholars, and findings of this study give insight to the discussion by suggesting the careful choice of authentic materials.

Bitu Dwi Rahmani’s article, “The Relationship between Field Dependence-Independence and Reading Strategy toward Reading Comprehension,” investigates the relationship between field dependent-independent learning style and reading strategy towards reading comprehension. This study shows that the more independent students are the greater

they will comprehend the text. This study suggests that ELT teachers implement various kinds of reading comprehension strategies to facilitate students' manifold learning styles.

Elih Sutisna Yanto's article, "EFL Teachers' Belief, Knowledge and Practices in Using Dictionaries", examines 20 ELT teachers with regard to their beliefs, knowledge and practices in using dictionaries in their classes. Studies in the use of dictionary in the EFL context are not many and don't seem to be seriously taken into account. This may be the skill of using dictionaries has been taken for granted. This study shows that even though during their schooling Indonesian ELT teachers did not get much training in using dictionary, they still think that the skill of using dictionary is actually important and needs to be taught to students.

In the article "Deductive and Inductive Methods in Teaching Tenses," Syaadiah Arifin researches whether deductive is better than inductive method in teaching tenses to facilitate students' writing skill. This study contributes to the unfinished discussion regarding these two methods. One is for inductive, while the other is in favour of deductive method. Findings of this study show that deductive method is more effective in promoting student' writing skill. However, since both methods have been suggested by many studies, the combination of two could be worth doing.

Santi Chairani Djonhar's article, "An Indonesian Child Learning Sentence Construction" investigates the language acquisition of a six-year-old Indonesian child's English language acquisition. The child learns in a school using English and Indonesian as a medium of instruction and spends much time watching English movies. The child also speaks English with his brother and mother. Findings show that the development of sentence construction is excellent. The child's sentence development is not really different from that of native speakers of English. This can be argued that if the condition is set to be similar, regardless of different setting, Indonesian children's English language acquisition will be excellent. This study also supports the notion of immense exposure to the target language.

In the article "The Application of Multimedia-Based Presentation in Improving Students' Speaking Skill," Imam Fauzi investigates how students' speaking skill can be improved through applying multimedia presentation. This action research is conducted in the economic department at a private university in Serang. The findings show that applying multimedia, along with the teaching of grammar, helps students improve their speaking and presentation skills. However, giving a model of good presentation is also needed. This study suggests the use of multimedia in facilitating students' learning.

In our final article, “Infusing Critical Thinking into English Coursebooks,” Hamzah Puadi Ilyas suggests how critical thinking activities can be included in ELT textbooks. In the article, he proposes Ilyas’ critical thinking framework as a guideline to create critical thinking activities. The framework is a result of the critical examination and synthesis of critical thinking taxonomies, programmes, strategies and tests. The literature has informed that critical thinking has been adopted in education in many non-Western countries nowadays, including Indonesia. However, little attention has been paid to how it can be included in ELT. Consequently, Indonesian English schoolteachers might know the phrase ‘critical thinking’ but may not really understand what it is about, let alone creating critical thinking activities. This article can give contribution to the discussion of critical thinking in the Indonesian setting.

Finally, thank you for your submissions. Without your works, the first edition of *Journal of ELT Research* would not be successful. For the readers, I hope you enjoy this first issue.

Editor

Developing Native-Like Listening Comprehension Materials: Teachers' and Pupils' Perceptions of a Digital Approach

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This paper reported the attempt teachers did in developing native-like (NLS) listening materials for their EFL learners using a text-to-speech (TTS) technology. Observation was carried out to record teachers' procedures for developing NLS materials. Interview with teachers were undertaken to explore their' perceptions towards the NLS listening materials and the benefits they gained from developing instructional media using technology. In addition, a questionnaire was distributed to 65 eight-grade pupils to gather information related to their opinions regarding the listening materials developed and used by their teachers. The findings show that teachers and pupils responded positively towards the NLS materials for listening comprehension. In addition, teachers were found to have more confidence in teaching listening skill while using the technology. There are three conditions which endorse this teaching confidence: the suitability of instructional materials used with the learning curriculum and pupils' level of English proficiency, teachers' self-efficacy to the teaching task, and the integration of technology in classroom teaching. The study suggests that TTS system can be used as computer assisted language learning (CALL) application particularly in the development of listening comprehension materials. The study also confirms earlier studies that teacher professional development can be promoted through integrated training on technology for classroom use.

Keywords: Native-like speaker (NLS), listening materials, text-to-speech (TTS), English as a foreign language (EFL)

Artikel ini melaporkan kegiatan guru dalam membuat materi mendengarkan (listening) yang mirip dengan penutur asli (NLS) untuk pembelajaran bahasa Inggris menggunakan teknologi text-to-speech (TTS). Observasi dilakukan untuk merekam prosedur yang dilakukan guru. Wawancara dilakukan untuk mengetahui persepsi guru terhadap NLS dan untuk mengetahui manfaat yang guru peroleh terhadap pengembangan materi melalui teknologi. Kuestioner diberikan kepada 65 siswa kelas 8 untuk mengetahui pendapat mereka terhadap materi belajar yang dikembangkan oleh guru. Data menunjukkan bahwa guru dan murid memberikan respon positif terhadap pengembangan materi NLS. Di samping itu rasa percaya diri guru dalam mengajarkan kemampuan mendengarkan dengan teknologi juga meningkat. Ada tiga kondisi yang memungkinkan rasa percaya diri meningkat: kecocokan antara materi yang digunakan dengan kurikulum dan tingkat kemampuan bahasa Inggris siswa, keyakinan guru terhadap tugas mengajar, dan integrasi teknologi dengan pengajaran di kelas. Studi ini merekomendasikan bahwa sistem TTS dapat digunakan untuk pengajaran bahasa melalui komputer, khususnya dalam mengembangkan bahan ajar mendengarkan. Studi ini juga mendukung penemuan studi sebelumnya yang menyatakan bahwa untuk mengembangkan profesionalitas guru dapat dilakukan melalui penggunaan teknologi di kelas.

INTRODUCTION

Despite the increasingly prevalent issue of an English as an International Language (EIL), many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers still use English native speakers' (NS) voice and accents for listening materials in order to promote the best model for real English language use. Recent developments in computer technology have enabled English teachers to provide their pupils with listening materials by NS. There is a plethora of listening materials recorded by NS available online that English teachers may select for classroom use. A number of websites such as BBC (British Broadcasting Company), British Council, VOA (Voice of America), CNN (Central News Network) and other similar web pages offer direct access to the real world examples of English spoken by NS.

However, the use of audio materials from websites in classroom practice does not seem always to promote pupils' listening comprehension skills due to validity issues including lack of universal validity and pupils' experience. The use of audio materials available online does not correspond to the classroom procedure (Sha, 2010). She argues that, as the online materials intend to cover a wide range of audiences (e.g. various ages), there is no evidence of universal validity from a single piece of audio presently available. In

addition, many EFL learners often experience difficulties in comprehending fluent, natural conversation due to a lack of experience (Chang & Read, 2006). According to Chang and Read (2006) such difficulties in comprehending listening task encountered by many EFL learners create a stressful learning environment that, in turn, may diminish the validity of listening comprehension task. These two issues on listening material validity are believed to lead teachers into unsound inferences regarding learners' accomplishment of the intended outcomes (Brindley & Slatyer, 2002).

In the Indonesian context, many English teachers still rely on the listening materials available online for listening comprehension (see Cahyono & Widiati, 2010; Suarcaya, 2011; Sulistyawati, 2013). Because of this dependency on online materials, teachers have encountered two prominent problems in classroom practices that consequently lead them to avoid carrying out listening activities in their classroom teaching (Adnan, 2012). The first technical problem deals with facilities and technical support provided by schools to help teachers access the listening materials online. Although the Indonesian government has provided strong support for technology integration at schools (Firman & Tola, 2008), many English teachers are still restricted to the internet access (Son, Robb, & Charismiadji, 2011). Two profound factors, namely a limited budget and an unreliable internet connection are believed to discourage teachers and students from either streaming or downloading audio materials available on websites (Suarcaya, 2011; Sukmaningrum, 2012). The second problem includes the inadaptability of the listening materials to address pupils' level of English proficiency. Quite often classroom teachers serve their pupils with audio materials obtained online as they are without any adjustment. Accordingly, many Indonesian pupils perceive these online materials spoken by the NS as difficult to understand (Muljanto, 2012; Silviyanti, 2014). This negative perception towards the listening materials spoken by NS then impacts on pupils' listening comprehension (see Hasan, 2000).

The application of text-to-speech (TTS) in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) continues to inspire debate. Such debate is particularly driven by the question of whether TTS applications are ready to be used in the EFL learning classroom (Handley, 2009). For its proponents, the TTS application for listening comprehension is seen as an alternative solution to the difficulties that teachers encounter in promoting listening comprehension materials spoken by the natives. The TTS application is considered as an advantage for teachers in adapting the native speaker voice to contextualize listening materials as well as fit their pupils' level of English proficiency (Sha, 2010). Likewise, such an application can benefit pupils' language learning particularly when used as a reading

machine, pronunciation model, and conversational partner (Handley, 2009; Handley & Hamel, 2005). However, very few studies have been conducted to explore teachers' use of TTS application in listening material development particularly the benefits L2 teachers and pupils may derive from such an application. The present study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are teachers' and pupils' perceptions of teachers' self-created NLS listening comprehension materials using TTS application?
2. How do teachers' attempt to develop NLS listening comprehension materials using TTS application contribute to their classroom teaching practice?

Text-to-speech Application in an EFL Classroom

Recently, there has been increasing interests in the application of text-to-speech (TTS) in EFL listening classrooms (e.g. Ming-Kuan & Young, 2010; Sha, 2010). The present study has sought three conditions that become an impetus for such an application for listening comprehension: the appropriate pronunciation model, the communicative expressions that promote natural dialogue, and the practical benefits. In terms of its role in the EFL classroom, text-to-speech (TTS) application seems to be identical to a pronouncing tool, in that it is used exclusively for the teaching of pronunciation (González, 2007; Kilickaya, 2006; Sobkowiak, 2003). Few studies have demonstrated that TTS application suggests an appropriate NS pronunciation to EFL learners (e.g. Damper, Marchand, Adamson & Gustafon, 1999; Handley, 2009; Sobkowiak, 2003). Damper et al.'s (1999) study, for example, has shown that a TTS system can accurately pronounce 72% English words. Although, Damper et al. acknowledge that, when Elovitz et al.'s (1976) good pronunciation criteria are applied, the accuracy drops to approximately 25.7 % of words that are pronounced correctly.

Many researchers have driven their interest to the development of expressive or emotive text voice within TTS applications in order to promote natural conversation (for example see Campbell, Hamza, Hoge, Tao, & Bailly, 2006; Schröder, 2009). Harashima's (2006) TTS application review, for instance, mentions that English voice quality of Voice Text – a TTS application – is outstanding, stating that such an application “uses the real voice sample” (p. 134). Harashima also states that the TTS application has included an

emotive voice and expressions. Similarly, Handley's (2009) study shows that the accuracy and naturalness of the voice in TTS applications were positive at the level of phonetic pronunciation. However, Handley points out that such a measure does not apply to the prosodic aspect, and the quality of the phonetic pronunciation was indeed found to be higher than of the prosodic. This finding, therefore, indicates that the TTS application may work satisfactorily for production of a single word, like in a talking dictionary, but it is unlikely to function adequately as a conversational partner due to an unnatural quality of voice. Handley identifies some contributing factors for this: voice distortion, inability to model change adjustment, and uncovered prosodic natural speech.

In addition, TTS application in the EFL classroom is primarily driven by its practical benefits. According to Sha (2010, p. 640), there are considerable practical reasons for utilizing TTS in the development of listening materials: flexibility and adaptability of the technology, adjustable voice speed, availability of numerous speakers, ease of distribution, and greater cost-effectiveness than traditional speech recording. These practical benefits facilitate teachers in a number of ways. First, flexibility and adaptability of TTS application allow teachers to promote syllabus demand and the pupils' daily context in the listening comprehension classroom. Second, the speech rate modification is believed to meet pupils' need. And third, the produced audio materials are easy to keep and can be used anytime teachers need them.

Native-like Listening Materials

The terms native speaker (NS) has been widely discussed in literature (e.g. Davies, 1991; Jourdain, 2000; Medgyes, 1992). Lee (2005) summarizes six features that draw what NS is, including acquiring the language in early childhood and continued use of the language, knowledge of the language, communicative competence and the ability to use it naturally in varied social settings. The term speaker (NLS) refers to someone with the ability to communicate the language in a manner, "though error-free, yet has qualities which in native speakers frequently raise at least doubts whether it is native or non-native in origin" (Ringbom, 1993, p. 5, as cited in Jourdain, 2000, p. 187).

In the present study, NLS competence is defined by two traits. First, NLS definition takes a certain limited account of the speaker's ability to pronounce English words "without any noticeable accent" (Hyltenstam, 1988, p. 70). The NLS referred to in the present study is not a human that utters or produces English words, but a machine (or computer application): a TTS application, which is used to help teachers create a native-like voice from input text.

Second, in the EFL classroom, NS and non-NS teachers, though different, both contribute to the success of pupils' learning (Medgyes, 1992). The NLS materials in the present study combine the value of NS pronunciation (Davies, 1991; Jourdain, 2000; Medgyes, 1992) with the value of the non-NS teacher in encountering common classroom issues (for example see Árvai & Medgyes, 2000; Kurniati, 2012; Medgyes, 1992). The use of NLS materials which promotes the use of native American or British English speaker accents is believed to promote pupils' learning motivation as well as the authenticity of the language (see Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, & Balasubramanian, 2002), and at the same time may provide a contextual learning environment. The present study endeavours to contribute to a growing body of research on the use of TTS synthesis in the CALL context (Handley, 2009).

In promoting native-like but understandable listening comprehension for Indonesian pupils, the present study perceives speech control as an alternative solution. Many leading authors believe controlling native speaker speech either by reducing the rate or by adding pauses may assist in an improvement of pupils' listening comprehension (e.g. Flaherty, 1979; Griffiths, 1990, 1991; Zhao, 1997). However, this speech control appears to some extent, to violate what Kilickaya (2006) describes as "authentic speech" or in a broader term "authentic materials" (see Brown, 2004; Harmer, 2007). Therefore, the definition of native-like voice in the present study may not fit the aspects of fluency and extemporaneous discourse of NS as suggested by Davies (1991) and Medgyes (1992).

Technology Integration and Teachers' Professional Development

There is ample literature discussing the interconnection between technology integration and teachers professional development. Many authors suggest that professional development is vital, particularly in helping teachers to preserve with changes, familiarize themselves with a new method, and make their teaching effective through integration of technology (Lawless & Pellegrino, 2007). When teachers benefit from professional development integrated with technology, they are more likely to feel comfort with using technology to facilitate their teaching, boost their confidence as well as to improve their expertise to reshape learning curricula (Mulqueen, 2001).

A review of the literature suggests that technology integration in teacher professional development is likely to be effective if it involves three conditions. They are that it focuses on content, provides wide opportunity for teachers to practise, and responds to teachers' needs (Hew & Brush, 2007). Such a review has urged for technology integration training

that includes sharing information about technology (types of software and available tool for teaching) and learning how to use certain software. Specifically, teachers seem to require training on how they can use technology to help them achieve particular instructional goals (Ertmer, 2005).

In addition to the above three conditions, Schrum (1999) argues that effective professional development should include prospect for teachers to work with other colleagues. This collaborative work may allow teachers to learn from other colleagues' experiences, gain supports from their school community and eventually they could solve any potential issues during technology integration in classroom practices. The amount of contacts teachers maintain for technology integration in their professional development and the support they gain from other colleagues in the process have been shown as factors that promote teachers' innovative use of technology (Drent & Meelissen, 2008).

METHODS

Design of the Study

The present study employed a mixed method approach that combined the qualitative and quantitative research strands. A narrative qualitative design was adopted as it promoted wider opportunity for teachers to gain knowledge through their teaching experience (Xu & Connelly, 2009). In this qualitative design, classroom observation was carried out to gain understanding of how teachers plan NLS listening materials, develop and eventually use such materials in the listening classroom. Additionally, teacher interviews were undertaken at the end of the listening sessions. The teacher interviews were done to explore teachers' experience of using technology to develop NLS listening materials and their perceptions of the NLS materials for the listening comprehension. To validate the result of the qualitative analysis, a questionnaire was distributed to the pupil participants to collect data related to their perceptions of the listening comprehension materials, which were developed and used by their teachers.

Participants

The present study was conducted at a junior secondary school in Jakarta, Indonesia. Two English teachers and 65 pupils aged between 13-14 years old voluntarily participated in the study. The two teachers were both female, and their participation was motivated by their personal interest in using technology to support their daily teaching practices. The two

teachers had similar abilities in using computers such as office and presentation applications, and some online skills including online browsing, email correspondence, and uploading and downloading files from and into local storage. Teachers' interest and their computer competence benefited the study as it encouraged teachers to integrate technology into their classroom practices (Baylor & Ritchie, 2002).

Computer Training

Prior to the study, the two teacher participants attended three computer-training sessions with total of three hours. As suggested by Jeneatte (2002), the computer training was carried out to introduce a new computer technology i.e. TTS application that fit teachers' pedagogical needs. The training was also purposefully done to enable teachers to use a TTS application that helped them technically develop the NLS listening materials. When teachers were competent enough to use technology, teachers' confidence in using technology in classroom practise was expectedly to grow.

In the first session of the training, teachers were introduced to the TTS application and its potential uses for listening comprehension. In the second session, teachers were trained to develop a listening script and to convert the scripts into a native-like voice. This text-to-sound conversion was done using the NR application. In the third session, teachers were taught to smooth the voice using a sound modification application. During the third session, teachers were also trained on how to use the materials they had created in the listening classroom.

In the study, the teachers used Natural Reader Education v.9.1 Gold (henceforth NR). The NR application was selected based on the state of its art applications as discussed in Mulyono (2014) including the Speech Application Language Tags (SALT) technology, the availability of numerous natural voices, maximum 148kHz sampling rate, and 48kHz 16 bit stereo output frequency. At the outset, the NR application was installed on the teachers' laptops. The two laptops operated Windows 7 with 64bit Microsoft (MS) Word 2007. The NR add-in was also installed into the MS Word application to facilitate the teachers in converting the text to voice directly from their MS Word documents. The NR application is also available online; however, because the internet access at the research site was not reliable, the offline version of NR was used. As shown in Table 1, four out of 10 American English voices available in the NR application were installed in the teachers' laptop.

However, in the present study the teachers used only two of these: Natural voice Kate and natural voice Paul due to their naturalness.

Table 1: NS voices installed in the NR application

Voices	XML* tag	Sampling rate
Microsoft Anna	Microsoft Anna	16 kHz, 16 bit
ATT Mike16	Mike16	16 kHz, 16 bit
Natural Voice Kate	Kate	Unavailable
Natural Voice Paul	Paul	Unavailable

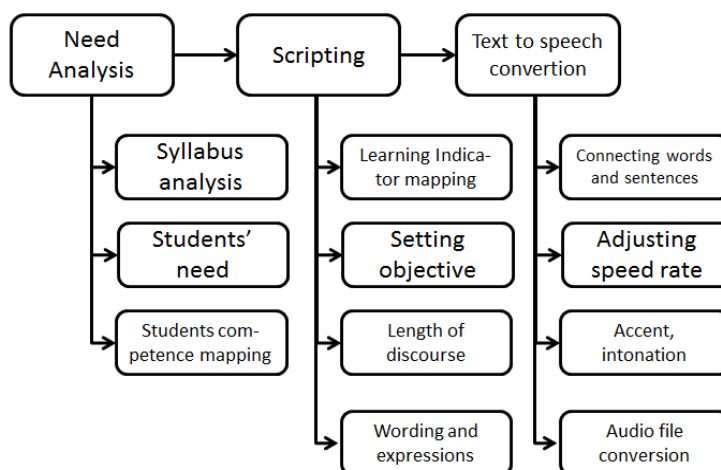
*XML, extensible markup language

The total duration of the training was about six hours. It was three hours longer than initially planned because teachers needed more time to become familiar with the TTS application in order to use it properly. Although teachers spent more hours to adapt the new TTS technology, teachers sought this “technology specialization” whilst the training sessions as a challenge to promote the integration of TTS technology in their listening classroom (see Evans-Andris, 1995).

The Development Procedures

The development of the NLS EFL listening covered three stages including a needs analysis, scripting, and text-to-voice conversion (see *Figure 1*). Under a needs-analysis framework, a needs analysis was done to connect the instructional tasks to real-world target tasks (see Long & Crookes, 1992).

Figure 1: The NLS Development procedure



In the preparation for the listening scripts, teachers first set learning objectives and planned listening comprehension materials. Teachers searched for references from the course books and internet web pages to develop a listening script. The script was developed to be of between 2-4 minutes in duration. Since teachers were granted access to the development of the listening comprehension script, they were able to manage “the accuracy, fluency and effectiveness of the students’ dialogues” (Milton, 2005, p. 252). During the process of script writing, teachers were given information on how to rotate the script with pauses, speed of the voice, and expressions. Teachers were taught to use some tagged texts already available on the TTS application to attribute pauses, speeds, and expressions in the script. Some examples of the tagged texts are shown below:

```

<set xml=true><VOICE REQUIRED="NAME=Kate" ><set xml=true><rate speed="-1"
> I'm really sorry <set xml=true><silence msec="10000" / > I don't mean it

<set xml=true><silence msec="10000" / >

<set xml=true><VOICE REQUIRED="NAME=Kate" ><set xml=true><rate speed="-1"
> That's okay<set xml=true><silence msec="10000" / >
  
```

However, teachers experienced difficulty in inserting such tagged texts into the script. Teachers were not familiar with XML and its use was seen to be complicated for them. Alternatively, teachers were trained to use dot (.) and comma (,) to replace XML code for silence or pause. The sample of the script above was then rewritten as below:

(Teacher clicks the speaker menu, selects Natural Voice Kate)

I'm really sorry

,

.

I don't mean it

(Stop, or convert to audio file)

(Create new audio file)

(Teachers clicks speaker, selects Natural Voice Paul)

.

.

That's okay

.

(Stop, or convert to audio file)

(Teachers merge the audio files)

Soon after the script was ready, the teachers converted it into speech using the NR application. This text-to-voice conversion was done directly from the add-in menu in the teachers' MS Word document. In the NR application, the available speeds range from -10 to 10, with 0 as the default. In the study, the speed of NS voice was set within the range of -1 to 0. Some pauses were also added between sentences to control the speed. An additional sound modification application was utilized to merge some audio files created. Teachers used output frequency 48 kHz 16 bit stereo to produce an audio file. This 48kHz output is believed to ensure the highest quality of sound (Mulyono, 2014; Sha, 2010). Finally, the produced NLS voice was then converted into *.mp3 audio file format with 128 kbit rate and saved in a local drive. The conversion into *.mp3 was applied to allow teacher to play the audio file from their mp3 player and share it with colleagues.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Teachers' and Pupils' Perceptions

The two teachers in the present study responded positively about the NLS materials. Teachers said that the NLS materials corresponded to their classroom needs. The TTS application had facilitated the teachers in self-developing listening materials that suited the standard of competence required by the learning syllabus. Moreover, the NLS materials

suggested an appropriate pronunciation model for both teachers and their pupils. Teachers also opined that the NLS materials suited the English competency of the pupils and fitted the context of their daily life. Teacher A commented:

“The NR application is very helpful in that I can create listening materials based upon my needs and the pupils’ as well. However, it provides only about 90% of all the things needed.”

Additionally, teacher B commented:

“You know, I tend to skip the listening session because I faced many obstacles, particularly in providing the materials. I used to get the listening materials from course book’s CDs and British Council. ... However, the materials did not suit the standard of competence as in the learning syllabus and the materials were not appropriate to the pupils’ ability; for example, the native voice was too fast, and the vocabulary used was too advanced for the pupils’ level. ... I tried the NLS materials, and I found that such materials suited my needs, and the pupils could get the materials based on their level.”

Pupils’ perception of the NLS materials was also shown as positive. The NLS listening materials at a more appropriate speaking speed provided more opportunities for them to comprehend. Compared to the listening materials pupils used to use, a large number of pupils (89.23%, $n=65$) expressed their preference for having the NLS materials in the classroom (see Table 2). Furthermore, 95.39% of the pupils felt that they were motivated with such use of NLS materials.

Table 2: Profile of pupils’ perception of the NLS materials

	M	SD	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14. I prefer teachers use the NR materials	4.21	0.71	23 (35.38%)	35 (53.85%)	5 (7.69%)	2 (3.08%)	0 (.0%)
15. I am interested if teachers use NR materials in the listening classroom	4.48	0.59	34 (52.31%)	28 (43.08%)	3 (4.62%)	0 (.0%)	0 (.0%)

The finding indicates two qualities of NLS materials that promote teachers' and pupils' positive perceptions, such as intelligibility and comprehensibility. From the intelligibility aspects, teachers perceived that the NLS sound from the audio file was clear so that pupils could understand the information conveyed. Additionally, the NLS materials may serve well as a pronunciation model for their pupils during the listening comprehension. The clear and natural sounding speech from the NLS in the materials also encouraged the two teachers to use such materials to practise their own English pronunciation. Teacher A commented:

“Although there is a little problem with the sound, 90% of it works. I could provide listening materials based on the pupils' ability and the needs of the curriculum. ... Also, I sometimes use it to improve my pronunciation ability.”

However, the finding showed that some L1 words were mispronounced. Teacher A said:

“The learning objective of the English teaching at the junior secondary school is specifically to enable pupils to use English in their daily life, understand things that pupils meet every day, or that are closer to them ... When talking about a park, for example, pupils are familiar with “Taman Mini.” As I converted such a name into the NR application, it was pronounced quite weirdly.”

From the comprehensibility aspect, the study found that the pupils were better able to understand the information from the NLS materials when the speech rate was lowered to -1. In total, 98.46% (n=65) of pupils expressed that the materials developed by teachers using the TTS application were easy to understand (see Table 2). Most of the pupils (98.67%) also opined that the materials suited their needs.

Table 3: Pupils' perception of the comprehensibility aspect

		M	SD	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
10.	Listening materials developed by teachers using NR application were easy to understand	4.3 5	0.5 1	24 (36.92%)	40 (61.54%)	1 (1.54%)	0 (.0%)	0 (.0%)
11.	Listening materials developed by teachers using NR application suit my need	4.2 9	0.4 9	20 (30.77%)	44 (67.69%)	1 1.54%	0 (.0%)	0 (.0%)

Asked about the reasons for modifying the speed rate, teacher B acknowledged that such a modification was purposefully done to meet her pupils' level of English listening proficiency. She reasoned:

"... I adjust the materials to their ability, so they could easily understand them and catch the meaning."

However, the finding showed that such a modification disadvantaged the NLS materials with a rough voice transition sound that distracted their naturalness. Teachers reported that, during the text-to-speech conversion, the pitch of one word to another from the NLS materials did not seem very stable and, therefore, sounded like a robot. The natural voice Kate and Paul did not seem quite as natural sounding as their developer claims. Teacher B said:

"The problem appears when we adjust the speed of the voice. Sometimes after the conversion, the voice sounded a bit flat though the pupils still could manage to understand."

The above findings on speed modification confirm those of earlier studies that a reduced rate from the NS' speech may improve pupils' comprehension (Griffiths, 1990, 1991; Zhao, 1997). Likewise, the additional pauses on the NLS materials suggest factors contributing to the pupils' better listening comprehension (Zhao, 1997). Pupils have more time to understand the information from the NLS materials due to the reduced the rate and additional pauses. However, despite these benefits, such an attempt significantly causes the distortion of NS speech, and, therefore, may alter its naturalness (Flaherty, 1979; Griffiths, 1990, 1991). Sha (2010) argues that the alterations of the naturalness of the voice ensues at the same time as the modification is made. He states that if the speed of the voice is reduced, all vowels, pauses and particular voiced consonants are strained accordingly; yet, voiceless consonants remain unaffected. This unnatural sound eventually affects the quality of the prosodic voice of the NLS materials.

The findings show that the voice produced by TTS application was similar to native English speaker and comprehensible. Although the prosodic sound quality of the NLS materials is low, the study demonstrates that such a low quality does not directly to influence pupils' listening comprehension. The pupil participants in this present study responded that they were not concerned with whether or not the NLS materials sound natural. Pupils responded that they could still comprehend the information from the NLS materials produced by the TTS application. This finding differs from Delogu, Conte, and Semintina's

(1998) earlier study indicating that the synthetic speech has shown to be more difficult for pupils either to listen or to comprehend compared to a natural voice. Delogu et al., whose study was participated in by 15 young adults aged between 19 and 23, argue that the synthetic voice requires more cognitive and memory capacity for young adults to listen to and comprehend than those listening to natural speech. The difference of these two findings can particularly be explained from the listener's age. Many leading researchers on TTS system have agreed that that listeners' age is one of various factors that may affect the intelligibility of voice produced by a TTS system (Jones, Berry, & Stevens, 2007). The pupil participants of this study, aged 13-14, were secondary pupils with limited knowledge of English. According to Sha (2010), these pupils, who were beginners in English, were unlikely to be familiar with different accents of English, and thus are considered prosody deaf. This prosody deafness has made them unable to distinguish accents from different English speakers. Accordingly, the modification of sound which resulted in the alteration of the prosodic sound quality may not affect their apprehension towards the information given through the TTS product.

The study shows that speech modification done by the two teachers in the TTS system thus appears as a dubious solution. The reduction of the speech suggests some benefits for EFL learners, yet it concurrently lowers the quality of sound produced by the system. Such a condition remains unchanged unless the default NS speed is appropriate for the learners and is available (Zhao, 1997). Nevertheless, the study has shown that pupils' comprehension towards the information from the NLS materials is not significantly affected by its prosodic sound quality. This finding, therefore, has indicated that despite its low prosody sound quality, the TTS voice can still be used for listening comprehension materials in an EFL classroom, in particular for pupils with low proficiency of English.

Contribution to Teachers' Teaching Practices

The result of this study showed that teachers' confidence in teaching listening comprehension grows when they were able to develop the listening materials themselves using TTS application. From classroom observation, teachers were shown enthusiastic to learn and utilize the NR application to develop NLS listening comprehension materials. The two teachers participating in the study said that the NR application was a new technology for them. They viewed that the application potentially brought a number of benefits to their

classroom instruction, particularly in listening sessions. Accordingly, teachers were shown to promote their strong commitment to the development of NLS listening materials.

The two teachers worked collaboratively during the development of the NLS listening comprehension materials. They set instructional objectives together, and collaboratively developed the learning materials. The two teachers were open for critiques and accepted suggestion from the researchers. During the text-to-speech conversion stage, teachers shared knowledge and discussed the difficulty they encountered together. As teachers perceived the NLS materials to fit the learning syllabus as well as the classroom needs, teachers were committed to developing more NLS materials and using them in their listening classrooms.

The findings also show that teachers' computer competence was shaped throughout their interaction with the new technology such as NR. Eventually, having benefitted from the technology integration in the NLS listening material development, they shared their experiences with other colleagues and invited them together to develop NLS materials for their pupils. Teacher A said:

“A few days ago I shared about this (using Natural Reader for listening comprehension) with my friends, and they were interested to initiate such use as well.”

The finding has shown that teachers' personal perception of their own capability to develop the instructional material using the TTS application contributes to their teaching confidence as well as a strong commitment to such use of NLS materials in classroom practice. Teachers in the study found that they were capable of using technology and serving their pupils' with appropriate listening materials. In addition, teachers' collaborative work has shown to promote their teaching practice. It should be noted that teachers' participating in the study had already possessed positive attitude towards technology as well as self-efficacy for computer use. Teachers were also given supervision during the development of NLS materials. The findings confirm an earlier study conducted by Drent and Meelissen (2008). Drent and Meelissen found that teachers with solid internal motivation to improve the quality of their teaching practice tend to take the initiative to achieve their goals. Moreover, teachers' interaction with other colleagues as well as educational experts for their professional development is believed to influence the innovative use of technology (Drent & Meelissen, 2008). The study thus indicates that teachers' positive attitude, computer self-efficacy, collaborative work as well as technological supports are some of the factors promoting teachers' confidence in using technology. The study also suggests that the

knowledge teachers gained from the overall process of the development of listening comprehension materials using technology contributes to their personal professional development.

CONCLUSIONS

The TTS application like Natural Reader has given EFL teachers a greater opportunity to self-develop their own native-like but still comprehensible listening materials. Teachers and their pupils perceived the NLS materials positively and felt that such materials met EFL listening classroom needs. In addition, the computer training addressed what the teachers needed and accordingly shaped their computer skills. Teachers' collaborative work during the NLS listening material development facilitated them to share knowledge and discuss the challenges they met together. It should be noted that teachers participating in the study had a positive attitude towards the use of technology in the EFL classroom prior to the experiment. Without this background information, teachers' perception of the overall process of the development of listening materials using TTS applications may vary. While this study suggests insights into the contribution of technology integration in teachers' teaching practices, it involved just two teachers and their classrooms, which is a small sample size. The result thus may not be generalizable.

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The Relationship between Authentic Materials and Cooperative Learning Strategy towards EFL Students' Reading Comprehension

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EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students of vocational high schools are requested to have skillful reading strategies to comprehend specific texts in English. To have a good comprehension, they utilize not only their strategies but also interesting and suitable texts. Therefore, this current study investigated the correlation between students' perception of the authentic materials and cooperative learning strategy towards students' reading comprehension. The data of the reading comprehension tests and the students' perception were analyzed using the multiple regression. The result revealed that (1) there was positive correlation between students' perception of the authentic materials and students reading comprehension, (2) there was significant positive effect of cooperative learning strategy towards reading comprehension, and (3) there was significant positive effect of reading materials towards cooperative learning strategy. These findings suggested that the choice of authentic materials could motivate students to comprehend ESP texts. Besides this, by doing cooperative learning strategy, the scaffolding could happen so that they could share their comprehension. In spite of its limitation, this study could have certain pedagogical implications to reading classroom activities.

Keywords: authentic materials, cooperative learning strategy, reading comprehension

Siswa yang belajar bahasa Inggris di Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan (SMK) diharapkan memiliki kemampuan membaca teks dalam bahasa Inggris. Untuk memiliki kemampuan tersebut, siswa perlu mengetahui tidak hanya strategi membaca tetapi juga tertarik dengan teks yang dibacanya. Oleh karena itu riset ini melihat hubungan antara persepsi siswa terhadap teks otentik dan strategi belajar kooperatif dengan kemampuan membaca siswa. Hasil tes

membaca dan persepsi siswa dianalisa menggunakan regresi. Hasilnya menunjukkan bahwa: (1) ada hubungan positif antara persepsi siswa terhadap materi otentik dengan kemampuan membaca siswa, (2) ada efek positif yang signifikan antara strategi belajar kooperatif dengan kemampuan membaca, dan (3) ada efek positif yang signifikan antara teks and strategi belajar kooperatif. Penemuan dari studi ini memberikan pencerahan bahwa pilihan teks otentik dapat meningkatkan kemampuan membaca siswa. Disamping itu, strategi belajar kooperatif dapat memfasilitasi perkembangan membaca siswa dimana mereka bisa saling memberikan kontribusi. Meskipun ada keterbatasan, riset ini memiliki implikasi pendidikan terhadap kegiatan membaca dalam bahasa Inggris.

INTRODUCTION

Some previous studies found that in addition to readers' vocabulary repertoire, the choice of materials affect the readers' reading comprehension. Sacha (2006) found that students were not motivated when materials were selected from the textbook, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, because the materials were not very stimulating. However, when they were given authentic materials downloaded from the internet, magazines, and brochures, combined with the use of task based activities and pair or group work, they were highly motivated. Similarly, the study conducted by Henita (2007) show that learners gave positive responses towards the use of authentic materials in their English class. This could be inferred that students need materials from various sources which are related to their specialization. These authentic materials could help them cater for their jobs when they graduate although they still found difficulties dealing with the authentic texts as these materials were not specifically designed for teaching. These studies support some previous studies which reveal that the authentic materials are considered to be interesting, appropriate and motivating for students at advanced levels (Guariento & Moreley, 2001; Mishan 2004). Thus, these suggest that authentic materials can reflect the real communication, and they could fulfill some social purposes in the language community (Peacock, 1997).

Using authentic materials in the classroom gain some advantages. One of them is to expose students to real language even though the classroom is not a real life situation. In choosing texts for students of vocational high schools who study English for Specific Purposes (ESP), authenticity should be the main consideration. This is supported by Coffey (as cited in Jordan, 1997) who states that "All ESP work is in essence a simulation of a real

life task, serendipity is therefore one of the main virtues required (of the ESP writers): the ability to find an authentic text that will suit pedagogic needs.” (p. 136).

Some other authors such as Richards (2001) and Tamo (2009) suggest that authentic materials come from different sources such as texts, photographs, video selection, and teaching materials which are not prepared for pedagogical purposes. In this current study, the authentic materials were some sources from the internet, newspaper, magazine, and brochures. All materials were related to students’ field of studying the Indonesian vocational high schools, so it is expected that students can experience the real condition contributing to their future employment.

Another factor that influences the readers’ success in reading comprehension is learning strategy. Several studies have been conducted concerning learning strategy. Rahvard (2010), for instance, has investigated cooperative learning strategy in the teaching of reading. He did an experimental study to find out whether cooperative learning strategy motivated students in reading and to investigate whether the choice of cooperative learning strategy improved students’ reading comprehension. His findings reveal that the group using cooperative learning strategies achieved significantly higher results than the group without cooperative learning strategies. Similarly, Sudo and Takaesu (2012) conducted a study on collaborative map creation activity involving 51 students as participants at a private liberal art university in Tokyo. They found that the collaborative strategy encouraged students’ enjoyment, and students felt excited in comprehending the texts.

Cooperative learning is a method of instruction in which students work together in groups, usually with the goal of completing a specific task. This method is believed to be able to help students develop leadership skills and promote the ability to work with others as a team. Lewis (as cited in Slavin, 1983) argues that “cooperative learning is a form of active learning where students work together to perform specific tasks in a small group” (p. 13). In doing this learning strategy, a teacher is advised to selectively group students who are heterogeneous in nature in order that they can mingle and contribute each other significantly.

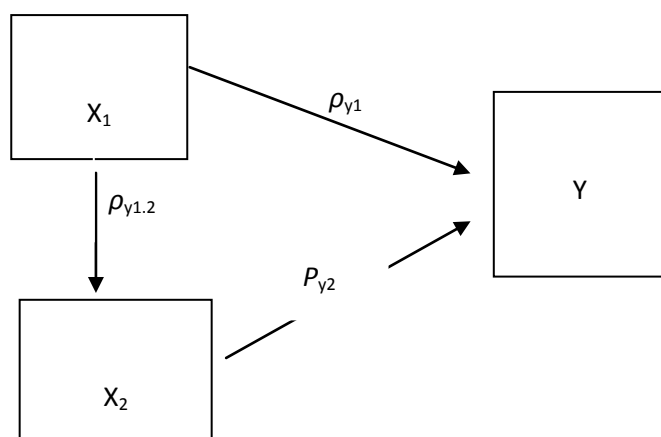
Some previous studies have indicated the positive effects of authentic materials on reading comprehension and the significant effects of cooperative learning strategies on reading comprehension; yet, there are a few studies investigating whether there are positive relationships between the students’ perception of authentic materials and cooperative learning strategy. This study, therefore, aims at providing some contribution to this area.

METHODS

Subjects and Design

The subjects of this study were the students of the State Vocational High School 20 Jakarta. Out of 253 students, there were 76 students who were randomly selected for this study. When the subjects participated in the study, they were all sitting at the second level (class 11). The authentic materials provided to them were adjusted to their field of study which belongs to the area of ESP. The goal of taking this course was to have reading comprehension skills. There are three variables, namely the students' perception of authentic materials (x_1) as the first independent variable and cooperative learning strategy (x_2) as the second independent variable which have contribution to students' reading comprehension achievement (Y) as the dependent variable, as illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 1: Variable constellation



Note:

X_1 = Students' perception of the authentic materials

X_2 = Cooperative learning strategy

Y = Students reading comprehension achievement

Instruments

To elicit the data, two instruments were used: questionnaire for X_1 and X_2 , and reading comprehension test for Y . The two instruments were constructed based on operational definition which was drawn in blue print from the instrument and indicator. Each indicator was used to construct items as a research instrument.

Questionnaires were used to measure the students' perception of authentic materials and cooperative learning strategy. Questionnaires were measured by *Likert* scale with 5 options comprising of both positive and negative options. The questionnaires were constructed based on the blueprint that was arranged from dimension and indicator. Each indicator was used for question items (see Appendix 1).

Reading comprehension test was used to measure students' reading comprehension which was designed by the teacher (one of the researchers) based on the school syllabus. The test consisted of 20 items of multiple choice (MC) forms with four options: a, b, c, or d. The MC was used in order to make the researcher easier in administering and investigating students' reading comprehension score (see Appendix 1). The data from reading comprehension test and the questionnaire of cooperative learning strategy were analyzed by the regression formula as presented in the findings and discussion section below.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study applied the regression formula and correlation to test the three hypotheses. The first hypothesis was to find out the correlation between authentic materials and students' reading comprehension. The second hypothesis was to know the correlation between cooperative learning strategy and students' reading comprehension. The third hypothesis was to gain the correlation between authentic materials and cooperative learning strategy towards students reading comprehension.

The Relationship between the Authentic Materials (X₁) and Reading Comprehension (Y)

The first hypothesis states that there is correlation between students' perception of reading material (X₁) and students reading comprehension (Y). After calculating the data, it was obtained that the prediction equation or simple regression formula was $\hat{Y} = -3.747 + 0.270 X_1$. The significant and linearity test were done to find out whether the formula was significant or not. The result of calculation of significant and linearity test can be seen in the table below:

Table 1: Table ANOVA significant linearity test $\hat{Y} = -3.747 + 0.270 X_1$

Variance	Hypotheses	TS	ATS	F _o	F _t on α	
					0.05	0.01
Total	76	14928				
Regression (a)	1	14561,9	14561,9			
Regression (b)	1	322,17	322,175	542.695^{**}	4.03	7.48
Regression (r)	74	43,930	0,59366			
Non Properly	18	25,563	0,4565	0.447^{NS}	2.66	1.92
Galat (G)	56	18,366	1,02037			

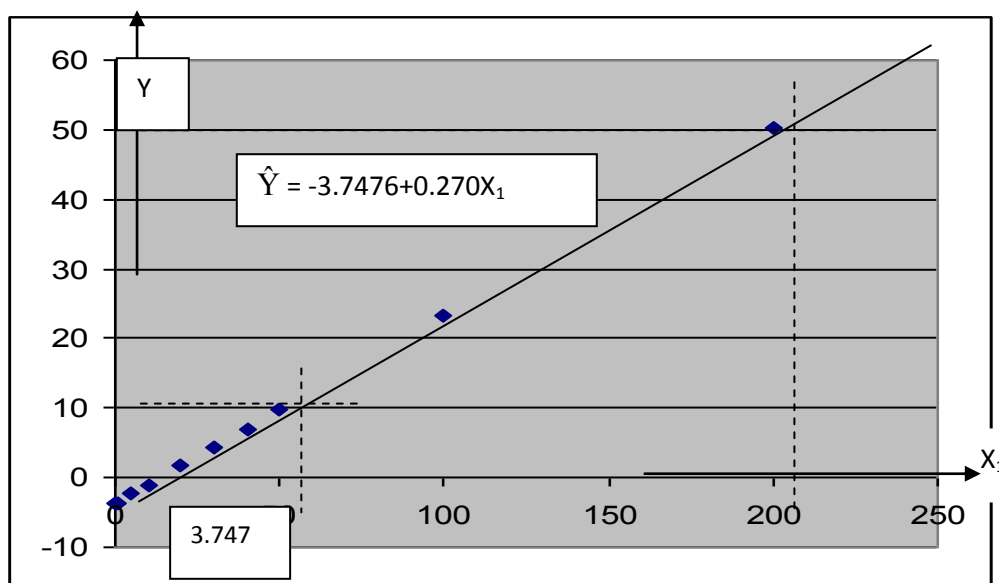
Note:

^{**}) very significance regression $F_o = 542.695 > F_{\text{table}} = 4.03$ and $F_{\text{table}} = 7.48$ on significant degree $\alpha=0.05$ or $\alpha=0.01$

^{NS}) linearity regression $F_o = 0.447 < F_t = 1.92$ on $\alpha=0.01$

Table 1 indicated that $F_{-x1} > F_{(\alpha=0.01)(1;74)}$ or $F_{x1-0} = 542.695 > F_{(\alpha=0.01)(1;74)} = 7.48$. It means that $H_o: \beta_{31} = 0$ was not accepted, and $H_i: \beta_{31} \neq 0$ was accepted. In other words, regression equation Y on X_1 was very significant. The linearity of regression equation was $F_{(\alpha=0.05)(18;56)} = 2.66$ and $F_{(\alpha=0.01)(12;56)} = 1.92$. After comparing with F_{table} , it was found that $F_{x10} < F_{(\alpha=0.01)(18;56)}$ or $F_{x1-2} = 0.447 < F_{(\alpha=0.01)(18;56)} = 1.92$ so, $H_o: \beta_{31} = 0$ was accepted, and $H_i: \beta_{31} \neq 0$ was refused because it was not true. So, the H_o was accepted, meaning that there was the correlation between students' perception of reading materials and reading comprehension. It can be concluded that the linearity of regression equation Y on X_1 was linear. The linearity of regression equation $\hat{Y} = -3.747 + 0.270 X_1$ can be illustrated below:

Figure 2: The graph of model $\hat{Y} = -3.747 + 0.270 X_1$



The significance and linearity regression test $\hat{Y} = -3.747 + 0.270 X_1$ was very significant and linear. It indicates that every increase of students' perception of authentic materials (X_1) score would raise 0.270 point of reading comprehension (Y) in -3.747 of constants.

The strength of the correlation between students' perception of the authentic materials (X_1) and students reading comprehension (Y) was shown by coefficient correlation $r_{y1,2} = 0.585$. The result of coefficient correlation of students' perception of authentic materials (X_1) towards reading comprehension (X_3) showed that there was correlation of each variable. It means that students' perception of authentic materials played an important role to improve the students' ability in comprehending the text. It is very reasonable that students' perception of authentic materials affect students to comprehend the text because of several reasons. First, when students read the text dealing with their interest, it can stimulate them to dig every sentence in the text and try to comprehend it. Second, when the text has specific purpose which relates to students' need, they could have good response. Third, when the text sends up dating information, students will be enthusiastic to get the information.

These findings are in line with the findings of previous studies (Guariento & Morley 2001; Henita, 2007; Mishan 2004, Sacha 2006). They found that if students were interested in the text, they had great motivation to find out what they read. Consequently, it helps them to comprehend the text easily. Thus, the findings suggest that the choice of reading materials is one of the ways for teachers to help students comprehend texts. However, the study also found that though the students were interested in the authentic text, they seemed to find some difficulties when the

authentic text was beyond their background knowledge. In this case, Clavel-Arroitia and Fuster-Marguez (2014) suggest that teachers have to make a kind of modification of the sources which might facilitate the students at these levels.

The Relationship between Cooperative Learning Strategy (X₂) and Reading Comprehension (Y)

The second hypothesis states that there is correlation between cooperative learning strategy (X₂) and reading comprehension (Y). After calculating the data, it was obtained that the prediction equation or simple regression formula was $\hat{Y} = -11.350 + 0.265 X_2$. The significance and linearity test were done to find out whether the formula was significant or not. The result of calculation of significance and linearity test can be seen below:

Table 2: ANOVA of significant and linearity test $\hat{Y} = -11.350 + 0.265 X_2$

Variance	df	TS	ATS	F _o	F _t on α	
					0.05	0.01
Total	76	14928				
Regression (a)	1	14561,9	14561,9			
Regression (b)	1	308,371	308,371	395.248^{**}	4.03	7.48
Regression (r)	74	57,7345	0,7802			
Non Properly	20	24,8702	0,46056	0.280^{NS}	2.66	1.92
Galat (G)	54	32,8643	1,64321			

Note:

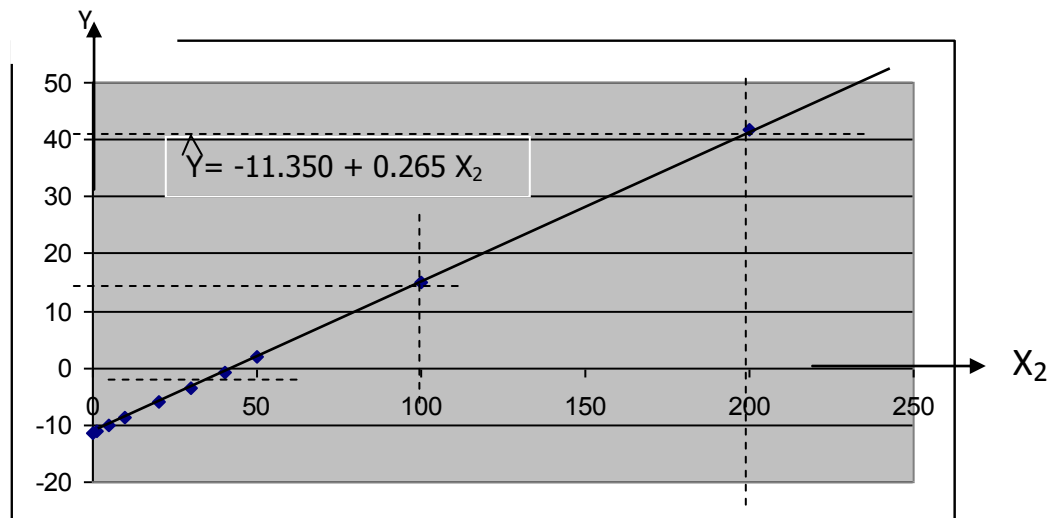
^{**}) regression was very significance $F_o = 395.248 > F_{table} = 4.03$ and $F_{table} = 7.48$ at significance degree $\alpha=0.05$ $\alpha=0.01$

^{NS}) linearity regression $F_o = 0.280 < F_t = 1.92$ $\alpha=0.01$

Table 2 showed that $F_{-10} > F_{(\alpha=0.01)(1;74)}$ or $F_{x1} = 395.248 > F_{(\alpha=0.01)(1;74)} = 7.48$, meaning that $H_o: \beta_{32} = 0$ was refused and $H_i: \beta_{32} \neq 0$ was accepted. It can be concluded that the linearity regression Y on X₂ was very significant.

The linearity of regression equation was $F_{(\alpha=0.05)(11;62)} = 2.66$ and $F_{(\alpha=0.01)(20;54)} = 1.92$. After it is compared with F_{table} , $F_{20} < F_{(\alpha=0.01)(20;54)}$ or $F_{X_1-20} = 0.280 < F_{(\alpha=0.01)(20;54)} = 1.92$ so, $H_0: \beta_{32} = 0$ was accepted and $H_1: \beta_{32} \neq 0$ was refused. The linearity of regression equation $\hat{Y} = -11.350 + 0.265 X_2$ can be illustrated on the graphic below:

Figure 3: The graph of model $\hat{Y} = -11.350 + 0.265 X_2$



The result reveals that the significant and linearity regression test $\hat{Y} = -11.350 + 0.265 X_2$ was very significant and linear. It indicates that every increase of cooperative learning strategy (X_2) score would raise 0.265 point of students reading comprehension (Y) in -11.350 of constants.

The strength of correlation between cooperative learning strategy (X_2) and students reading comprehension (Y) was pointed out by the coefficient correlation $r_{y2.1} = 0.370$. This result indicates that there is positive correlation between cooperative learning strategy (X_2) and students reading comprehension (Y). It can be concluded that cooperative learning strategy support students in comprehending the text. There are some reasons why this research finding is acceptable. First, not all students have high motivation in reading. It is because they do not have enough vocabularies to understand the text. This situation makes the students bored and reluctant to read. So, students should be given time to discuss the text in a group. By sharing their knowledge, they will grasp the information of the text and comprehend it easier. Second, cooperative learning will help students who cannot learn individually when they have obstacles in reading class. Learning in a group will assist students to solve their difficulties in comprehending the text. Third, cooperative learning leads students to be more active in learning. If the atmosphere of learning is active, it could stimulate students to

compete each other to understand what they are reading. Thus, it will improve their reading comprehension. These findings support some previous studies conducted by Rivard (2010) and Sudo and Takesu (2012).

The Composite Relation between the Authentic Materials (X1) and Cooperative Learning towards Reading Comprehension (Y)

The third hypothesis states that there is composite correlation between students' perception of authentic materials (X₁) and the cooperative learning strategy (X₂) towards reading comprehension (Y). After calculating the data, it was obtained that the prediction equation or multiple regression formula was $\hat{Y} = -4.064 + 0.261 X_1 + 0,010 X_2$. The significant test was done to find out whether the formula was significant or not. The result of calculation of significant test can be seen below.

Table 3: ANOVA of significant test $\hat{Y} = -4.064 + 0.261 X_1 + 0,010 X_2$

Variance	df	TS	ATS	F _o	F _t on α	
					0.05	0.01
Total	76	14928				
Regression (b ₀)	1	191,604	191,604			
Total correction (TC)	1	366,105	366,105			
Regression (b)	2	322,195	161,098			
Regression (r)	73	43,9102	0,60151	267.822^{**}	3.15	4.98

Note:

^{**}) Multiple regression was very significance $F_o = 267,822 > F_{table} = 3.15$ and $F_{table} = 4.98$ at significance degree $\alpha=0.05$ $\alpha=0.01$

Table 3 shows that $F_{-10} > F_{(1;74)(\alpha=0.01)}$ or $F_{x1-10} = 267,822 > F_{(2;73)(\alpha=0.01)} = 4.98$ meaning that $H_o: \beta_{21} = 0$ was refused and $H_i: \beta_{21} \neq 0$ was accepted. It can be concluded that the multiple regression X₁ and X₂ on Y was very significant.

Based on the significance of multiple regression test of students' perception of authentic materials (X₁) and cooperative learning strategy (X₂) towards students' reading comprehension $\hat{Y} = -4.064 + 0.261$

$X_1 + 0,010 X_2$, it can be suggested that every increase of students' perception of authentic materials (X_1) score raise 0.361, and the cooperative learning strategy (X_2) score could raise 0.010 point of reading comprehension (Y) in -4.064 of constants. The strength of correlation between students' perception of authentic materials (X_1) and the cooperative learning strategy (X_2) towards students reading comprehension was pointed out by coefficient correlation $r_{y.12} = 0.938$.

It can be concluded that students' perception of authentic materials and cooperative learning strategy improve students to achieve reading comprehension. When students are provided by interesting and challenging texts, they utilize the suitable learning strategies at the same time. Since the text was very challenging and interesting, they were motivated to cooperate with their group to find out solutions which were needed. Thus, the interaction among them happened in the process of learning activity in the classroom. This argument is also reflected in the results of questionnaire of cooperative learning strategy. The results reveal that 76 students provided the maximum score (113 out of the total score /194), meaning that most of them enjoy having the authentic materials for reading comprehension.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings presented above, there are some pedagogical implications which are necessary to be drawn. First, to improve EFL students reading comprehension, teachers need to select authentic and challenging reading materials. They can be taken from newspapers, magazines, or the internet which are available and relatively easy to be accessed by both teachers and students. Authentic materials are quite relevant to students' future jobs if selected well though these materials challenge them as they are not specifically designed for the classroom use. Second, cooperative learning strategy is believed to facilitate EFL students who cannot study individually. By doing cooperative learning strategy, the scaffolding could be facilitated, meaning that smart students could help poor ones. Third, reading materials would be a source in cooperative learning. By having enough authentic reading materials, every student could contribute to each other within the group.

In spite of the merits, this study has flaws because of technical random sampling and limited time of experiment. The research took its samples of subject only at second year students of one vocational high school in Jakarta; as a result, it could not generalize all students because each level of students has a different ability in comprehending texts. Thus, a further study with a wide range of population may be needed. Besides this, further studies investigating texts and learning strategies need to be expanded as appropriate texts and

learning strategies are not the only way of improving students' reading comprehension; there are some more aspects related to reading comprehension such as readers' threshold of vocabulary mastery and students' motivation.

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APPENDIX 1

Sample of reading comprehension test (MC) - Text One

BRUEGGER'S BAGEL BAKERY

Bruegger's Bagel Bakery makes and sells a variety of bagels, including plain, onion, poppy seed, and cinnamon raisin, as well as assorted flavors of cream cheese. Bagels are the major sources of revenue for the company.

Bagels are very popular with consumers. Not only are they relatively low in fat, they are filling and **they** taste good! Investors like the bagel industry because it can be highly profitable: **it** only costs about \$.10 to make a bagel, and they can be sold for \$.50 each or more. Although some bagel companies have done poorly in recent years, due mainly to poor management, Bruegger's business is booming, it is number one nationally, with over 450

shops that sell bagels, coffee, and bagel sandwiches for takeout or on-premise consumption. Many stores in the Bruegger's chain generate an average of \$800,000 in sales annually.

Production of bagels is done in batches, according to flavor, with each flavor being produced on a daily basis. Production of bagel ingredients of flour, water, yeast, and flavorings are combined in a special mixing machine. After the dough has been thoroughly mixed, it is transferred to another machine that shapes the dough into individual bagels. Once the bagels have been formed, they are loaded onto refrigerated trucks for shipping to individual stores. When the bagels reach a store, they are unloaded from the trucks and temporarily stored while they rise. The final two steps of processing involve boiling the bagels in a kettle of water and malt for one minute, and then baking the bagels in an oven for approximately 15 minutes.

Quality is an important feature of a successful business. Customers judge the quality of bagels by their appearance (size, shape, and shine), taste, and consistency. Customers are also sensitive to the service when they make their purchases. Bruegger's devotes careful attention to quality at every stage of operation, from choosing suppliers of ingredients, careful monitoring ingredients, and keeping equipment in good operating condition to monitoring output at each step in the process. At the stores, employees are instructed to watch for deformed bagels and to remove them when **they** find them. Employees who work in the stores are carefully chosen and then trained so that they are competent to operate the necessary equipment in the stores and to provide the desired level of service to customers.

The company operates with minimal inventories of raw materials and inventories of partially completed bagels at the plant and very little inventory of bagels at the stores. One reason for this is to maintain a high degree of freshness in the final product by continually supplying fresh product to the stores. A second reason is to keep costs down; minimal inventories mean less space is needed for storage. (adopted from www.brueggers.com)

Based on the passage above, answer these questions by crossing the correct choice.

1. How many types of bread roll does the above company produce? They are more or less
A. two B. three C. four D. five
2. Why did Bagel's business ever go down? Because of
A. Bad quality B. Poor management C. Low Cost D. Wrong Marketing
3. What is the main idea of passage two?
A. Not only are they relatively low in fat, they are failing and they taste good!
B. Investors like the bagel industry because it can be highly profitable.
C. Bagels are very popular with consumers.
D. Many stores in the Bruegger's chain generate an average of \$800,000 in sales annually.
4. How much does the Bagel earn from Bruegger every year?

- A. \$ 10. B. \$50 C. \$ 450 D. \$ 800,000
5. What are the benefits of maintaining relatively little inventory for Bruegger's?
 A. Low cost and High profits C. High cost and small spaces
 B. Low cost and freshness of goods D. High cost and freshness of goods
6. In what paragraph does the writer explain the production process? Sum-up it.
 A. One B. Two C. Three D. Four
7. How are the qualities of the company's workers? They have to be
 A. competent only C. trained only
 B. selected and selected D. competent, trained and selected.
8. What do these word "they" in line 4? It refers to ...
 A. Begals B. Burggers C. Customers D. Investors
9. What does the word "generate" mean? It means ...
 A. earn B. produce C. invest D. spend
10. What does the word "they" refer to? It refer to ...
 A. Begals B. employees C. consumers D. employers

APPENDIX 2

INSTRUMENT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF READING MATERIALS AFTER TRYING OUT

NAMA:

KELAS:

PETUNJUK PENGISIAN: ISILAH PERNYATAAN DIBAWAH INI SESUAI DENGAN PENDAPATMU

No	Butir Pernyataan	Selalu	Sering	Kadang-Kadang	Jarang	Tidak-Pernah
1	Untuk melatih kemampuan memahami teks bahasa Inggris, saya membaca suka memaca teks berbahasa Inggris melalui internet					
2	Saya menghindari bacaan berbahasa Inggris yang di karang oleh orang Indonesia					

3	Saya senang membaca berita bahasa Inggris di internet					
5	Saya menghadapi kesulitan dalam memahami bacaan dari koran berbahasa Inggris					
6	Saya senang membaca bahasa Inggris yang terkait dengan berita yang terhangat saat ini					
7	Teks yang menarik menambah semangat saya untuk memahami isinya					
8	Bentuk teks memengaruhi saya memahami isi bacaan					
9	Membaca koran/majalah berbahasa Inggris berpengaruh terhadap hasil belajar bahasa Inggris saya					
10	Belajar bahasa Inggris lebih mudah jika sering membaca koran/majalah berbahasa Inggris					
11	Saya memilih bacaan sesuai dengan minat saya					
12	Saya tertarik dengan bacaan bahasa Inggris yang dapat menunjang cita-cita saya					
13	Saya menemukan kata-kata baru ketika membaca koran/majalah berbahasa Inggris					
14	Teks berbahasa Inggris dari internet menambah pengetahuan saya tentang struktur kalimat					
15	Saya kurang memahami isi bacaan jika tidak tahu artinya					
16	Saya menebak arti kata untuk memahami isi					

	bacaan					
17	Untuk memahami bacaan, saya menghubungkan bacaan yang lalu dengan sekarang					
18	Pengalaman membaca yang lalu mampu memberikan pemahaman terhadap apa yang sedang saya baca					
19	Memanfaatkan lingkungan sebagai sumber belajar membaca dari internet					
20	Bahasa Inggris yang digunakan di tempat umum mudah dipahami					

The Relationship between Field Dependence-Independence and Reading Strategy toward Reading Comprehension

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This study investigated the relationship between learning style (X_1) and reading strategy (X_2) toward reading comprehension (Y). The learning style is categorized into two: field independence (FI) and field dependence (FD). This study was carried out in one of the public senior high schools in Jakarta by using purposive sampling technique; 79 out of 120 students of science class in academic year 2008-2009 were chosen. The quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze the data. Questionnaires and one reading comprehension test were distributed to analyze the data quantitatively. The first instrument identified students belonging to FI or FD. The second instrument concerned with identifying the frequency of reading strategy that students mostly used. 20 numbers of reading comprehension test were given to measure the comprehension and strategy that they used. This study found that both learning style (X_1) and reading strategy (X_2) influenced the reading comprehension (Y). In other words, the more independent students are and the more frequent they use strategy, the greater they will comprehend the text. As a consequence, the findings suggest that teachers introduce various kinds of strategy in reading comprehension because every student needs particular strategy.

Keywords: learning style, field-independence, field dependence, reading strategy, reading comprehension

Studi ini mencari hubungan antara tipe belajar (X_1) dan strategi membaca (X_2) terhadap kemampuan membaca (Y). Tipe belajar dibagi menjadi dua: 'field independence' (FI) dan 'field dependence' (FD). Studi ini dilakukan di salah satu SMA di Jakarta dengan menggunakan teknik sampel purposif. 79 dari 120 siswa jurusan IPA tahun akademik 2008-2009 dipilih. Metode kualitatif dan kuantitatif digunakan untuk menganalisa data. Kwestioner dan tes membaca diberikan untuk menganalisa data secara kuantitatif. Instrumen pertama digunakan untuk membagi siswa ke dalam FI dan FD. Instrumen kedua digunakan untuk mengidentifikasi frekuensi strategi membaca yang

paling banyak digunakan siswa. Studi ini menemukan bahwa tipe belajar (X₁) dan strategi belajar (X₂) berpengaruh terhadap kemampuan membaca (Y). Dengan kata lain, semakin mandiri siswa dan semakin sering mereka menggunakan strategi, akan lebih besar kesempatan mereka mengerti suatu teks. Oleh karena itu, studi ini merekomendasikan agar guru memperkenalkan beragam strategi dalam membaca karena setiap siswa memerlukan strategi tertentu.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few years, English language teaching methodologies have developed very rapidly. An important recent development in the methodology has been the shift of emphasis from the teacher-centered learning to the learner-centered learning. In other words, the main concern activities in the classroom focus more on students than on teachers. So, a teacher needs to help students identify the most appropriate strategies for their own learning styles in order to make them autonomous learners. Unfortunately, what learning styles the students have and what strategies they use to understand the information seem to be mostly unknown by teachers. In addition, students have difficulties dealing with texts. In fact, many researchers believe that the teaching and learning process may be more successful if only a teacher focuses more on the use of appropriate strategies for a particular students' learning style.

Based on a cognitive style, a learning style can be categorized into two: *Field Independence* (FI) and *Field Dependence* (FD). Students with FI learn independently, step-by-step and with sequential instruction. They get the idea of the lesson specifically as well. On the other hand, students with FD can involve in a group and learn most effectively when information is presented in the context. They also get the idea of the lesson generally. Both learning styles have very significant differences and could make a problem for a teacher. The problem mostly appears in the receptive skills (reading and listening) where the FI students could solve a problem by themselves, while FD students couldn't do it. They need to work in group and discuss a problem with others. So, field independent students may show higher achievement in reading rather than field dependent students (Tinajero & Paramo, 1998). Moreover, based on the research conducted by Tedjasuksmana, Veronica & Susana (2004), it shows FI people get significantly better reading comprehension than FD people. This is because the FI used appropriate reading strategies to comprehend reading texts (Tedjasuksmana et al, 2004). However, not all FI students have a better comprehension in

reading. It happens because sometimes they fail to use the strategies. Failure to use reading strategies effectively has been observed in the first language reading of young or unskilled readers when (1) they fail to monitor their comprehension, (2) they believe that strategies will not make a difference in their reading, (3) they lack knowledge about text features, (4) they are uninterested in text and unwilling to use strategies, and (5) they prefer familiar yet primitive strategies over less-familiar but more effective tactics. Furthermore, the use of certain reading strategies does not always lead to successful reading comprehension, while failure to use these strategies or use of other strategies does not always result in unsuccessful reading comprehension. Therefore, this study aims to investigate whether there is any relationship between learning style and reading strategy toward students' reading comprehension.

FI and FD Styles

Field Independence-Dependence is one of dimensions of learning style. The term 'learning style' refers to the general approach preferred by the student when learning a subject, acquiring a language, or dealing with a difficult problem (Oxford, 2003). Learning style is an overall pattern that provides broad direction to learning. There are many areas of learning style which are based on sensory (visual/auditory/hands on), social style dimension (extroverted/introverted), and cognitive style dimension. However, this research was limited to the learning style based on cognitive style dimension: a method of how we learn things in general, and the approach we use in overcoming a problem (Brown, 2000), namely the field dependent (FD) style and the field independent (FI) style.

Brown (2000) states that 'field' refers to a set of thoughts, ideas, or feelings from which specific relevant subsets are perceived. The 'field' may be perceptual, or it may be abstract such as a set of ideas, thoughts, or feelings from which the task is to perceive specific subsets. FI concerns on the perceptual skill of "seeing the forest for the trees" (Brown, 2000, p. 115). He give an illustration by explaining that a person who can easily recognize the hidden castle or human face in 3-D posters, or a child who can spot the monkeys camouflaged within the trees and leaves of an exotic forest in coloring books tend to have a field independent style. An FI enables learners to differentiate parts from a whole, to focus on something, and to analyze a variable without being disturbed by other variables. Learners who tend to be autonomous and self-reliant on developing cognitive restructuring abilities are FI learners. When FI learners are language learners, they are more confident and active to speak out in class and to take risks. Witkin (as cited in Reid, 1995) argues that such language

learners are able to monitor grammatical correctness, to learn linguistic rules, to perform on classroom-oriented language tests and to do particularly well on the cloze test. Similarly, Abraham (as cited in Brown, 2000) states that second language learners who are field independent perform better in deductive lessons. The FI learners do better in classroom learning which involves analysis, attention to details, exercises, drills, and other focused activities.

On the other hand, FD students tend to be ‘dependent’ on the external frame. Brown (2000) argues that field dependence tend to be dependent on the total field and perceive field as a whole. FD learners, unlike FI learners who are able to develop their self-guideness, rely on others for information and approval. In class activities, FD learners depend on the teacher to perform their cognitive abilities. FD learners are more successful with inductive lesson designs. Outside the class, FD learners are good at interacting socially with language acquisition through contextualized practice with native speakers. The FD learners seem to achieve a higher degree of success in everyday language situations and the task which require interpersonal communication skills. So, the language learners who are field dependent perform better in inductive lessons (Brown, 2000). The following table proposed by Wyss (2002) is the principal characteristics of the two cognitive styles and the implications of each for L2 (second language).

Table 1: The differences between Field Independent (FI) - Field Dependent (FD) students

Field Independence(FI)	Field Dependence(FD)
<i>1. Impersonal orientation</i> i.e. reliance on internal frame of reference in processing information.	<i>1. Personal orientation</i> i.e. reliance on external frame of reference in processing information
<i>2. Analytic</i> i.e. perceives a field in terms of its component parts; parts are distinguished from background	<i>2. Holistic</i> i.e. perceives field as a whole; parts are combined with background
<i>3. Independent</i> i.e. sense of separate identity	<i>3. Dependent</i> i.e. the self view is derived from others
<i>4. Not so socially aware</i> i.e. less skilled in interpersonal/social relationships	<i>4. Socially sensitive</i> i.e. greater skill in interpersonal/social relationships

Many studies (e.g. Clark & Roof, 1988) have showed that FI students perform better than FD students in any subjects. Marendaz (as cited in Tinajero, 1997) states field-independent subjects follow a more analytical approach. The ‘analytical’ approach is widely considered to be better suited to academic achievement, and studies have frequently demonstrated that FI subjects perform better than FD subjects on many intellectual tasks. This, however, brings the assumption of neutrality into doubt and gives rise to a long-running debate (Tinajero, Carolina & Paramo, 1998). In short, many studies show that FI students tend to have a better achievement in all subjects and academic fields rather than FD students because of their ability to concentrate and focus and their high confidence.

Reading Strategy

In approaching a learning task, learners employ various strategies. Chamot (2005) states that strategies are a set of productions which are compiled and fine-tuned until they become procedural knowledge. Strategies are quite intentional on the part of the learners when they are in the process of learning. Learners use their strategies to select, acquire, organize or integrate new knowledge. On the other hand, Allen (2003) states the term ‘strategy’ means a step or action that is designed to enhance learning. That is not automatic, but it is intentionally chosen by the learner and is applied to a learning task. She argues that a student must have alternatives from which to choose, must be deliberate about the advantages and disadvantages of each relative to the task at hand, and select the strategy because it is judged to be more effective for meeting goals than its alternatives.

Second language reading researchers began to focus on reading strategies in the late 1970s and early 1980s. Reading strategies can be defined as a flexible plan that readers apply to a variety of texts and tasks. Reading strategies have much in common with learning strategies, but readers deliberately use them to understand and remember what they read. By using reading strategies, all students, including L1 and L2 students, can learn to read independently (Allen, 2003). Moreover, Cohen (1983) states that reading strategies are the mental processes that readers consciously choose to comprehend a text. These strategies also refer to the readers’ approach to make sense of what they read effectively. These opinions are rather closely related to the notion stated by Chamot (2005). According to her, reading strategies which are conscious and goal-driven, are procedures that facilitate a reading task. Reading strategies which are related to other cognitive strategies enhancing attention, memory, communication, and learning allow readers to elaborate, organize, and evaluate information derived from a text. Because strategies are controllable by readers, they are

personal cognitive tools that can be used selectively and flexibly. Reading strategies are also considered as the fundamental factors that promote students' comprehension improvement in reading. In short, reading strategies can be simply defined as strategic procedures consciously used by a reader in comprehend a text.

There are some strategies typically used by language learners to develop their cognitive category for reading comprehension. Chamot (2005) lists some strategies, among others: repeating names to be remembered, grouping and classifying words or concepts, inferencing to guess meaning, and summarizing.

Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is a complex intellectual process involving a number of abilities. The two major abilities involve word meanings and reasoning with verbal concepts. Reading comprehension can be categorized into a hierarchy of four levels: literal comprehension, interpretation, critical reading, and creative reading.

Literal comprehension represents the ability to obtain a low-level type of understanding by using only information explicitly stated. This category requires a lower level of thinking skills than the other three levels. Answers to literal questions simply demand that the pupil recall from memory what the book says.

Interpretation category demands a higher level of thinking ability because the questions in the category of interpretation are concerned with the answers that are not directly stated in the text but are suggested or implied. To answer questions at the interpretative level, readers must have problem-solving ability and be able to work at various levels of abstraction. Obviously, children who are slow learners will have difficulty working at this level.

Critical reading is at the higher level than the other two categories because it involves evaluation, the making of a personal judgment on the accuracy, value, and truthfulness of what is read. To be able to make judgments, a reader must be able to collect, interpret, apply, analyze, and synthesize the information. Critical reading includes such skills as the ability to differentiate between fantasy and reality and the ability to discern propaganda techniques. Critical reading is related to critical listening because they both require critical thinking.

Creative reading uses divergent thinking skills to go beyond the literal comprehension, interpretation, and critical-reading levels. In creative reading, the reader tries to come up with new or alternate solutions to those presented by the writer.

The interpretation category such as finding main idea of a paragraph probably spends most of the teachers' time (Rubin, 1982). Furthermore, the last two categories, creative and critical reading comprehension, are often neglected by teachers because of their own insecurities in those areas. It does happen in a syllabus of English lesson in senior high schools. It is written that in reading comprehension, the students should find out the main-idea, specific information explicitly and implicitly from the text. Thus, on this research, the writer was concerned with using the interpretation category as the basis of measuring reading comprehension.

METHODS

Research Design

This study aims at investigating the problem of reading strategy for Field Independence (FI) students and Field Dependence (FD) students and their relationship with reading strategy toward reading comprehension. There were two variables: variable X_1 as the first independent variables (FI & FD students) and variable X_2 as the second independent variables (reading strategy) which had interconnected and influenced the variable Y as the dependent variable (reading comprehension). So, the research focused on a quantitative approach to discover the relationship among variables. The multiple regression is used to analyze the data. Furthermore, the qualitative approach was used to elaborate the reading strategy used by each learning style.

Population and Sample

The research was conducted at Public Senior High School (SMAN) 9 in East Jakarta. The population of the research was all students of the third grade majoring in science program. Out of 120 students, the researcher took 79 (65%) students based on a random purposive sampling. This allowed the researcher to hand-pick respondents for a study and make judgment to choose participants for the specific qualities. The number of samples was quite representative for the whole population.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The research was conducted to test three hypotheses. Furthermore, the tests of hypotheses were done for each variable. The first hypothesis was tested to find the relationship between learning Style (X_1) and reading comprehension (Y). The second hypothesis was tested to

identify the relationship between reading strategy (X_2) and reading comprehension (Y). The third hypotheses was tested to find the relationship between learning style(X_1) and reading strategy (X_2) altogether toward reading comprehension (Y).

The Relationship between Learning Styles (X_1) and Reading Comprehension(Y)

The first hypothesis (H_i) states that there is a positive relationship between learning style (X_1) and reading comprehension (Y). After calculating the data, it is obtained that the prediction equation or regression formula was $\hat{Y} = -1.976 + 0.394X_1$. The formula indicates that every increase of learning style score affect the raise of 0.394 point of reading comprehension score in -1.976 of constants. The strength of the relationship between learning style (X_1) and reading comprehension (Y) is illustrated by coefficient correlation $r_{yx_1} = 0.410$. The significance test of coefficient correlation can be seen in the following table.

Table 2: The significant test of coefficient correlation between learning style (X_1) and reading comprehension (Y)

The correlation of	Coefficient Correlation	Determination Correlation	t_o	t_{table}	
				$\alpha = 0.05$	$\alpha = 0.01$
X_1 and Y	0.939	0.882	24.001**	1.63	2.35

** The coefficient correlation is very significant ($t_h = 24.001 > t_t = 1.63$)

Based on the result of significant test of coefficient correlation between learning style (X_1) and reading comprehension (Y), it is found that there is a positive relationship between them. In other words, the higher the score of learning style is, the higher the students' reading comprehension will be. For example, the student who had a score 48 for learning style could answer correctly 19 numbers out of 20 numbers in reading comprehension test. Meanwhile, the student who had a score below 30 for learning style could answer not more than 12 numbers out of 20 numbers in reading comprehension test. Moreover, the further analysis of the relationship between learning style, FI and FD, proves that the higher the score of learning style, the higher their reading comprehension will be. It happened because FI students have the ability to analyze, focus more on something and cannot be easily disturbed

by other variables such as the noisy environment, mood, etc. So, it can be concluded that the more independent someone's personality is, the higher their reading comprehension will be.

The Relationship between Reading Strategy (X₂) and Reading Comprehension(Y)

The second hypothesis states that there is a positive relationship between reading strategy (X₂) and reading comprehension (Y). However, before analyzing the relationship between X₂ and Y variables, the researcher identified the frequency of using reading strategy by FD and FI students, as shown in the following table.

Table 3: The frequency of using strategy by FD students in reading comprehension

No	Total	Percent	Rank	Strategy
1	92	9.4 %	1	Reasoning deductively
2	85	8.7 %	5	Analyzing expression / inferencing
3	85	8.7 %	6	Recognizing formula
4	53	5.4 %	12	Summarizing
5	91	9.3 %	3	Repeating
6	86	8.8 %	7	Skimming
7	92	9.4 %	2	Scanning
8	68	6.9 %	11	Taking Note
9	84	8.6 %	8	Highlighting
10	90	9.2 %	4	Guessing intelligently
11	78	7.9 %	9	Using synonym
12	77	7.8 %	10	Linguistic guessing
Total	981	100 %		

The above table shows that FD students use the strategy in reading. The *reasoning deductively* strategy is the most frequent strategy used, meaning that they read the specific detail first followed by the whole text to get general meaning of the text. This strategy is in line with the nature of the field dependence criteria which perceives everything globally. They rarely use *summarizing* in the end of their reading task because they have already caught the general idea of the text in the beginning of reading process.

On the other hand, FI students use the different strategy. *Guessing intelligently* is the most frequent strategy used in reading for them. This strategy is in line with the nature of FI students stating that they have more ability in analyzing or analytical perception.

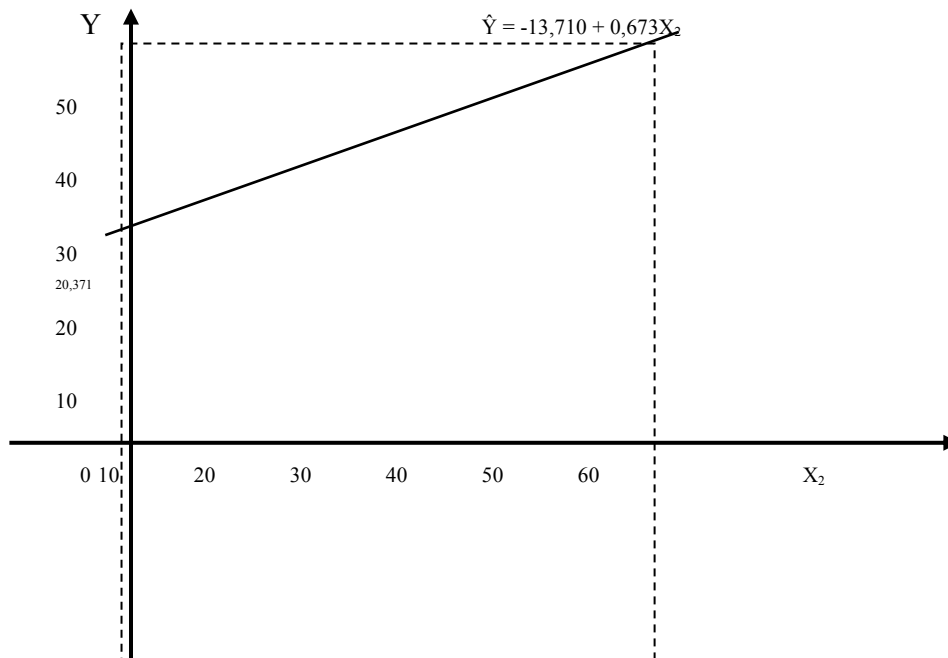
Furthermore, FI students have higher self-confidence than FD students. They bravely take a risk to guess the meaning of the words in the text, as can be seen in the following table.

Table 4: The frequency of using strategy by FI students in reading comprehension

No	Total	Percent	Rank	Strategy
1	199	9.2 %	2	Reasoning deductively
2	197	9.1 %	3	Analyzing expression / inferencing
3	182	8.4 %	9	Recognizing formula
4	136	6.3 %	12	Summarizing
5	193	8.9 %	4	Repeating
6	188	8.7 %	5	Skimming
7	188	8.7 %	6	Scanning
8	143	6.6 %	11	Taking Note
9	185	8.5 %	8	Highlighting
10	199	9.2 %	1	Guessing intelligently
11	167	7.7 %	10	Using synonym
12	186	8.6 %	7	Linguistic guessing
Total	2163	100%		

In short, field independent and field dependent students use different strategy in reading. In other words, the learning styles affect the determination of reading strategy in their reading comprehension. The reading strategies determine the reading comprehension too. The second hypothesis states that there is a positive relationship between reading strategy (X_2) and reading comprehension (Y). Based on the calculation using the regression formula $\hat{Y} = -13,710 + 0,673X_2$, it indicates that the increase of reading strategy score or the more frequent in using the strategy causes the increase 0.673 point of reading comprehension in the constants -13.710, as can be seen in the following figure.

Figure 1: The graph of regression formula $\hat{Y} = -13,710 + 0,673X_2$



The strength of the relationship between reading strategy (X_2) and reading comprehension (Y) is illustrated in a coefficient correlation $ry_{x_2} = 0.974$. The significance of coefficient correlation can be seen in the following table.

Table 5: The significance of coefficient correlation between reading strategy (X_2) and reading comprehension (Y)

The correlation of	Coefficient Correlation	Determination Correlation	t_o	t_{tabel}	
				$\alpha = 0.05$	$\alpha = 0.01$
X_2 dan Y	0.974	0.949	2.62**	1.63	2.35

** The coefficient correlation is very significance ($t_h = 37,950 > t_t = 1,63$)

Based on the result of significant test of coefficient correlation between reading strategy (X_2) and reading comprehension (Y), reading strategy analysis shows that there is a positive relationship between reading strategy (X_2) and reading comprehension (Y). In other words, the more frequently the participant uses strategy, the better their reading comprehension will be.

The Relationship between Learning Style (X₁) and Reading Strategy (X₂) toward Reading Comprehension (Y)

The third hypothesis states that there is a positive relationship between learning style (X₁) and reading strategy (X₂) toward reading comprehension (Y). The multiple regression formula was used to determine the correlation between the criterion or dependent variable and the best combination of two predictors or independent variables. Based on the statistical calculation, the multiple regression formula obtained was $\hat{Y} = -10.782 + 0.145X_1 + 0.460X_2$.

The strength of the relationship between learning style (X₁), and reading strategy (X₂) toward reading comprehension (Y) are shown by $R_{y.12} = 0.987$. The significance of coefficient correlation can be seen in the following table.

Table 6: The significant of coefficient correlation between learning strategy (X₁) and reading strategy (X₂) toward reading comprehension (Y)

The correlation of	Coefficient Correlation	Determination Correlation	F _o	F _{table}	
				α = 0.05	α = 0.01
X ₁ and X ₂ toward Y	0.987	0.974	1439.59**	3.91	6.90

** The coefficient correlation is very significance ($F_o = 1439.59 > F_t = 3.91$)

Based on the multiple significant of coefficient correlation test, the result is F_o (1439.59) > F_{table} = 3.91). It can be concluded that the regression of Y to X₁ and X₂ is significant. Furthermore, the determination correlation was $R^2_{y.12} = 0.974$, meaning that 97.40% of reading comprehension variance (Y) was influenced by the learning Style (X₁) and the reading strategy (X₂). The strength of two variables; learning style (X₁) and reading strategy (X₂) toward Reading comprehension (Y), can be illustrated in the following table.

Table 7: The rank of partial coefficient correlation

The Partial Relation	Partial Coefficient Correlation	Rank
Y and X ₁	$r_{y1} = 0.939$	Second
Y and X ₂	$r_{y2} = 0.974$	First

The above table explains that the highest of the partial coefficient correlation is reading strategy (X_2) with $r_{yx.1} = 0.974$. Then, the second partial of coefficient correlation is learning style (X_1) with $r_{yx.1} = 0.939$. The relationship among variables with X_1 and X_2 as independent variable and Y as a dependent variable in 5% significant level with the sample 79 have some following results. First, the relationship between Y variable (reading comprehension) and X_1 (learning style) is 0.939 as correlation coefficient in 0.000 significant levels, meaning that there is almost perfectly significant relationship between those variables. Second, the relationship between Y variable (reading comprehension) and X_2 (reading strategy) is 0.974 as correlation coefficient in 0.000 significant level. In other word, there is positive and significant relationship between those variables. Third, based on the statistic calculation, both independent variables (learning style and reading strategy) indicate a strong and almost perfectly significant relationship to dependent variable (reading comprehension) which by the number of coefficient of multiple correlation (R) is 0.987. Reading strategy, however, has stronger relation to affect reading comprehension than learning strategy.

In short, FI students got significantly better reading comprehension than FD students because FI students used the appropriate reading strategies to comprehend the reading text. In the finding, FI students tended to manipulate all sentences and relation between sentences through the context clues in order to guess the meaning than FD students. As a result, the more independent people are and the more frequent strategy they use, the higher the reading comprehension skill will be.

Based on the analysis, it can be inferred that there is a positive significant relationship between learning style (X_1) and reading strategy (X_2) toward reading comprehension (Y). The result is supported by the number of coefficient correlation of X_1 to Y ($r_{x_1.y}$) = 0.939. The number reaching almost +1 means that the number is in the perfect relationship. Meanwhile, the coefficient correlation between X_2 to Y ($r_{x_2.y}$) is 0.974, meaning there is a positive relationship between the variables, too. Moreover, by using the result of the two tests, the multiple regressions is tested to predict the relationship between X_1 (learning style) and X_2 (reading strategy) variable toward Y (Reading comprehension) variable. The result of the test shows that the multiple coefficient correlation (R) is 0.987. Because of the result is almost 1.00, it can be inferred that there is a positive and significant relationship between learning style, reading strategy, and reading comprehension. Moreover, the partial coefficient correlation is tested to get the result about which independent variables most influence the dependent variable. As a result, the reading strategy (X_1) with $r_{y2} = 0.974$ is more influential than learning style (X_2) with 0.939.

CONCLUSIONS

The learning style and strategy in reading are important in reading comprehension. Two factors are influential and cannot be ignorant. However, the strategy takes more important place than the learning style to make the reader comprehend the text. In other words, all students with field independent or field dependent learning style can comprehend the text well if only they know the most appropriate strategy that they use in comprehending the reading text.

Furthermore, the result of this research is expected to be beneficial for all English teachers who teach reading course. The result shows that learning styles and strategies the learners use are important in comprehending texts. However, introducing kinds of strategy in reading are preferable to make readers become aware of their appropriate strategy in comprehending the texts. Finally, they can use the most appropriate reading strategies to comprehend the reading text. So, this research is hoped to be an ideas for the readers to identify their most appropriate reading strategies based on their own learning style.

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EFL Teachers' Belief, Knowledge and Practices in Using Dictionaries

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This paper reports the survey results of 20 EFL teachers regarding their beliefs, knowledge and practices in using dictionaries in their classes at English education programme of a state university in Karawang - West Java, Indonesia. The questionnaire consists of four parts. The first part investigates the profile of the participants as dictionary users. The second part reports the results of teachers' knowledge with regard to dictionary use through the lexicographic survey. The third part presents the results of EFL teachers' general preconception about dictionaries. The fourth part presents teachers' belief in the value of dictionaries for students. Finally, this paper suggests teachers how to utilize dictionaries in the classroom activities. Though the teacher participants are somewhat small, certain tendencies emerge as they show familiarity with dictionaries as an indivisible part of English language learning kit; they also agree that students need to be taught how to use dictionaries.

Keywords: teachers' belief, knowledge and practice, dictionary use

Artikel ini melaporkan hasil survey 20 dosen bahasa Inggris tentang keyakinan, sikap dan praktek menggunakan kamus pada program studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris di salah satu perguruan tinggi di Karawang, Jawa Barat, Indonesia. Survey ini terdiri dari empat bagian. Bagian pertama tentang profil dosen sebagai pengguna kamus. Bagian kedua melaporkan pengetahuan dosen tentang penggunaan kamus melalui survey lexicografi. Bagian ketiga tentang pandangan dosen bahasa Inggris tentang kamus. Bagian keempat tentang keyakinan dosen terhadap penggunaan kamus untuk siswa. Artikel ini diakhiri dengan usulan terhadap dosen bagaimana menggunakan kamus dalam pembelajaran di kelas. Meskipun jumlah partisipan dalam studi ini kecil, hasilnya menunjukkan kesamaan bahwa dosen telah terbiasa dengan kamus sebagai bagian yang tak terpisahkan dalam pembelajaran bahasa Inggris. Mereka juga setuju bahwa siswa perlu diajarkan bagaimana menggunakan kamus.

INTRODUCTION

A dictionary is an indispensable learning tool for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners and teachers. It could help conduct effective teaching and learning. Results of studies on the functions of dictionaries in a foreign/second language learning have been varied in orientation and methodology, leading, at times, to some extent inconsistent conclusions and recommendations. Language teachers appear to have varied views on whether dictionaries are conducive or restrictive to learning.

A study by Barnes, Hunt and Powell (1999) found that while most teachers believed dictionaries were a crucial learning tool, many also expressed concerns about the dictionary use. Some considered that learners often became obviously dependent on the dictionary, became the victims of what so called 'individual word syndrome' (i.e., encoding into the target language word by word), or fell to use a dictionary properly due to inadequate metalinguistic skills or knowledge of dictionary conventions. This is supported by Bishop (1998) who states that traditional teachers have assumed implicitly that learners are not capable of using a dictionary correctly and, therefore, have felt that "dictionaries should be discouraged as something too dangerous to put in the hands of (not only) young learners" (p. 3).

In the language learners' view, on one hand, the use of dictionary can be seen as a tool for learning vocabulary. It is also considered as a strategy employed in the comprehension, production and learning of a foreign language. This makes the use of dictionary an interesting phenomenon for researchers, teachers and lexicographers. Thus, good teachers need to take on the practice of consulting their dictionaries to assimilate the lexical, syntactical, phonological, morphological, etymological and more other features of one word or expression that a good dictionary can provide.

Previous studies on the field have, however, tended to focus on the dictionary use of language learners, often disregarding the dictionary use of teachers. In addition, dictionary have long been the focus of a huge body of research (e.g. Atkins, 1998, Bejoint, 1994, Stein, 1991, 1999, 2002; Hartmann, 1991 and Wright, 2001); however, there has been little interest in investigating teachers' perceptions of the use of dictionaries; hence, this study attempts to fill in the gap. This study, therefore, surveys the EFL teachers' belief, knowledge and practices in using dictionaries in their classes. Three research questions posed in this study are:

1. How well do EFL teachers know various dictionaries and their features?
2. How often do EFL teachers use dictionaries and for what purposes?
3. To what extent do EFL teachers believe in the value of dictionaries for their students?
4. To what extent do EFL teachers utilize dictionaries in their classroom activities?

Studies on the Use of Dictionaries

Miller (2008) conducted a survey targeting teachers of English to non-native speakers in Australian language schools and universities. It was aimed to discover teachers' attitudes to and use of dictionaries in their English classes, particularly in relation to learners' dictionaries in the teaching of grammar, collocations and idioms. The majority of teachers who responded to the survey used dictionaries when preparing teaching materials, but a few said that they provided dictionary training in class. Besides this, very few commented on specific uses that could be made of dictionaries.

The survey found that several participants had good dictionary skills and had ideas for dictionary improvement. It also found that most respondents were aware of dictionary use, but few had received training in this topic. Besides this, the findings showed that many teachers seemed still to be unaware of the potential advantages of an English learners' dictionary in the language classroom. The majority of teachers in this survey were not adequately equipped to give comprehensive training in dictionary skills for their students.

Stein (2013) argues that foreign language teaching has to include the use of both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries specially written for learners. Bilingual dictionaries are an essential tool for providing ready translation equivalents for common words and exact translation equivalents for technical terms. He believes that monolingual learners' dictionaries provide access to the world of meaning discriminations made by the target language and provide definitions which distinguish subtle differences in meaning. A monolingual dictionary, according to Kirkness (2004), is well established as "an essential source, if not indeed the principal source, of information on language for all members of literate societies who might have questions on any aspect of the form, meaning, and/or use of a word or words in their own or in another language" (p. 54). This shows that the importance of dictionaries in language learning is unquestionable. The prominence of dictionaries as tools for language learning and communication has long been recognized by the majority of language learners across the world. In countries where English is not a daily medium of communication, learners tend to rely on them. Dictionary use can be an additional activity in

listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating; it also enhances active or independent learning as it is one of the conscious learning strategy. Consulting a dictionary, however, is a quite complicated activity, involving combining the skills of noticing, searching, selecting and summarizing.

Monolingual dictionaries, according to Nation (2001), generally contain much more information about each word than bilingual dictionaries do, and some teachers recommend that bilingual dictionaries be used in conjunction with monolingual dictionaries for writing and speaking. He goes on to say that bilingual dictionaries use two languages. The head word and the examples are in one language, and the meaning is in another. Sometimes the example sentences are also provided in two languages.

Many bilingual dictionaries contain little information about each word; they can be seen as a complement, rather than a competitor, to monolingual dictionaries. Moreover, some bilingual dictionaries provide substantial information about each word. Nation (2001) mentions three major advantages of bilingual dictionaries. First, they provide meanings in a very accessible way. Second, they can be bi-directional: English–first language or first language–English. Finally they can be used for both receptive and productive use. Bilingual dictionaries which go from the first language to the second language provide easy access to vocabulary for productive use. This access is not easily provided in monolingual dictionaries. If bilingual and monolingual dictionaries are used to complement each other for productive purposes, the best qualities of both can be used.

Bilingualised dictionaries contain information of monolingual dictionaries, plus the translation of headword. The idea is to combine the advantages of monolingual dictionaries with the convenience of bilingual dictionaries. The example of bilingualised dictionary sold in Indonesia is *Password English Learner's Dictionary for Speakers of Bahasa Indonesia*, 3rd edition (PBI3, 2011). PBI3 is a semi-bilingual dictionary which provides both English definitions and Indonesian equivalents for English headwords. This means that if a student cannot understand the English definition of an English headword, the student can be assisted with the Indonesian equivalent of the English word.

A study by Laufer and Hadar (1997) found that bilingualised dictionaries generally gave better results than bilingual or monolingual dictionaries on comprehension and production test. The more skilled the users were, the better they performed with monolingual dictionaries. However, the users of bilingualised dictionary still achieved better results.

Based on Oh's (2006) study, which explored Korean English teachers' dictionary use and instruction, the results show that less than 5% of teachers have ever received any kind of

instruction on dictionary use, and only a small percentage of them make plans for the teaching of dictionary use for their students. Moreover, the time constraints imposed by their curricula make language teachers reluctant to spare time to teach dictionary-using skills even though they may acknowledge that such skills are necessary to their students (Chi, 2003).

The study of dictionary use in EFL learning is one of the crucial areas of research in applied linguistics. Similarly, Thornbury (2008) recommends that dictionary can also be used productively for both generating text and becoming a resource for vocabulary acquisition. Through a dictionary, students can find information such as the different meanings of a word, how a word is pronounced, what other words a word collocates with and when a word can be used.

As the dictionary is an essential instrument for learning a second or foreign language, a lot of research has been conducted into language learners' dictionaries, which has in turn improved the quality of these dictionaries. As Hartmann (1994:pp.239-240) reveals, the commercial success of dictionaries for foreign learners of English has been made possible by four kinds of research into dictionaries including the history, typology, criticism and the use of dictionary.

However, several studies (Berwick & Horsfall 1996; Nesi, 2000; Weight 1998) show that dictionaries have now been used poorly and inefficiently, which may result from the low level skill of dictionary users. Many teachers and college students have not recognized dictionary consultation as an important tool of acquiring English proficiency. It is in line with Carter and McCarthy (1988) who state that "dictionaries for language learning have been largely ignored in the wealth of books and articles on language learning by linguists, psychologists, and language teachers" (p. 111).

Apart from the argument in support of dictionary use, there have been several reasons which discourage dictionary use in a foreign language classroom. For instance, it could inhibit learners from developing such a crucial skill as guessing meaning from context. Thornbury (2002) argues that careless dictionary use may sometimes cause serious errors. These might lead EFL teachers to think that dictionaries are not fully helpful in language learning. Nevertheless, there is evidence of the usefulness of dictionaries in learning foreign language vocabularies. Therefore, dictionary use and other more implicit strategies of learning vocabulary should rather be seen as complementary approaches than as opposed or competing ones.

METHOD

This study adopted a survey method. The participants of this study were 20 EFL lecturers at the department of English education at a state university in Karawang - West Java. For the purpose of demographic information, the participants were asked some personal information such as gender, age, academic degree, teaching experiences, and courses they taught. The participants in this survey were 6 female and 14 male ranging from 25 to 55 years old. The courses taught by the participants can be seen in the table below.

Table 1: The courses taught by the participants

Exploring poetry	1
Exploring prose	1
Grammar	2
Writing	3
Reading	2
Introduction to literature	1
Language Learning Media	1
Listening	2
Cross culture understanding	2
Speaking	1
Vocabulary	1
Exploring prose	1
Research in ELT	1
Phonetics and phonology	1

The questionnaire was piloted on five English lecturers from different participants at the university to obtain comments on the statements of the questionnaire. The referees checked the questionnaire and suggested some modification, so the questionnaire was reduced to be 37 items in the final draft.

The questionnaire was developed and adopted based on Hartmann (1999). Though different in objective, the method is comparable to that employed by Nesi and Hail (2002) who investigated the dictionary-using habits of international students studying through the medium of English at a British university. It is also comparable to a study by Nauman and Ali (2014) who explored the English language teachers' attitudes towards the use of pedagogical dictionaries in their classes. The questionnaire given to the participants in the survey dealt with the items that can be seen in the following table.

Table 2: Items of the questionnaire

<p>Section 2: The Dictionary Use</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">(1) First use of a dictionary(2) Types of dictionaries owned based on its language(3) Types of dictionaries owned based on its form(4) Knowledge of semi bilingual dictionary or bilingualised dictionary(5) Number of printed dictionaries owned(6) Type prioritized when buying a new dictionary(7) Circumstances under which a dictionary is used(8) Reasons for using a dictionary (a)(9) Reasons for using a dictionary (b)(10) Use of information in the appendices of dictionaries(11) Awareness of the user guide notes in the front matter of dictionaries(12) Opinions regarding the use of a dictionary(13) Instruction in dictionary use(14) Important of being taught to use a dictionary <p>Section 3: Teachers' Belief about dictionary consisting 8 questions</p> <p>Section 4: Teachers' View in the value of dictionary for their students consisting 7 questions</p> <p>Section 5: Teachers' practices in utilizing dictionaries in classroom activities consisting 8 questions.</p>

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

With regard to the question of the use of dictionaries, the findings show that 60% of the teachers claimed to have started using a dictionary at primary school while 40% stated at secondary school. This is an essential question because it indicates when teaching the use of dictionaries should be started. Dictionaries are introduced at primary school in Indonesia. Therefore, the instruction in dictionary use also needs to start at this level of education.

Regarding the types of dictionary possessed by the participants, the results show that 20% of the teachers have L1 - L2 dictionaries, with 25% of them saying that they own monolingual dictionary. 30% of the teachers reported that they have L1-L2 and L2-L1 dictionaries, with 5% of them saying that they own L1-L2 and monolingual dictionaries and 20% of them reporting to have L1-L2, L2-L2 and monolingual dictionary. No teacher has a semi-bilingual dictionary or bilingualised dictionary. These results indicate that on the whole the teachers are knowledgeable about dictionary.

The third question asked the form of dictionary possessed by the participants. There were three forms of dictionary: pocket electronic dictionary, electronic dictionary installed on their mobile phone, and electronic dictionary installed on their personal computer. The results indicate that 5% of the teachers reported to have pocket electronic dictionary, and another 5% of them said they have electronic dictionary installed on their mobile phone. 35% of the teachers stated that they have electronic dictionary installed on their personal computer while 15% of the teachers reported to have pocket dictionary and electronic dictionary installed on their mobile phone. While 20% of the teachers said they have pocket electronic dictionary and electronic dictionary installed on their personal computer, 20% of them have pocket electronic dictionary, electronic dictionary installed on their mobile phone and electronic dictionary installed on their personal computer.

The fourth question asked the participants to explain what a semi-bilingual or bilingualised dictionary was. The results show that 5 teachers did not answer the question while 4 teachers answered by saying the following expressions: *sorry, I don't have any idea, I am sorry I don't understand about it, sorry, I don't know the term of the semi bilingual dictionary, and I never heard about this*. 11 teachers tried to define by themselves what the semi bilingual dictionary was. 4 teachers gave good answer while 7 teachers didn't. These results indicate that almost all teachers cannot explain satisfactorily what a semi-bilingual dictionary is, as can be seen in the table below.

Table 3: Definitions of a semi-bilingual dictionary by the participants

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| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Semi-bilingual dictionary is used to L1-L2 and L2-L1 dictionary. - Semi-bilingual means using L1-L2 dictionary and L2-L2 dictionary. - A dictionary which defines meanings of words in English and its counterparts in Indonesian. - Dictionary which combines the features of a monolingual and a bilingual dictionary. - It is a dictionary which has 2 language. - A dictionary which combines the features of a monolingual and a bilingual dictionary. - A type of dictionary consisting of two explanations of the target language, either of which provides more explanation than another one. - A kind of dictionary that provides the meaning of the words in two languages. - Kamus yang arti katanya dikaitkan dengan latar budaya. (It is a kind of dictionary whose word meaning relates to culture background). - It is included the others sense in making meaning. - It combines monolingual and bilingual feature |
|--|

Question five asked how many printed dictionaries the teachers had. The results indicate that 2 (10%) teachers have 2 dictionaries and 7 (35%) teachers have 3 dictionaries. 11 (55%) other teachers reported that they have more than 3 dictionaries. 11 Teachers have more than 3 dictionaries while 9 teachers have 2-3 dictionaries. These results show that on the whole the teachers are aware of the importance of dictionary.

When asked about the priority when buying a new dictionary, the teachers gave various responses. 40% of the teachers buy dictionary because of the reputation of publisher, with 20% because of the number of words. 15% of the teachers said it is because of the number of examples, and none of them stated it is due to the number of the pages. 25% of the participants reported other reasons.

The seventh question asked when the teachers used a dictionary. The majority of the teachers (40%) make use of dictionaries while preparing teaching materials at home, and a lesser number (30%) use dictionaries during class. 20% of them use a dictionary while preparing teaching materials in the office (lecturer room), and a small percentage (10%) reported to use dictionaries while preparing teaching materials in the library. When asked when the teachers use dictionary, the results show that 45% of the teachers use dictionaries while they read textbooks. 25% of the teachers use dictionaries when working on a translation tasks, with 15% while reading textbook. Only 15% use dictionaries while reading newspapers and magazines.

Responding to the questions asking how often the teachers used dictionaries for certain activities (writing and reading English articles, listening, speaking, pronouncing, and finding definitions, synonyms, examples, and collocations), the results show that most teachers use a dictionary for writing English articles (60%) followed by reading English articles (55%), finding out synonyms/words of a similar meaning (35%) and looking up the examples of a word's use (45%). 45% of the teachers use a dictionary for looking up collocation.

Question ten asked the teachers to express their experiences in using the appendices, including the most common information appendices found in different dictionaries. The results show that 80% of the teachers said 'yes' while 20% of them said 'no.' It becomes obvious that they use information contained in the appendices to understand the contents of the books, to study pages and pictures, to look up technical terms specific to the subject and to look up vocabulary. Some teachers cannot specify them. Thus, they should learn the structures of the dictionary so that they can specify what kinds of information contained in

the appendices they ever use i.e. list of abbreviation, list of regular/irregular verbs, proper names, units of measurement and others.

Question eleven asked whether the teachers were aware of the user guidance in the front matter of dictionary. 50% of the teachers said they study them, and 35% of the teachers found them user-friendly. Only 15% of the teachers pay no attention to the information in the user guide notes, which provide useful information (such as the organization of the dictionary, the list of abbreviations used in compilation of the dictionary, an explanation of the pronunciation, table of contents, etc.). Familiarity with the user guides could produce direct effect in both understanding and reducing the lookup process. Hence, teachers should consider the importance of the user guide notes.

Question twelve asked the teachers to agree with five statements (dictionaries can improve my reading; dictionaries can improve my writing; dictionaries can improve my speaking; dictionaries can improve my listening; dictionaries can help me perform better in my teaching). A large percentage of teachers (35%) state that using dictionaries can help them perform better in their teaching, followed by 20% who think that using dictionaries can improve their reading. 10% of the teachers think that using dictionaries can improve their speaking, and only 5% of them think that using dictionaries can improve their listening.

When asked whether the teachers were taught how to use a dictionary when they were at secondary school, 30% of them has never been instructed in dictionary use while 40% of them said they were taught how to use dictionary. These results show that teachers should encourage students to learn how to use dictionaries by themselves.

Regarding the question asking the teachers whether they thought students at English department should be taught how to use dictionaries, the majority of teacher said it is very important, with 40% of them stating it is important. Based on the results, it can be concluded that there is a need for *user education* at the university, especially for student teachers.

According to Hartmann and James (1998), user education is defined as “the training of users in the reference skills in response to reference needs” (p. 152). *Reference skills* are “the abilities required on the part of the dictionary user to find the information being sought” (Hartmann & James, 1998, p. 117), while *reference needs* are “the circumstances that drive individuals to seek information in reference works such as dictionaries” (Hartmann & James 1998, p. 116). This is in line with Hadebe (2004) who argues that “by training teachers to be good users themselves, it is envisaged that they could pass these skills on to students and eventually to society in general” (p. 90).

In addition, student teachers, even teachers, should be taught reference skills as part of their training in order to enable them to make maximum use of dictionaries and reference books and teach this knowledge to students in all levels. Moreover, teachers are in better position than researchers or even lexicographers to assess the students' lexicographic needs. If teachers acquire dictionary skills and pass on these skills to students, a dictionary culture could develop in the community.

Teachers should not ignore dictionary work. Like pronunciation, it is a natural part of any course that needs to have an appropriate focus and allocation time. By encouraging the intelligent and self-guided use of dictionaries, students become more independent, and as teachers this is one of our core goals. Moreover, the utility of the dictionary as a consistent source for word meanings, spelling, and pronunciation has been widely identified.

Regarding the teachers' belief, the following table list the results of the teachers' belief about dictionaries.

Table 4: Teachers' belief about dictionaries

Statement		I strongly agree	I agree	I am not sure	I disagree	I strongly disagree	Total
15. Dictionaries are integral part of language learning	Count	9	11				20
	%	45	55				100%
16. Teachers should have dictionaries	Count	15	5				20
	%	75	25				100%
17. Teachers need dictionary more than students	Count	11	8	1			20
	%	55	40	5			100%
18. Teachers should have the source for particular aspects of language (e.g. collocation phrasal verb, idiom)	Count	11	9				20
	%	55	45				100%
19. Dictionaries are enjoyable	Count	7	8	5			20
	%	35	40	25			100%
20. Teachers should look up dictionaries more than students.	Count	10	7	2	1		20
	%	50	35	10	5		100%
21. Monolingual dictionaries rather than the bilingual's are the normal choice for teachers	Count	2	10	6	2		20
	%	10	50	30	10		100%
22. Electronic dictionaries have more to offer than paper ones	Count	3	10	7			20
	%	15	50	35			100%

From the statement number 15, we can see that 20 lecturers (100%) agree with the notion of the integrity of dictionaries to language learning. According to Waring (2001) there are several reasons why teachers should teach dictionary skills. First, such skills give students greater control over their own learning and shift the responsibility of learning to the students. Second, students are not born knowing how to use dictionaries well. Therefore, they need to gain this knowledge and these skills in order to use their dictionary effectively. Third, dictionary skills help students to disentangle information in the dictionary by making things explicit to them. Fourth, dictionaries naturally generate a great deal of thinking about meaning and language. That is why if they can use dictionaries well, there will be minimal classroom disruption because teachers can rely on students to get the correct meaning. Fifth, dictionaries can provide useful support not simply when teachers are in doubt about something but when they want students to confirm their own supposition about something in English. Sixth, dictionaries can serve as a focus for communication and classroom interaction. Finally, dictionary training can help students explore personal preferences and learning styles and may also lead students to new modes of study.

Waring (2001) also goes on to say that dictionaries are not only a tool for private or individual learning problems but also a springboard to all sorts of other communicative and interactive activities. By exploiting dictionaries as a source of interaction, teachers can help students develop their confidence as both dictionary users and language learners. An important benefit of this is that students will be exposed to a great deal of language that will help them experience and explore it.

The Statement number 16 tests teachers' belief about the importance of dictionaries as a teaching and learning aid by asking about the possession of dictionaries. 20 (100%) teachers agree with this statement. The statement number 17 is connected with the teachers' need of dictionaries. It is supported with the questions numbers 2, 3 and 4 showing that 100% of the teachers have dictionaries in different forms such as electronic and printed dictionaries.

The statement number 18 is concerned with conventional dictionaries and thesauruses. Thesaurus is a book that list words in groups that have similar meaning. There are many thesauruses for collocations, phrasal verbs, idioms, and synonyms to be an ever-present weapon in teachers' resources as suggested by Stein (2013). The figures show that 100% of the teachers approve. Number 19 highlights the enjoyment of the dictionaries, and 75% of the teachers believe that dictionaries are pleasant.

As regard with the view that teachers should look up dictionaries more than students, the statement number 20, 85% of the teachers agree with this statement. When asked about

their recommended dictionary types, the statement number 21, 60% of the teachers prefer monolingual dictionaries to bilingual dictionaries. A word in monolingual dictionaries contains more information than that in bilingual dictionaries does (Nation, 2001). Nation (2001) goes on to say that there are at least two major advantages of bilingual dictionaries. First, they provide meanings in a very accessible way, and second, they can be bidirectional: English–first language or first language–English.

The statement number 22 deals with the teachers’ belief about the usefulness of electronic dictionaries. 65% of the teachers believe that electronic dictionaries provide more to offer than paper-based ones. A large number of teachers now have personal computer, and they can easily access free electronic dictionaries when connected to the Internet.

Considering teachers’ view in the value of dictionaries for students, the following table lists the results.

Table 5: Survey of teachers’ view in the value of dictionaries for students

Statement		I strongly agree	I agree	I am not sure	I disagree	I strongly disagree	Total
23. University students can achieve English competences without employing dictionaries	Count			8	11	1	20
	%			40	55	5	100%
24. Students should consult dictionaries frequently.	Count	3	17				20
	%	15	85				100%
25. Weaker students are more possible to use dictionaries.	Count		7	10	3		20
	%		35	55	15		100%
26. Use of dictionaries will unquestionably increase students’ vocabulary.	Count	6	11	3			20
	%	30	55	15			100%
27. Some of the students’ pronunciation problems are at least caused by lack of dictionary use.	Count	2	16	2			20
	%	10	80	10			100%
28. One way of improving students’ writing skill is by insisting them to use dictionaries more.	Count	1	15	4			20
	%	5	75	20			100%
29. Dictionaries skill can be an indicator of students’ linguistic competence.	Count	1	15	4			20
	%	5	75	20			100%

The statement number 23 is about the possibility of a student to be competent with relatively minor use of dictionaries. 60% of the teachers disagree with this statement, and 40% of them are in doubt whether students should use dictionaries daily to achieve their competence in English learning. Number 24 continues the teachers' view whether students should consult dictionaries regularly. All of the teachers recommend that students consult such a tool. This is in agreement with Thornbury (2002) who says that knowing a word includes knowing its written and spoken form, its meanings and the words it is most commonly associated with, its derivation, how it is used in different situations, its frequency, its grammatical behaviour, its connotations, and how it can be used as a verb, noun, adverb, etc. Learners can individually find all this information in a well-chosen dictionary.

Using a dictionary will also help learners develop autonomy. This is proposed by Gairns and Redman (2005) who asserts that "a learner who makes good use of a dictionary will be able to continue learning outside the classroom, and this will give him considerable autonomy about the decision he makes about his own learning" (p. 79). In addition, using dictionary will give learners good learning habits. Leaney (2007) argues that "there is tremendous amount of information in a good learner's dictionary - sometimes an overwhelming amount. Helping students tap into that information efficiently is one of the best ways to help them become independent, lifelong language learners" (p. 1). It can be true that in order to help students understand a word, develop their vocabulary, become more autonomous and good learner habits, an English teacher should be aware of the significance of using a dictionary in language learning. Teachers also need to inform their students to choose a good and appropriate dictionary and encourage them to refer to it frequently and constantly.

The statement number 25 explores the teachers' view whether or not weaker students are more possible to use dictionaries. Li (2012) and Hartmann (2002) tend to believe that a dictionary is needed equally by weaker and competent students who find new ways of exploiting unlimited potential of their language development. In this statement, 35% of the teacher agrees, 55% of them are not sure, and the rest (15%) disagree.

The remaining statements in this questionnaire focus on the teachers' view on how dictionaries influence the acquisition of language skills. The statement number 26 states that dictionaries help students increase their vocabulary. Responding to this statement, 85% of the teachers agree, while 15% of the teachers are not sure. It is in line with the study conducted by Knight (1994).

The statement number 27 deals with one of the functions of dictionaries: checking the pronunciation of a word. According to Nation (2001), one of the purposes in using dictionary deals with production (encoding) such as confirming the spelling, pronunciation, meaning, etc. of known words, checking that a word exists, finding a different word to use instead of a known one, or just correcting an error. Regarding this statement, 85% of the teachers agree that ignoring dictionary use will cause students' pronunciation problems. The statement number 28 is concerned with the influence of dictionary toward students' writing ability. Similar to the previous statement, 85% of the teachers agree with number 28.

The statement number 29 deals with the importance of dictionary skills as a whole as an indicator of students' linguistic competence. In this statement, 80% of the teachers agree that dictionary skills can be an indicator of students' linguistic competence. According to Bachman (1990) linguistic competence or language competence – knowledge of language relates to organizational competence, controlling the formal structure of language (grammatical competence) including knowledge of vocabulary, rules of pronunciation and spelling, word formation and sentence structure and knowing how to construct discourse (textual competence). While Nation (2001) asserts that dictionary can be used for a wide range of purposes. Scholfield (1982, 1997) has consistently distinguished between the different requirements and strategies for dictionaries which can be used for comprehension (listening and reading) and dictionaries which can be used for production (speaking and writing). Apart from being sources of information, dictionaries can also be aids to learning. (Nation, 2001)

Table 6. How teachers practice the dictionaries in their classroom activities

Statement		Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
30. I encourage my students to use dictionaries during classes.	Count	6	12	2			20
	%	30	60	10			100%
31. I observe the speed of my students who use dictionaries during lectures.	Count		12	6		2	20
	%		60	30		10	100%
32. I tell my students that using dictionaries well can have a positive impact on their language performance.	Count	8	11	1			20
	%	40	55	5			100%

33. I train my students in dictionaries related-exercise (e.g., pronunciation, part of speech, collocations).	Count	3	13	3		1	20
	%	15	65	15		5	100%
34. I point out to my students the relative advantages and disadvantages of using monolingual and bilingual dictionaries.	Count	1	15	3	1		20
	%	5	75	15	5		100%
35. I integrate dictionaries skills into my general English syllabus.	Count	2	13	3	1	1	20
	%	10	65	15	5	5	100%
36. I suggest my students to use dictionaries independently at home as part of their autonomy in learning.	Count	4	15	1			20
	%	20	75	5			100%
37. I tell my students to consult their dictionaries during their reading and writing exercises.	Count	4	14	2			20
	%	20	70	10			100

Table 6 relates to how teachers utilize dictionaries in their classroom activities concerning with teaching English language. The statement number 30 presents the teachers' reinforcement for using dictionaries. 90% of the teachers do this regularly. Nevertheless, 10% say that a dictionary use interrupt the speed of lectures. Number 31 asks whether the teachers observe the speed of their students who use dictionaries during lectures. 60% of the teachers often observe the speed of their students in using dictionaries during lectures. Only 30% of them state 'sometimes' and 10% state 'never.'

The statement number 32 deals with the teachers' practice. 40% of the teachers always tell their students that good use of dictionaries can have a positive impact on their language performance, with 55% of them stating they 'often' do this and 5% sometimes. The statement number 33 explores teachers' practice about whether or not they train their students in dictionary related-exercise (e.g., pronunciation, part of speech, collocation). 95% of the teacher does this with different frequency, with the rest never doing this.

95% of the teachers reveal to their students the relative advantages and disadvantages of using monolingual and bilingual dictionaries (the statement number 34), while 95% of the teachers integrate dictionary skills into their general English syllabus (number 35). The statement numbers 36 and 37 deal with teachers' direction to their students to use dictionaries

not only in the classroom but also at home and to consult their dictionaries during their reading and writing exercise. Almost 100% of the teachers do this statement.

CONCLUSIONS

Though the teacher participants are somewhat small, certain tendencies emerge as they show familiarity with dictionaries as an indivisible part of English language learning kit. Through this survey to teachers' believe, knowledge and practice in using dictionaries in their classes, the study has revealed that the teachers mostly own both L1-L2 and L2-L1 dictionaries and most of them have more than one dictionary. They are less familiar with semi bilingual dictionaries or bilingualised dictionary. When they buy a new dictionary their priority is the reputation of the publisher. In their opinion, using dictionaries can improve their reading, writing and speaking, and can help them perform better in their teaching.

As regard with the teachers' frequency and purposes in using dictionaries, the findings show that the teachers start using dictionaries mostly at primary school. They inform that they usually use an electronic dictionary installed on their personal computer. They use a dictionary during class and while preparing their teaching materials in the office and at home. They use a dictionary while reading academic journals, textbooks, newspapers and magazines and while working on translation tasks. Most of them use a dictionary when reading and writing English articles and when looking up pronunciation, a definition/equivalent of a word, or synonyms/words of a similar meaning. They also ever use information contained in the appendices, but they cannot specify them. They state that they received less instruction how to use a dictionary when they were at secondary school. They also agree that it is very important to teach how to use dictionaries to student teachers at the English language teaching department.

In exploring the teachers' belief about dictionaries, 100% of the teachers agree to integrate dictionaries to language learning and believe about the importance of dictionaries as teaching and learning aid. Teachers also agree they should look up dictionaries more than their students. They prefer monolingual dictionaries to bilingual dictionaries since the former contains much more information about each word than bilingual dictionaries do. Besides, they believe that electronic dictionaries provide more to offer than paper-based ones.

Based on teachers' views, it is found that students can achieve their English competences by employing dictionaries, and dictionaries will help students develop autonomy and increase their vocabulary. In addition, students can take the advantages about the lexical, syntactical, phonological, morphological and etymological features of one word

or expression provided by a good dictionary. Teachers think that dictionary skills could be an indicator of students' linguistic competences, including knowledge of vocabulary, rules of pronunciation and spelling, word formation and sentence structure and knowing how to construct discourse (textual competence).

In practicing dictionaries, 100% of the teachers practice to utilize dictionaries in their classroom activities. They are aware of the students' speed in using dictionaries during lectures. They tell their students that dictionaries have a positive impact on their performance. Teachers also give their students dictionary-related exercises (e.g. pronunciation, part of speech, collocation etc.). They tell the students relative advantages and disadvantages of using monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. They also integrate dictionary skills into their general English syllabus. Finally, they advise their students to consult their dictionaries on their reading and writing exercise at home.

This survey is a preliminary study in terms of dictionary use on faculty members at a state university in Karawang, West-Java. It is not comprehensive and lack of generalizability. Further quantitative and qualitative research need to be conducted at the university with reference to different dictionary users, dictionary types, etc.

The researcher recommends and suggests some points. First, teachers need to tell their students the importance of dictionaries in language learning and make them realize that teachers are not a dictionary; therefore, they need to encourage their students to be more independent, not relying on the teacher. Second, teachers need to realize that a bilingualized dictionary, a term used by Laufer and Melamed (1994) for a mono-bilingual dictionary, is the combination of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. It has most of the advantages of both. Teachers need to exert themselves to correct the view about dictionaries from one more passive book on the library shelf to the source of help in time of need. Teachers need to integrate paper-based dictionaries versions including electronic version (e.g. OALD on CD-ROM) and internet online dictionaries to provide learners with the versatility and inspiration of these up-to-date sources. In addition, teachers need to be aware of ELT dictionaries as a cultural artefact that mediates between different languages and cultures. Further investigations are needed in this area in order to enrich teaching practices in the classroom, to encourage the teaching staff to understand the role that the dictionary can play as a tool of language teaching and learning, and to remind us about the role of dictionaries as an encyclopaedic source of general human knowledge.

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Deductive and Inductive Methods in Teaching Tenses

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Teaching English grammar seems easy but difficult to conduct. Some methods have been introduced to answer this problem. Two methods that have been known so far are deductive and inductive methods. Studies have been conducted concerning these methods, with some supporting deductive while the others being in favor of inductive method. This study attempts to investigate which method works better in facilitating students' writing skill. The findings of this experimental study (n=40) taking place in one of English course in Jakarta show that deductive method is more effective in promoting students' writing skill.

Keywords: deductive, inductive, teaching tenses, writing

Mengajar tata bahasa sepertinya mudah namun sebenarnya sulit untuk dilaksanakan. Beberapa metode mengajar tata bahasa telah diperkenalkan untuk mengatasi hal ini. Dua metode yang cukup dikenal adalah deduktif dan induktif. Beberapa studi telah dilakukan terkait dua metode ini dengan hasil yang beragam. Beberapa studi membuktikan bahwa metode deduktif lebih efektif dalam pengajaran tata bahasa, tetapi studi lain membuktikan sebaliknya. Studi ini mencoba mengetahui metode mana yang lebih baik dalam konteks meningkatkan kemampuan menulis. Studi ini dilaksanakan di sebuah kursus bahasa Inggris di Jakarta dengan jumlah sampel sebanyak 40. Hasil studi ini menunjukkan bahwa pengajaran tata bahasa dengan metode deduktif lebih efektif untuk meningkatkan kemampuan menulis siswa.

INTRODUCTION

English Language Teaching (ELT) has expanded fast in the last few years due to the instrumental power of English as an international language and the need for participating effectively in society. Most Indonesians have their first contact with English when learning English at formal schools as a subject which they need to study in order to pass the test and get promoted to higher classes. Unfortunately, not all students can master English well due to

several reasons such as students' self-motivation, lack of practice and exposure to English, lack of facilities and teachers' competence.

Language teachers are inevitably confronted with various productions of errors made by students while teaching the language. One of the major problems is writing, which is one of the four language skills regarded as a difficult skill to learn as well as to practice. When it comes to discuss one's writing proficiency, it is almost likely related to one's mastery of English grammar or structure. Murcia and Freeman (1983) state that, "grammar affects students' performance in all four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing" (p. 2). As English grammar represents the system of the language, learners of English need to start the learning process by mastering the grammar. English grammar rules offer learners with a set of primary systems allowing them to construct acceptable English sentences.

English has several types of tenses, for example, past tense, present tense, and future tense based on the location of time when certain action or event takes place. The tenses, nevertheless, have different rules, especially concerning the form of verbs used in each tense because the form of the verbs helps indicate whether an action or an event happens in the present, past, or future time. Therefore, English learners should know how to use tenses correctly and accurately. It is often believed that without having sufficient knowledge of tenses, learners may find some difficulties to construct grammatically correct English sentences since tenses help them express their ideas in English. Using tenses can create great confusion among Indonesian students because in Indonesian there are not any changes in tenses, whilst in English tenses change depending on the time and situation.

There is no perfect way in presenting grammar rules; teachers can use either deductive or inductive methods. Both methods have some weaknesses as well as strengths. Inductive methods encourage active rather than passive participation. Inductive methods create a context of autonomous and meaningful learning. Decoo (1996) states that "induction is the process that goes from the specific to the general, namely first the real language use, from which will "emerge" patterns and generalization. It evokes natural language learning and variety of direct methods. In contemporary terminology it is easily identified with acquisition" (p. 95). On the other hand, in a traditional way to present grammar - deductive method - rules are given prior to the illustration of examples. Learners have to memorize the rules of grammar, hoping they can apply the rules to make meaningful sentences.

Based on the problems that students might encounter in dealing with tenses in their writing, the researcher poses the following questions:

1. Do deductive methods work more effectively than inductive methods in teaching tenses to improve students' writing?
2. Do students taught by deductive methods have a better understanding in tenses than those taught by inductive methods?
3. What are the students' responses toward deductive and inductive methods in learning tenses which will be implemented in their writing?

The results of the study are expected to be beneficial for the improvement of teaching tenses and its implementation in writing and to give contribution to English teachers and learners. For English teachers, they can use the result of this study to teach grammar effectively, particularly tenses. By knowing the effective method in teaching grammar, hopefully, teachers can overcome students' problems to understand grammar which will be implemented in writing.

Inductive Method

Some studies of the effects of inductive method have been conducted by some scholars such as Bibi (2009), Wang (2002), and Takimoto (2005). Bibi (2009), for example, investigated the comparative effectiveness of teaching English grammar with the help of textbook (deductive method) and by using group work activities (inductive method). She did the research to analyze whether group work activities (inductive method) had a positive effect on the academic achievements of the elementary and secondary students in Pakistan. In Pakistan, English grammar is mainly taught by deductive method in which the principles and rules of different aspects of grammar are first taught and then particular examples are given to the students. No practice is provided to the students in the use of different aspects of grammar. Only casual reference is made to them during teaching the prescribed textbook.

This experimental study was conducted in Government Girls High School No 1 of Dera Ismail Khan city, Pakistan. All the 9th and 6th grade students of Government Girls Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools were included in this study. Of four 9th grade sections, two sections were randomly selected. Similarly, of the four 6th grade sections of the selected school, two sections were randomly selected. The two selected groups at each level, one group was randomly assigned as the experimental and the other as the control group. Each stage was given different aspect of grammar.

There are some important findings from this study. Firstly, teaching English grammar through group work activities (inductive method) plays a positive role in improving the academic achievement of students studying English at the elementary as well as secondary

stage. Secondly, the results of the research lead to the conclusions that group work activities can be used for improving writing and speaking ability, reading and listening comprehension, recalling the use of structures and the application of rules of grammar by the students studying English at both the elementary and secondary stages. Thirdly, the majority of the students have the opinion that the teaching of English grammar through group work activities is a better way of learning grammar as compared to the deductive approach and teaching grammar through textbook reading. Finally, almost all the students at the secondary as well as elementary stage think that not any time is wasted by working in a group.

Wang (2002) investigated the effectiveness of inductive and deductive methods on learning collocation by using concordance. A concordance is a kind of software/system that stores large corpora and can show huge amount of examples at a very fast rate. Besides the comparison of the two teaching approaches, other factors which influenced the learning outcome such as proficiency, aptitude, and the difficulty of grammar patterns were also analyzed. There were eighty-one second-year students from a senior high school in Taiwan participating in this study. The students were divided into two classes. One was classified into an inductive group, while the other was a deductive group. There were three procedures: a pre-test, exercising for each teaching approach, and post-test.

There were three stages for each exercise in the inductive approach: searching for appropriate examples, formulating the underlying patterns, and applying the learned rules in error correction. On the other hand, deductive approach adopted the stages such as consulting the rules provided in advance and applying the rules in error correction. Two types of grammatical patterns, the easy and difficult one, were used as learning exercise. According Wang (2002), the findings show that inductive group outperformed the deductive one and inductive method was more suitable for teaching simple patterns.

Takimoto (2005) conducted the study to probe the effects of deductive and inductive instructions on the learning of English pragmatic. The participants were chosen through the advertisements in the weekly magazine and on the Internet. The participants didn't know that English lexical and syntactic downgrades would be taught in the study. Participants were screened by means of their TOEIC scores, which they were required to submit, and only participants who have TOEIC scores of 500-700 were chosen. The 60 participants had studied English from five to twenty-two years, and their first language was Japanese. They were assigned to one of four groups (three treatment groups and one control group) on a first-come, first-served basis. The three treatment groups were deductive instruction (n=15), inductive instruction with problem-solving tasks (n=15), and inductive instruction with

structured input tasks (n=15). The significant finding of this study is that inductive instruction was more effective than deductive instruction in adult pragmatic learning.

Deductive Method

The study showing the effectiveness of deductive method has been conducted by Erlam (2003). She found out that that the deductive approach was more effective in teaching second language grammar. She conducted the study to examine the effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the acquisition of direct object pronouns in French as a second language. She developed the teaching materials, a pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test.

The study was conducted in one of New Zealand's largest secondary schools. Three classes of fourth form students (approximately 14 years of age) took part in the study. The students were nearing the end of the second year of their study of French. The school allocates students to class options according to timetabling constraints so that there was, in principle, little overall difference in ability among the classes. A one-way ANOVA showed no statistically significant differences in the performance of the three groups on the Test of Scholastic Abilities.

The results obtained from this study provide evidence in support of the effectiveness of deductive language instruction in a teacher-centered classroom language learning environment with school-age learners. The results of this study show that deductive group did better than inductive group, and deduction facilitated longer rule retention.

There are differences of findings from previous studies investigating inductive and deductive methods. This study, therefore, attempts to find out which method can give better contribution in teaching grammar, especially tenses in the Indonesian setting.

METHOD

Research Design

The aim of this research was to find out the effects of deductive and inductive methods in teaching tenses to improve students' writing. The design used in this research was quasi-experimental design. There were two groups in this research: the deductive and inductive groups consisting of 20 students for each group taking place at one of English courses in Jakarta.

In this study, the deductive method was assumed to be more effective than inductive method because this approach is suitable for teaching grammar to EFL (English as a Foreign

Language) students. The concept underlying the rules is mentioned explicitly, and it can avoid student's confusion about tenses that they are learning. The researcher refers to the directional hypothesis because this study analyzed the effects of a deductive method over an inductive method. The statistical hypothesis of this research was:

$$H_0 : \mu_1 \leq \mu_2$$

$$H_a : \mu_1 > \mu_2$$

H_0 = Null-Hypothesis

H_a = Alternate-Hypothesis

μ_1 = Teaching Tenses Deductively

μ_2 = Teaching Tenses Inductively

1. $H_0 : \mu_1 \leq \mu_2$: teaching tenses deductively to improve students' writing is less effective than teaching tenses inductively or teaching tenses deductively to improve students' writing is equally effective to teaching tenses inductively.
2. $H_a : \mu_1 > \mu_2$: teaching tenses deductively to improve students' writing is more effective than teaching tenses inductively

The Variables and Treatments

There were three variables in this research: two independent variables and one dependent variable. The independent variables were variable X_D as the first independent variable (teaching tenses using deductive methods) and variable X_I as the second independent variable (teaching tenses using inductive methods). Both variables influenced the dependent variable (writing). The research focused on the effect of deductive and inductive methods in teaching tenses to improve students' writing.

This research was intended to test the hypothesis about the effects of deductive and inductive methods in teaching tenses to improve students' writing, and to analyze the effects of two different treatments, deductive and inductive methods, given to the experimental classes (deductive and inductive classes). The researcher also conducted pre-test before conducting the treatments for both classes. The experimental design can be demonstrated in the following table:

Table 1: The experimental design

GROUP	PRE-TEST	TREATMENT	POST- TEST
Deductive Class	$X_{D\text{pt}}$	T	X_D
Inductive Class	$X_{I\text{pt}}$	T	X_I

T : the treatment of the experiment
 $X_{D\text{pt}}$, $X_{I\text{pt}}$: the observation in the pre-test
 X_D , X_I : the observation in the post-test

The table above shows the result of the pre-test and post-test which were analyzed by using t_{test} to investigate whether there were differences or not between the students getting treatment by using deductive and inductive methods in teaching tenses to improve their writing.

The Procedure of Teaching Tenses Deductively

Deductivemethod means teaching learners rules and then giving them opportunities to apply them through practice. The role of the teacher is to present the rules and organize the practice. There were five stages the researcher did in conducting the lesson using deductive method in the classroom. The first stage was ‘motivation strategies’. The aim was to get the learners interested in the topic and to arouse their curiosity about the new lesson. The second stage was ‘presentation.’ The researcher started presenting the lesson. She gave some comments on the students’ answer which were on the board and corrected the mistakes if any. In this stage, she gave some explanation about the present tense, wrote down the pattern of the simple present tense, explained when to use it and when to add *s* or *es* at the end of the mainverbs, and gave many examples of the usage of the simple present tense. The third stage was ‘skills practice’. The fourth stage was ‘summary’. In this stage, the researcher reviewed the lesson by giving some varied activities such as asking the students to write one of their regular activities on the board and giving them games related to the lesson. The final stage was ‘assessment’. The students had to choose one of the topics provided by the researcher, and wrote a paragraph about it. The topics were about their personal information, their hobbies and their regular activities.

The Procedures of Teaching Tenses inductively

Inductive approach involves getting learners to discover rules and how they are applied by looking at examples. The role of the teacher is to provide language for learners with the need

to discover the rules, to guide them in discovery if necessary, and to provide opportunities to practice. In conducting teaching tenses inductively, the researcher did some stages. In the 'motivation strategies,' she asked students several questions related to the today's lesson, asked students to write daily activities using simple present tense and listed down their answers on the board. In the 'presentation' stage, the researcher asked the students more questions and listed down the sentences on the board. She elicited the grammar rules from the students. In the 'skills practice' stage, the activities were similar to the deductive method. In the stage of 'summary,' the researcher reviewed the lesson. In the final stage, assessment, the students had to choose one of the topics provided by the teacher and wrote a paragraph about it.

Data Collection Methods

The researcher used two data collection methods: a set of writing tests consisting of five tenses and a set of questionnaire consisting of ten items related to deductive and inductive methods. The main instrument that the researcher used was a writing test. The writing test was designed in such a way in order to suit the students' proficiency level. The validity and reliability of the writing tests were checked before given to the students. There were five topics of the writing tests which deal with commonly used tenses such as present tense, present continuous, future tense, past tense, and present perfect.

Another instrument was a set of questionnaire. This instrument was only to support students' preferences in the methods. The questionnaire was a closed questionnaire which probed for students' preference and perception of deductive and inductive methods. There were ten items in this questionnaire. Five questions referred to deductive method, and the others referred to inductive method. The questionnaire was translated into Indonesian to avoid the ambiguity and misconception in understanding and getting the real data. There were 40 respondents who answered the items in the questionnaire.

The Writing Rubric

In determining the students' writing score, the researcher used the writing rubric. This Writing rubric was adopted from Language Center, Asian Institute of Technology, but the researcher modified it in accordance with the objectives of the writing, as can be seen in Table 2. The aim of the writing activities in this study was to determine whether the students were able to use the tenses correctly.

Table 2: The writing rubric

Score	Range	Criteria
4	81-100	Very good writing; the writing fulfils the task in satisfactory. <i>Tenses are used accurately and appropriately. There are no significant mistakes in tenses</i> Tense mistakes: 0
3	68 -80	Good writing; the writing generally addresses the task relevantly, appropriately and accurately. <i>There are only occasional minor flaws in tenses</i> Tense mistakes: ≤ 2
2	50-67	Average; the writing is adequately organized and developed. <i>Afew Inappropriate, and inaccurate choices and mistakes of tenses are noticeable</i> Tense mistakes: ≤ 5
1	0-49	Poor writing, <i>low fluency, and significant mistakes in the use of tenses; Students show partial understanding of tenses, and are not able to use appropriate tenses. The text is dominated by tense mistakes</i> Tense mistakes: ≥ 5

Data Analysis

After the data had been collected, they were analyzed by using t_{test} . The data obtained from pre-test were computed to find the mean (X) and the standard deviation (SD). The formula used to determine standard deviation was as follows:

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$

Note:

S = Standard Deviation

n_1 = Sum of the students in the experimental class

n_2 = Sum of the students the control class

S_1 = Sample standard deviation

S_2 = Standard deviation of the sample

The formula for statistic $t_{distribution}$ test can be seen as followed:

$$t = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{N_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{N_2}}}$$

Note:

t = t_{distribution}

X₁ = Mean scores of the experimental class

X₂ = Mean scores of the control class

N₁ = Samples of the experimental class

N₂ = Sample of the control class

If the t count is less than t table (t_{count} < t_{table}), both classes have equal average.

The t_{test} was used to find out if the deductive method was more effective than inductive method in teaching tenses to improve students' writing.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

After giving the pre-test and post-test, the researcher compared the results of those tests. First, the results of the pre-test and post-test of the deductive group were examined whether there was a significant difference. It was expected that after having treatment with deductive methods, the students could improve their ability significantly to use correct tenses in their writing.

Table 3: The result of pre-test and post-test of deductive group

Statistics	Pretest	Posttest
N	20	20
\bar{X}	60.1500	76.1000
S	4.85880	10.78937
Paired differences mean		15.95000
Standard deviation		13.21672
Standard error mean		2.95535
95% Confidence interval		
Of the difference lower		22.13561
Upper		9.76439
t _{test} 5.397		
Df 19		
Sig (2-tailed)	0.000	
α 0.05		
t _{table}	1.729	

From the table above, we can see that the average score (mean) of post-test using deductive methods is greater than that of pre-test. The conclusion is that deductive methods works effectively to improve students' ability to use tenses correctly in their writing because t_{count} was greater than t_{table} .

After comparing the results of pre-test and post-test of deductive group, the researcher also compared the results of pre-test and post-test of inductive group to know whether there was a significant difference. It was also found that after getting treatment using inductive methods, the students could improve their knowledge significantly in using tenses correctly.

Table 4: The result of the pre-test and post-test of inductive group

Statistics	Pretest	Posttest
N	20	20
\bar{X}	51.2500	58.7500
S	4.55233	4.78937
Paired differences mean	7.5000	
Standard deviation	6.17721	
Standard error mean		1.38127
95% Confidence interval		
Of the difference lower	10.39102	
Upper	4.60898	
t_{test}	5.430	
Df	19	
Sig (2-tailed)		0.00
α		0.05
t_{table}	1.729	

Based on the information above, the average score (mean) of post-test using inductive methods is greater than that of pre-test. The conclusion is that inductive methods also works effectively to improve students' understanding to use tenses correctly in writing because $t_{count} > t_{table}$.

The researcher calculated the gain scores of each group. Gain was calculated from the different scores of pretest and posttest. The result of the gain ratio of deductive and inductive methods can be seen on the table below.

Table 5: The result of the gain of students' achievement

Statistics		Deductive	Inductive
N		20	20
\bar{X}		0.3789	0.1479
S		0.33101	0.11810
	Paired differences mean		0.23101
	Standard deviation		
	Standard error mean		1.38127
	95% Confidence interval		
	Of the difference lower		0.7192
	Upper	0.39010	
t_{test}	2.940		
Df			38
Sig (2-tailed)			0.06
α	0.05		
t_{table}	1.70		

The mean of the gain using deductive methods is 0.3789, so the result of post-test (after having treatments) is 37.89% greater than that of pre-test, while the mean of the gain using inductive methods is 0.1479. It can be concluded that the result of post-test (after having treatments) is 14.79% greater than that of the pretest. The next test to know the effects of teaching tenses deductively was through statistical hypothesis:

1. $H_0: \mu_1 \leq \mu_2$: teaching tenses deductively to improve students' writing is less effective than teaching tenses inductively or equally effective to teaching tenses inductively.
2. $H_a: \mu_1 > \mu_2$: teaching tenses deductively to improve students' writing is more effective than teaching tenses inductively.

Table 4.6 shows that t_{count} (2.940) is greater than t_{table} (1.70); as a result, H_0 is not accepted and H_a is accepted, so the second hypothesis is proven. It can be interpreted that teaching tenses deductively is more effective than teaching tenses inductively to improve students' writing.

Based on the result of the questionnaire, the majority of students (97,5%) agreed that grammar (tenses) had to be explained and followed by adequate examples. 75 % of students agreed that the concept underlying the tenses was very important, so it had to be explained to avoid misunderstanding. The majority of students (75%) also agreed that explaining grammar explicitly was more effective to make them understand the lesson.

Discussions

This study found that deductive group outperformed inductive group because there was a significant difference of mean between inductive and deductive groups. The results also indicated that high achievers significantly benefitted more from deductive methods than from inductive methods. Students who got good scores in the pre-test got much better scores in the post-test. Deductive feedback was also appropriate for learning more difficult tenses such as present perfect and the use of present continuous to show future actions. Based on the results of the tests (quantitative) and a set of questionnaire (qualitative), students had the tendencies to understand tenses more easily using deductive methods.

Deductive method helped students to have rule retention, and worked effectively to teach grammar particularly tenses. This research finding is in line with the finding of Erlam (2003). EFL students, especially in Indonesian setting, lack exposure to English. In this situation, deductive method can be an effective way to teach grammar because the learners need to know the basic concept underlying the tenses. However, Hartoyo (2006) states that, “focusing on grammar in translation rather than language function is still perceived as very important in Indonesia” (p. 16). Teachers only explain the rules and patterns of the tenses without giving sufficient practice and exposure to the language. Moreover, they are not used to reviewing the lesson because of limited time. This situation may result in the lesson being teacher-centered, but not challenging in terms of creativity and imagination. The deductive approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules. In this situation, it is also recommended that induction may serve as an alternative method for grammar instruction.

It is true that when teachers apply inductive methods, learners are trained to be familiar with the rule discovery; learners are more active in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients. In this activity, they will be motivated. As a result, this could enhance learning autonomy and self-reliance, but the concepts are given implicitly, so it may cause learners to have the wrong concepts of the rules taught.

However, inductive method might only work effectively if students get adequate exposure to the language, so they don't have to memorize the rules and patterns of the tenses because they use the language every day. This method might be successful if applied in the countries whose second language is English. Bibi (2002) and Wang (2002) have also proved that inductive method is suitable to be applied in countries whose second languages are English.

Deductive method worked effectively in teaching tenses may be because the researcher gave the students clear explanation about the rules and the concepts underlying the tenses explicitly. Thus, it could be interpreted that there are some advantages of teaching tenses deductively. First, deductive method goes straightforwardly to the point and could, therefore, be time-saving. Students are also aware of the tenses that they are learning. Second, a number of rule aspects, for example, form and usage are more simply and clearly explained than elicited from examples. The teacher mentions the rules, the patterns, and the concept or the function of the tenses being taught explicitly. Third, a number of direct practice/application examples are immediately given by the teacher. The teacher could directly give the examples or practice right after he/she finishes giving the rules and the concepts of the tenses.

In this study, the researcher also gave the students opportunities to ask many questions about the lessons. To help students internalize the concept, she provided some activities that the students needed, and she also involved the students' participation. The activities were varied from the easiest ones to the most difficult ones such as drilling them to use the correct form of verbs, identifying the correct sentences, asking and answering questions, writing short sentences on the board, and writing a paragraph individually. These activities may also contribute to the success of deductive method.

Deductive method might be very boring and teacher-centered if the teacher doesn't involve students' participation. Most students may already be familiar with tenses, but they are unable to use them appropriately. Consequently, interesting and varied activities have to be provided.

Inductive method, on the other hand, could be an alternative way of teaching tenses, particularly simple tenses that could be understood easily by students such as present continuous or future tense. The learners are more active in the learning process rather than being simply passive recipients, so in doing the activity, they could be motivated. If the problem-solving activity is done collaboratively, learners can get an opportunity for extra language practice.

However, there are also some weaknesses of this method. The method is time and energy-consuming. When teaching inductively, the teacher doesn't mention the rules, function, and concepts underlying the tenses explicitly. The teacher only provides examples and encourages students to practice, so sometimes students are not really aware of the tenses

being taught if the teacher doesn't mention it. Moreover, when the concepts are given implicitly, it might cause learners to have the wrong concepts and perception of the rules.

Wee (2007) states that when grammatical rules are taught using inductive method, students are not really conscious about the rules they are using; as a result, they cannot recognize the errors. If the tenses are more complicated and need explanation, inductive methods are not suitable and effective to be applied, particularly in Indonesian setting because Indonesian students lack practice and exposure to the language. They only use the language in certain occasions such as at schools or English courses. The learners also have to know the "function" of a particular verb tense. Knowing the function(s) of a tense helps students determine the correct verb tense to be used.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the research findings, there are three major conclusions that can be drawn. Firstly, deductive method works more effectively than inductive method in teaching tenses to improve students' writing. This method is easier to apply and leaves little room for mistakes because the rules and concepts are concisely and clearly stated. It makes students feel secure because they are aware of the tenses they are learning, and the teacher provides them with a tool with which to deal with the tasks at hand. Not only can their confidence be reinforced by many examples, but they can also feel confident by the fact that the scope of what is expected from them is clearly defined. Furthermore, deductive method does not need much preparation on the part of the teacher as long as the teacher provides a comprehensible and clear definition which could be easily applied in the exercises that follow. However, it also has some quite significant disadvantages that could not be overlooked if the teacher only explains the rules and patterns and gives insufficient practice. The most important one is lack of students' involvement which might result in the lesson being teacher-centered and not challenging in terms of creativity and imagination. Teacher's incompetence might worsen the situation if the teacher is incapable of stating the rule explicitly.

Secondly, it can also be concluded that students taught by a deductive method have better understanding in tenses than those taught by an inductive method. If teachers apply the deductive method with the procedures that the researcher offers, hopefully students can overcome their problems to understand tenses and other grammar points. Knowing the concept and functions of the tenses is the most important thing to understand them.

Thirdly, both inductive and deductive methods could increase students' motivation to learn grammar, particularly tenses. Conversely, deductive method works more effectively than inductive method, and it can be proved by the results of the students' writing. The students could comprehend the tenses using deductive methods more than inductive methods because the researcher explains the basic concept of the tenses from the very beginning and provides meaningful practices while in inductive methods the researcher doesn't give any explanation about the concepts and rules. Therefore, the role of teachers is to provide the language that the learners need to discover the rules.

With regard to the limitation of this study, there are some suggestions for the future research. First, in this study, the researcher conducted the research in an English course where the students were considered homogenous in term of proficiency. Future studies may incorporate the procedure of random assignment with more subjects of different educational levels. Second, this study only focused on writing; therefore, future research can focus on other skills such as reading, listening and speaking. Third, the sample was limited; consequently, the results might not be generalized. It is advisable for future research to have more samples in order to find better results. Fourth, the grammar structures examined in this study were only tenses. For future research, other grammar usages deserve attention.

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An Indonesian Child Learning Sentence Construction

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This study investigates the language acquisition of an Indonesian child (a boy, aged 6 years) who learns and uses English (in Indonesia/Jakarta) inside and outside the classroom. This child regularly watches his favorite English movies such as *Disney Channel* and *Nickelodeon* from cable TV, and he frequently communicates in English at home, particularly with his only younger brother and mother. The data were collected for 18 months by recording his spontaneous speech. The data were transcribed then analyzed to see the development of his English syntactic constructions: i.e. infinitival and sentential complements. These types of constructions are chosen to investigate since it is not always easy for EFL learners to learn these constructions. The findings of this study show that the development of these constructions is enormous: the process of his learning English can be similar (if not the same) to that of English Children. It is because this child and the English children basically share common principles (sufficient exposure to and practices of English) of learning the language.

Keywords: child's foreign language development, language acquisition, sentence construction

Studi ini meneliti pemerolehan bahasa anak laki-laki (6 tahun) Indonesia yang belajar bahasa Inggris di dalam dan di luar kelas. Anak tersebut secara teratur menonton film favoritnya, seperti Disney Channel dan Nickelodeon, melalui kabel TV dan berkomunikasi di rumah, khususnya dengan adik laki-laki dan ibunya. Data dikumpulkan dalam waktu 18 bulan dengan merekam ucapan spontan-nya. Ucapan tersebut diketik dan dianalisa untuk melihat perkembangan konstruksi sintaksis bahasa Inggrisnya, yaitu 'infinitival dan sentential complements'. Konstruksi ini diteliti karena tidak mudah bagi pembelajar bahasa Inggris sebagai bahasa asing untuk mempelajarinya. Penemuan studi ini menunjukkan bahwa perkembangan pemerolehan konstruksi ini sangat luar biasa: proses pemerolehan bahasa Inggris oleh anak dari negara yang tidak berbahasa Inggris sama dengan pemerolehan bahasa Inggris oleh anak yang tinggal di negara berbahasa Inggris. Ini karena anak Indonesia tersebut dan anak-anak di negara

berbahasa Inggris memiliki kesamaan dalam belajar bahasa (ekspose dan praktik berbicara yang memadai dalam bahasa tersebut).

INTRODUCTION

In more than two decades the national-plus schools have been mushrooming, and in Jakarta the number of this schools amounts to one hundred (Wiradji, 2006). The schools usually use English and Indonesian as medium of instruction. The subject of this study is a boy, named Rayesha. Rayesha, who is usually called Ray, lives with his Indonesian parents and his older brother, Narendra. Rayesha and Narendra go to an elementary school, a national-plus school in South Jakarta. The school uses English and Indonesian as the medium of instruction, and the ratio of use between these two languages is approximately 70% English and 30% Indonesian. In addition, all extracurricular activities such as swimming, baseball, and arts are conducted in English. Practically, students in this school use English actively inside and outside the classroom (school).

At school, almost all subjects in the school curriculum are taught in English. Nara actively uses English inside and outside school since he is placed in an environment where people in this school community such as peers, teachers, school administrators, and school staff use English as the language for communication. It happens to be that Rayesha does not have friends at his age in his neighborhood, and he does always meet his cousins and other relatives who speak Indonesian. So, by chance, the subject rarely speaks Indonesian in his home environment; quite often he speaks English with his mother and older brother at home, while he speaks Indonesian with his father. Rayesha's hobbies are reading English books on history and animals and watching his favorite English programs, i.e. quizzes, cartoon movies, and other movies for kids on English Channels such as Disney Channel and Nickelodeon.

In this case, Rayesha is an active learner and user of English since he not only learns and uses English in the classroom but also uses the language outside the school and home environment. He feels the need to speak English most of the time, and this condition may enhance the process of learning English. Foley and Thompson (2003) and Moon (2000) state that children in EFL setting may also enhance their learning of a foreign language as long as they live in a "community" where people in that community use English actively and these children feel comfortable in learning and using the language.

Foreign Language Acquisition and Its Impacts on Foreign Language Learning

The major difference between a second language and a foreign language is just a setting where the language is acquired or learned. Second language is a language learned in a native speaking country whereas a foreign language is a language learned in a foreign language setting or in an environment where people in that community do not use the language. But does this always mean the amount of foreign language learned is limited? Let's see the linguists' view on this particular phenomenon. Ellis (1994) asserts that the setting is not that important. According to him, language learning much depends on "... what is learnt and how is learnt". Littlewood (1984) and Moon (2000) have some notions that language learners can acquire a second language naturally since the language plays an institutional and social role in the community. They further state that even children or learners in a foreign language setting may learn the language as long as people in that environment use English and they (children or learners) are provided with linguistic inputs and given opportunities to use the language in this favorable learning situation. The process of these children's or learners' language acquisition can be similar to that of second language (L2) learners (Littlewood, 1984; Moon, 2000).

Language acquisition is the most captivating phenomenon which has intrigued many linguists and psycholinguists to conduct research on the process of how children learn language (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). For example, how they learn words and put them together in meaningful sentences and how they go on developing complex grammatical sentences. The end result of this process of this 'linguistic development' is commonly referred to as 'language acquisition', and it actually contains grammatical rules which enable children to speak and understand a language (Lightfoot, 1999; Menyuk, 1988; O'Grady, 1997; Whan-Cho & O'Grady, 1997). For decades many scholars such as Lindfors (1980), Lightbown and Spada, 1993), Wortham (1994), and Hoff (2001) produced a series of theories to account for it. These children learn language in their community: the behaviorists, innatists, and interactionists.

The behaviorists believe that the child's mind at birth is like a blank slate (Hoff, 2001; Dardjowidjojo, 2000). Language is learned entirely from experience. Unlike the behaviorists, Chomsky (1965) developed innateness theory claiming that children are biologically programmed for language. They have a special gift for learning the language. This language device is called Language Acquisition Device (LAD), and later this innate endowment is referred to as Universal Grammar (UG). UG consists of a set of principles common to all languages (i.e. subject, verb, and object) and language parameters. For example, in some

languages like Indonesian, the word order in sentences is SVO (subject, verb, object), while in Japanese it is SOV (Finegan & Bresnier, 1989). Children do not need to learn rules which are innate but their task is only to set the value expressed by the language in their environment (Guasti, 2002). In other words, the task of a child acquiring language is to select the appropriate values of parameters specified by UG (Guasti, 2002; Hoff, 2001).

Certain conditions are crucial to activate UG so that the children's learning a language can take place. There are important features of children that can trigger the language device. Firstly, children are social beings; they need to actively and continuously interact with people in their environment, such as their parents, siblings, peers, and teachers. This way they gain exposure to and opportunities to use the language.

The second condition is that children always need opportunities to use the language as much as possible since early childhood. This way they are able to actively experiment or control the linguistic inputs that they get from their surroundings (Lindfors, 1980; Moskowitz, 1978; Tomasello, 2003). Finally, early in life, children have the 'need' to communicate to express, for example, what they feel, what they want, and what they like to respond to what they hear or experience. So, to enhance their speech, children need a speaking community starting from a small scope like home and neighborhood environment and a wider scope like school and other outside world environment (Lindfors, 1980; Moon, 2000).

The theory on how children acquire a language is based on an interactionist's view in which it asserts that language develops because of the interaction between linguistic environment and children innate capacities (Lightbown & Spada, 1994). Lightbown and Spada (1994) claim that a supportive environment with conversational contexts provided by proficient speakers results in higher levels of language development. However, mere exposure to the language such as watching TV is not sufficient for learning complex structures and application of language (Hoff, 2001; Wortham, 1994). Children need to actively participate in language acquisition by, for example, involving themselves in the interaction. This is not a difficult task for them since basically they are not passive receptors.

Despite the fact that there have been a lot of disputes regarding the critical period hypothesis in language learning (Bialystok, 1977; Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Hoff, 2001; Johnson and Newport, 1991; Lenneberg, 1967; Long, 1990; Patskowski, 1990; Pinker, 1994), a critical period in learning a second language does exist; children are at their prime time to learn languages in addition to their native language (Guasti, 2002; Hakuta, 2001, Hoff, 2001; Laughlin, 1984; Lightbown & Spada, 1993; Long, 1990). The important thing is how

children can benefit from the condition in learning a second language. Children can truly benefit learning a second language as long as they are exposed to the language and are given opportunities to use the language in the environment where the language is spoken such as reading a lot of English books, watching English movies, and actively using English with peers, teachers at schools and people in their home environment (Brown, 2001; Foley and Thompson, 2003; Littlewood, 1984; Moon, 2000). Moreover, children who start learning a second language at the early age may be capable of gaining a native-like proficiency.

Empirical research on the acquisition of English as a foreign language is frequent. However, it can be assumed that there are some liable facets or conditions in which children's processes in learning the first, second, and foreign language are similar (if not the same) since they have innate capacity (i.e. UG) to learn languages and are at their prime time in learning languages. They are social beings; this enables them to participate actively in the language environment if these children are placed in the environment where they can be exposed to the language and have opportunities to use the language.

There have been several studies conducted on the development of sentences constructions of English (Diessel, 2004; Guasti, 2001; O'Grady, 1997; Tomasello, 2003). These studies primarily focus on how English children construct words into sentences: simple to complex ones. Most of these studies use one, two, and three subjects, and they are a longitudinal study. It usually takes six months to three years. Studies on the development of English as a second language are quite a few; one of the studies is conducted by Hakuta (1974, 1976) who investigated the language chunks of his daughter's English.

The empirical research on the acquisition of English as a foreign language is quite rare, particularly in Indonesia. This study therefore investigates how an Indonesian child who lives in Indonesia acquires English. Unlike other children who learn and use English in the classroom in only a few hours a week, the subject of this study learns and uses English inside and outside the classroom most of the time. In other words, he (the subject) uses English as a means of communication with people in his school and home environment.

The objective of this study is whether his English learning adopts the universal principles of language acquisition as they are applied to English or not. There is a subsidiary question pertinent to the objective of this study: how this child develops his complex sentences, i.e. infinitival and sentential complements, relative clauses, passives, and conjoined-clause constructions.

METHOD

This study is in the area of language acquisition; it is based on a substantial naturalistic corpus of spontaneous speech on one subject learning English in Indonesia. The subject's speech was audio-recorded in 18 months, starting from 6.1 to 7.7 years old. When the data were taken, he was in the first going to the second grade of elementary national-plus school in Jakarta. The recording of his speech was mostly taken at home and other places such as swimming pool, base-ball court, and taken during the trips to places like Malang, Bandung, and Malaysia. The data were taken by-weekly during the weekends.

As a participant observer, the researcher spent the weekends at the subject's house and did the recording of his speech when he communicated with his brother, mother, grandfather, and the researcher. Being a self-recording operator, the researcher was always present when the recording was made. She made use of her presence to take notes of all information that might be needed for data analysis. The transcribing was done right after the recording was made to have an accurate data possible. During the period of 18 months, each sentence construction under this study was analyzed to see how the child developed the complex sentence constructions.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The earliest complex sentences involving to-infinitives that English speaking children learn and use are sentences that use matrix *wanna + V*, *hafta + V*, *gotta + V*, *needta + V*, and *gonna + V*. Nara also used these matrix verbs in his speech like *I wanna play*, *you hafta request*, *I gotta search the entire island*, and *I needta talk to Mom*. Unlike English children, Ray produced complex sentences involving wh-infinitival and sentential complements at the same time. He also developed a number of *wh*-infinitives just like the subject in Hakuta (1976) study, for example, *I know what to do*, *I teach myself how to make boomerang*. Later, he used matrix clause *I know* with other infinitive phrases starting with other question words other than *what* and *how* such as in *I know where to go*, *I know who to see*.

Later, Ray could produce complex sentences involving other matrix verbs think, guess, mean, wish, hope, say, and see. For example, *I think I'm going to die*, *I thought I left it*, *I guess, I lose*, *I mean baby pokemon not grow up*, *I wish I know*, *I wish you were reptile*, *I hope I can find this*, *Ayah said I can play anytime*, *See there is a wild goat*. At the end of this study, Raysha could produce a complement that involves matrix promise, like *I promise you to speak English* and *you can record me*.

Children up to the age of nine still misinterpret utterances employing the semantic principle or what Chomsky calls Minimal Distance Principle (MDP) in which the subject of infinitive phrase *to speak English* is the closest NP *you* not *I*. In addition, Nara at this stage could produce complex sentences using matrix verbs *forget, look, remember, believe, seem, wonder, bet, and mind* like in *I forget today is Monday, Look what you have done, Remember you are the judge, I can't believe his eyes are fierce, It seems that you have to be on your own, I'm wondering If I can ask for help, I bet he is, D'you mind if I watch this?*

Relative clauses are problematic for English children; they have difficulties forming what some authors (MacWhinny, 1999; Slobin, 1973; Tomasello, 2003; Tavakolian, 1981) call as center embedded clauses, for example, clauses that modify subject, like in *The man **who stole my car** ran away*. The earliest relative clauses that Ray produced were not center-embedded clauses like in *I'll get anything I want*. Like most English children, Ray also made some errors in constructing relative clauses. He missed the relative pronouns in most utterances that involved relative clauses like in *This is Jeff in here is taping from the ball contest*. Later he could use center-embedded clauses in his speech. It is used as dependent clauses to respond to questions, like in Q: *Who is punk, Ray?* R: *Somebody **who gives money to the bully***.

The earliest relative clauses produced by children were a 'presentational relative constructions' (Diessel, 2004; Tomasello, 2003) which are formulaic and consist of pronominal subjects *That, This, There, and It*. Nara also produced such kind of relative clauses in his speech like in *This is professor Oak who give Pokeball, This is where I found Gym Leader, There was a witch who eats the girl*. In this process, Ray produced a number of embedded clause constructions like in *Everyone who has ticket will meet Crabby, the clown*. He even could produce relative phrases using present or past participles in his speech like in *The big wave **coming** destroyed the castle, There is a guy **named** Max Salome*.

English children are quite late in producing passive constructions (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; O'Grady, 2005). Like English children, Ray did not produce many passive constructions in his speech. The stages of the development of passives in Ray speech are similar to those of English children. At the first stage, Ray produced passive constructions involving the verb *get* like in *The earth suddenly get destroyed*, auxiliary verb *be*, like in *Nobody's invited*, then the use of modal verb *can* and *will* like in *You can't be scared, You'll be saved*. By-passive constructions are found in Ra's speech like in *The world is built by creator called Pokemon*. In later development, Ray produced passive constructions using

various tenses past tense and present perfect tense like in *I have to shoot before we were trapped, I've been totally distracted.*

There are two ways to construct complex constructions: those that involve coordination in which two independent clauses are linked in an equal manner and those that involve subordination, in which one clause (a subordinate clause) is to modify another clause (a main clause). However, the distinction between coordination and subordination is not so clear for young children (Tomasello, 2003). What children understand is there are clauses that are integrated, typically with connectives, to form conjoined-clauses. Bloom (1990), James (1990), and Diessel (2004) found that the first connective to emerge was *and*; and later, other connectives such as *because, but, and if* to make up conjoined-clause constructions.

In the beginning most of Ray's sentences were simple. However, he also produced multi-clause utterances that involved the connectives *and, but, because, and if*. Connective *is* is used in two kinds of utterances: non-conjunction constructions (Diessel, 2004) like in *I go to beach, I swimming* and multi functions of *and*-clauses used in a variety of semantic relations (James, 1990; Diessel, 2004) as additive clause in *My toy is car and I love my toy* and as temporal clause in *I eat and my brother bought a 'crash gear'*. Connective *but* is used once like in *I very, very angry but I forget you*. Connective *because* is used to introduce an isolated utterance as a response to a causal *why*-question in *Why do you like the book? Ray: Because cool*, while connective *if* is used in adverbial clauses in *If I friend with Titan, I want to play ball*.

English children acquire connectives *when* and *before* later than other connectives *and, but, and because* (Diessel, 2004). Ray used connectives *when* in some sentences like in *It don't work when he don't make strategy*, connective *before* in *before I change my mind I throw you up the junk*. *Until* and *or* are two connectives produced later by children in Diessel's (2004) and Tomasello's (2003) studies. Ray produced these two connectives, *until* in *I train and train the baby Pokemon until become big* and *or*, in *Stay back or the lady will get hurt*.

In Diessel's (2004) and Tomasello's (2003) studies, it was found that the connectives *because* and *so* appeared at the same time in English children's speech. In contrast, the emergence of the connective *so* was much later than *because* in Ray's speech. For example, *I should bring helmet, so I can't die*. Other connectives produced are *then* to signal temporal clauses in *We run, then we got back there, whether* in *I don't care whether is hot, wherever* in *I see wherever he come*, and *as* in *Do as I say*.

The uses of connectives to connect two clauses related semantically and pragmatically have developed in Ray's speech at the end of the study. Speakers do not always use connectives to link two clauses to make the communication natural and effective. In some contexts, Ray omitted the connectives, and this is done appropriately. He omitted connectives *but* in *This is my best toys. I want to get more, because* in *You can't get in my room. I want to play band*, and *so* in *I'm getting hiccough. I'll get some water*. The last connective produced in Ray's speech is *or else* used as a warning or a threat like in *Nara, get down my dollies, or else!* All in all, within 18 months Ray produced 17 connectives to form conjoined clauses, and this has proved that his development of English is tremendous.

CONCLUSIONS

Ray's development of English complex sentences is significant since within 18 months he could produce various sentence constructions (infinitival and sentential and also conjoined clauses) accordingly. The findings of the study have proven that the acquisition of his English is similar if not the same as that of English children. Ray is a native Indonesian who learns English in a foreign setting, yet the process of English development follows the same path as that of English children. This is because there are liable universal principles apparently underlying this condition: innate capacity in a child's brain to learn any language in his environment, a child's prime time in learning language, sufficient exposure to and opportunities to the use language; and this is apparently applicable to the learning of language.

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The Application of Multimedia-Based Presentation in Improving Students' Speaking Skill

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Although speaking is one the important skills, it is not easy to have this skill. English teachers have used various techniques to improve students' speaking skill. So far, however, there has been little discussion about the role of multimedia-based presentation in improving students' speaking skill. This action research taking place at a private university in Serang, Banten investigated the use of multimedia-based presentation to improve speaking skill. The findings showed that students' speaking and presentation skills improved and their confidence to speak in front of the class increased. Students also learned technology which is beneficial for their study and future career. This study, therefore, suggests that teachers consider this aid in teaching-learning processes.

Keywords: multimedia-based presentation, speaking skill, classroom action research.

Meskipun berbicara adalah salah satu keterampilan yang penting, tidak mudah memperoleh kemampuan ini. Guru bahasa Inggris telah menerapkan berbagai teknik untuk memperbaiki keterampilan berbicara siswa. Namun sejauh ini diskusi tentang peran presentasi berbasis multimedia masih jarang. Penelitian tindakan yang mengambil tempat di sebuah perguruan tinggi di swasta di Serang, Banten ini meneliti tentang penggunaan presentasi berbasis multimedia untuk meningkatkan kemampuan berbicara. Hasil penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa kemampuan berbicara dan presentasi siswa meningkat, juga kepercayaan diri siswa ketika berbicara di depan kelas. Siswa juga belajar menggunakan teknologi, yang bermanfaat untuk kuliah dan karir mereka di masa depan. Oleh karena itu penelitian ini mengusulkan kepada guru untuk mempertimbangkan penggunaan multimedia dalam pembelajaran.

INTRODUCTION

In the second half of the 20th century, education technologies were one of the most popular and developed areas in the world. Computers, which have entered the school life in the late 1950s in developed countries, are constantly developing day by day throughout the world. Today, they have become more powerful, faster, easier to use, more convenient and cheaper, and they can also process and store much more data. Romi and Zoabi (as cited in O'Hara, 2011), who investigated the impacts of computer technology on the self-esteem of dropout youth, report that "technology can have a positive effect on student attitudes toward learning, self-confidence, and self-esteem" (p. 3). With regard to learning, a study by Sanaoui and Lapkin (as cited in Stepp-Greany, 2002) revealed that technology encouraged the development of school students' independent learning in French, with its findings showing that over 85% of the students agreed that the instructor interacted with them to facilitate difficulties in the computer use.

Technology is the product of human being that can be helpful to enhance education, especially in the learning and teaching processes. In other words technology is one of the tools that can be applied effectively in learning activities and may encourage individuals' motivation. Multimedia is a part of technology that can facilitate students to be involved in learning process with their own preferred ways. Multimedia is a term frequently heard and discussed among educational technologists today. It covers the combination of computer hardware and software that allows students to integrate video, animation, audio, graphics, and text resources to develop effective presentations on an affordable desktop computer. Using computers and every kind of technological equipment may give students the sense of freedom and encouragement.

One of the objectives of English curriculum in most non English speaking countries, including Indonesia, is to make students able to communicate with people around the world. One of the communication forms is giving presentation. However, in the Indonesian context, there seems to be some problems arising in the classroom regarding presentation skills. The first problem is students still lack vocabulary and English grammar to improve an oral English presentation. Second, they lack self confidence in performing an English presentation. Third, many schools still lack technology such as computer, English learning software, and LCD or projectors that can help enhance students' learning activities. Finally, there seems to be a lack of highly qualified human resources in teaching presentation skills in the Indonesian EFL context. This study, therefore, focused on the use of multimedia-based

presentation and the suitable materials for performing an oral English presentation. The following two questions were posed in this study:

1. What are the suitable materials which meet the students' needs to improve their speaking skill?
2. How can the multimedia-based presentation be effectively used to improve the students' speaking skill?

Multimedia in the Language Classroom

The use of multimedia technology in education has created a significant impact on the development of learning instruction and the methods of communicating information to learners. Collins, Hammond, and Wellington (2002) describes multimedia as “the way of presenting material (often learning material) which involves three or more of the following media within a computer environment: speech or other sound; drawing or diagrams; animated drawings or diagrams; photographs or other images; video clips; text i.e. the printed word” (p. 3). A similar idea is proposed by Agnew (as cited in Neo& Neo, 2009) who states that “multimedia has been shown to affect students' motivation and self-esteem levels, as well as allow them to become creative and self-directed thinkers” (p. 254).

Computer is also a device that processes information with a great speed and accuracy. Computers process information by helping create the information itself, displaying, storing, recognizing, and communicating information to other computers. In general they process numbers, words, pictures, and sounds. Gunduz (2005) states that “the computer has changed the way the people work, learn, and communicate. It is used by students, teachers, and research scientists as a learning tool all over the world, as well as by individuals at home to study, work and entertain” (p. 195).

Those ideas can be inferred that multimedia and computers are the learning tools which can be effectively applied to encourage the motivation and interest of students. It can give benefits for learners because it can provide some attractive features, engage them in interactive learning atmosphere, and let them feel free to learn with their own ways. Besides, it is believed that multimedia can enhance the learning and teaching processes to be more interesting and innovative and can actively involve students' participation.

There have been some studies (Anggraini, 2010; Schcolnik & Kol, 1999) attempting to improve four language skills through multimedia based teaching. A study by Schcolnik and Kol (1999) has proven that computer applications have been used in many school disciplines and thus changing teaching methodologies throughout the curriculum. This tool

allows students to experience a world of real language opportunity. Through computers, students can do some activities. First, students read source materials. Then they articulate and crystallize their ideas through interaction with their peers and teacher. Finally, they write them on computer slides and share their writing with others in classroom.

Anggraini (2010) conducted her study with regard to the application of technology in classroom. The study revealed that students who applied PowerPoint presentation improved their speaking skill. PowerPoint presentation is a computer-software program that facilitates learners to learn creatively and interactively. The findings of the study showed that before implementing English program and applying PowerPoint presentation as teaching and learning technique, there were 25 out of 37 participants (68%) who performed 'fair' presentation skill, while 12 participants (32%) were categorized as 'poor.' After they were given a model of an effective presentation skill, the results indicated that there were 20 participants (54%) whose performance was categorized as 'very good,' and 17 participants (46%) performed a 'good' presentation skill.

Based on the previous studies, the present study mainly concerned with the application of multimedia-based presentation to encourage students speaking skill. Besides this, it also investigated whether there is a significant improvement of students' performance in oral presentation by applying multimedia based presentation as an innovative technique that can be used in the teaching-learning processes. The findings of this study are expected to give more understanding regarding the use of multimedia in promoting students' speaking skills and give practical know-how for (Indonesian) EFL practitioners interested in this field.

METHOD

Research Design

This study adopted action research and took place at the Economics Department at one of private universities in Serang, Banten. There were two majors in the department: Management and Accounting. 30 students at the 4th semester majoring in Accounting participated in this study.

This study did several stages. The first stage was planning. In the planning stage, the researcher obtained consent from the head of Economic Department to conduct action research. Then observation and interview were done to find out the condition of learning process. Finally, the researcher set the evaluation instrument used to measure and assess the students' weaknesses and strengths in speaking.

The next stage was cycle one. In this stage, the researcher set tasks and pattern concerning presentation practice before giving a presentation model and guidelines of how to do a good presentation for the purpose of developing speaking ability. The researcher also observed the activity focusing on how far the effectiveness of the first performance, evaluated the result of the practice, modified the medium or materials of study based on the previous evaluation and observation, and did reflection.

The next stage was cycle two. In this stage, students were given a presentation model and guidelines by applying multimedia-based presentation before they delivered presentation. Peer observer was adopted to help the researcher measure the students' performances. Observation and evaluation were conducted to see the effectiveness of the instruction and the students' achievement. Finally, the researcher did reflection to find out what was still wrong in this stage.

In the stage of cycle three, the researcher collaborated with a peer observer to assess the progress of students' speaking skills. In this stage, students gave the third presentation using multimedia-based presentation. The activity was observed and evaluated to see the effectiveness of this activity and to know the difficulties of using this medium.

Data Collecting Methods

Four methods to collect the data were adopted in this study: questionnaire, observation, presentation assessment form, and interview. Questionnaire was adopted to find comments, statements, and perception for needs analysis in order to lead the researcher to apply multimedia-based presentation. The questionnaire asked three points. First, it asked what the students needed to improve their speaking skills. Second, it asked what materials could be used and matched to their field of study. Third, the questionnaire asked what the institution expected from its graduates concerning their English skill. Regarding observation, the researcher attempted to find out how students speaking skill improved. Since this study required students to give English presentation, their presentation was assessed; therefore, presentation assessment form was used to measure the improvement of students speaking performances. Finally, interview was used to find out what students felt regarding the activity. Only ten students were interviewed as samples.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

With regard to the suitable materials students need to improve their speaking skills, the researcher asked five questions: (a) Does the given material make you comfortable in doing

oral presentation? (b) Does the given material make you feel free to improve your English? (c) Does the given material make you speak actively? (d) Does the given material make you interested in doing an oral presentation? (e) Does the given material make you motivated to practice your English orally?

The findings showed that 5% of the students said the given material did not give any effect on their motivation and interest in learning the language. The majority of them stated that (a) they were not familiar with oral presentation in English and difficult topics, (b) they were not accustomed to giving presentation, (c) they could not express their thoughts in English, and (d) they had problems with vocabulary, grammar patterns, and language expressions. In solving the problems faced by the students, the researcher designed the grammar lessons using the basic form of PowerPoint presentation for their learning materials, gave them a model for oral presentation, and asked them to practice. It is based on what they need to learn for improving their English skills. By learning grammar they expect they can speak better English. Furthermore they should be familiar with the advanced technology such as internet access and computer because they should be able to download their preferred topics and design their own PowerPoint slides with interesting animation, pictures, and sounds in order to make the presentation more attractive and effective.

In the second activity of cycle two, 4.1% of the students said that the grammar lessons could make them feel motivated and interested in order to be able to practice oral presentation, while 0.9% of the students informed that they did not feel free to improve their English and speak actively. This may be because they still lacked understanding English grammar and language expressions. To solve the problems, the researcher provided the guidelines of oral presentation which contained many English expressions and suggestions commonly used for presentation they can learn and practice.

Finally, in the activity three of the third cycle, finding showed that 5% of the students stated they were motivated to learn grammar in order to improve their speaking skills. They were also eager to learn English grammar deeper and have more vocabulary and English expressions. They were getting interested in practicing oral presentation for improving their speaking skills.

In connection with the students' progress of speaking skills, the following cycles inform the findings:

Cycle One

In the planning stage, the researcher planned to design the learning scenario by putting the students into groups, giving them the topics that they had to present, and arranging the schedule time for conducting the research. The given topics were about education, how to be a good accountant, technology in education, health, and computer. Those topics had to be presented by each group for ten minutes. There were six groups which consisted of five students in each group, so each student had two minutes to present their parts of presentation.

In the implementation stage, after having their topics, students presented the topics with their own ways in front of the class. This activity was done before they had the guidelines of oral presentation, watched a good model of presentation, and practiced the presentation. During the activity, the researcher along with a peer observer observed each group to assess the extent to which they used English or Indonesian and to determine whether they were doing presentation well. Their presentation was recorded to know their speaking progress.

In the observation stage, the researcher did some observation. The results of the first cycle showed that 15.53% of the students performed a 'poor' presentation. They were not familiar to practice presentation in English orally, and they did not present their presentation systematically. Besides this, most of them could not design their PowerPoint slides effectively.

Having seen the activity, the researcher observed that there were several things that need to be improved: (a) students faced the problems of delivering their topics in front of the class, they were not accustomed to practice oral presentation in English, (b) they lacked confidence and motivation to learn English, (c) they felt reluctant and frustrated when performing an oral presentation in the classroom, (d) they could not explore their ideas in front of the class because they felt scared to speak, (e) most of them still depended on their handouts when they were presenting their slides, (f) they lacked grammar, vocabulary, and language expressions, (g) they could not present their information in sequent manner because they did not know the rules of doing presentation, (h) they were not familiar with the PowerPoint used for presentation, and the important thing is (i) the time in one meeting was not enough for them to practice oral presentation.

Reflecting on activities in this first cycle, it was found that most students were actually good in non-verbal delivery; however, they were still very confused what to say. The time allotment was also restricted. They did not perform oral presentation well because they felt that the given material or topic was very difficult for them to do presentation in English.

Based on the results of students' responses about the materials, they really wanted to learn English grammar in order to be able to speak English well. The researcher looked more deeply into those problems and decided to provide the grammar lessons in the form of PowerPoint. It was then uploaded into the web-blog of language center, which was designed for learning media. The researcher also gave them a model of oral presentation and the guidelines of oral presentation which aimed to help them express their thoughts in English and deliver their presentation with their preferred ways. In line with encouraging the students' confidence, the researcher provided the extensive exposures, so that they could rehearse oral presentation as much as possible.

Cycle Two

In the planning stage of this cycle, the researcher designed grammar lessons in accordance with what the students requested such as 'too' and 'enough,' passive sentences, conditional sentences, modal auxiliaries, etc. Dealing with the problem of time allotment, the researcher provided extensive classes for their practices in oral presentation. The students had two meetings in two hours in the extensive classes. In these classes, they were given a model of oral presentation and the guidelines of good presentation.

In the implementation stage, the students still worked in group and cooperated to perform better presentation. They were given more practice. Then the researcher gave a good model on how to do presentation in English and familiarized various expressions included in the guidelines of presentation. Moreover, students had some practice on how to design attractive PowerPoint slides. With the help of internet access, they could get many downloadable templates and animations of PowerPoint. During the extensive classes, the students had two meetings in two hours for their practice; then they were required to perform their presentation in one meeting. Each group had ten minutes to present their topics.

Having observed the activity, the results showed that 0.6% of the students did a poor presentation. Some of them said that pronouncing English words was difficult. Most students who did a satisfactory presentation informed that they were getting interested in learning grammar because they thought that without understanding English grammar they could not speak English effectively.

The activity in cycle two showed that students' skill in oral presentation improved. Their presentation slides looked attractive, and they were more active than before. Only a small number of students did a poor presentation due to their weak pronunciation skill. This all can be concluded that because the students were getting motivated to practice oral

presentation, they also felt motivated to design their PowerPoint slides to look more attractive. They also tried to learn more English grammar and expressions.

Cycle Three

Letting the students practice more actively by giving them motivation and more time to rehearse their presentation was the first thing which was more effective for them to get more confidence to express their ideas and deliver their presentation more attractively. Second, in motivating them, the researcher tried to collaborate with a foreign teacher and lecturer to stimulate them to improve their English skills. Third, the researcher taught them simple grammar such as countable and uncountable nouns, types of gerund, question tags, etc. to help them present their topics. Again, each group had 10 minutes to present their topics.

In the implementation stage, the students kept going on presenting their work of PowerPoint in group so that each student could demonstrate his/her ability in speaking and elaborate information in more sequent manner. Each student was given not more than 2 minutes in presenting their parts of PowerPoint presentation. The researcher recorded the progress and improvements of students' performance.

Having observed the activity, the results showed that there was no more 'poor' presentation. A very small number of the students (0.6%) did a satisfactory performance. The majority of the students performed a 'good' presentation. A good presentation means that the students were capable of explaining and giving their information or ideas, were able to present their information in logical and interesting sequence, designed better PowerPoint slides integrated with interesting multimedia such as animations, picture, templates, etc., and did effective presentations. Reflecting on this cycle, it shows that the students were getting interested in learning the language and motivated to practice more presentation. The findings showed that their speaking skills improved, and they could deliver a better presentation.

CONCLUSIONS

As mentioned, some authors have discussed the role of multimedia in improving students' speaking skills. This action research has shown that the notion is true. Multimedia can be included in a speaking class to help students perform better oral presentation. This may be due to the characteristic of multimedia which can be attractive since it can contain animation, sound, figures, etc. However, this is only a teaching-learning aid. Providing students with basic skills such as grammar, vocabulary and a model of presentation is still more important.

This study took place at one of universities in Serang at the Economics Department. One of the limitations is each individual was not given much time to present since they had to do it in group. Further action research may be needed to explore the effects of multimedia in a small EFL classroom, and further studies may be needed to investigate the effectiveness of multimedia-based presentation in different departments or secondary school setting. Finally, a more robust study needs to be done to investigate the role of multimedia in improving students' speaking (presentation) skills.

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Infusing Critical Thinking into English Coursebooks

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Though critical thinking has been officially written as one of educational objectives in Indonesia as written in the Regulation of the Republic of Indonesia Number 17 Year 2010 Regarding Educational Management and Administration, it seems that schoolteachers in this country still do not understand what it is and do not realise the importance of critical thinking for students and professionals of this country. This might be because there is no clear conception of what kind of critical thinking needed in education in this country, or it may be because Indonesian schoolteachers do not really know how to encourage students' critical thinking as they may be still confused with this concept as mentioned above. The latest 2013 curriculum, however, seems to have accommodated the infusion of critical thinking into school subjects, as can be seen in the adoption of Bloom's taxonomy. This article therefore attempts to argue what critical thinking can contribute to Indonesian students and people as well as proposes reading activities based on Ilyas' critical thinking framework. This framework is the result of synthesising, examining and evaluating critical thinking taxonomies, strategies, programmes and tests.

Keywords: critical thinking, critical thinking framework, Indonesian education, coursebooks

Meskipun berfikir kritis (critical thinking) telah dimasukkan ke dalam salah satu tujuan pendidikan di Indonesia yang tertulis dalam Peraturan Pemerintah Nomor 17 Tahun 2010 Tentang Pengelolaan dan Administrasi Pendidikan, guru-guru sekolah di Indonesia nampaknya belum benar-benar memahami apa itu berfikir kritis dan belum menyadari pentingnya berfikir kritis bagi siswa dan profesional di negeri ini. Hal ini mungkin disebabkan tidak jelasnya konsep berfikir kritis seperti apa yang dibutuhkan dunia pendidikan Indonesia, atau mungkin juga disebabkan guru yang belum mengerti bagaimana mendorong siswa berfikir kritis karena mereka sendiri belum memahami konsep berfikir kritis, seperti yang telah disebutkan di atas. Kurikulum 2013 nampaknya telah memasukan berfikir kritis, dengan diadopsinya taksonomi Bloom dalam kurikulum tersebut. Oleh karena itu

artikel ini memaparkan kontribusi berfikir kritis terhadap siswa dan profesional Indonesia, juga menawarkan aktifitas membaca dengan memasukan berfikir kritis yang diambil dari kerangka berfikir kritis Ilyas. Kerangka berfikir kritis ini merupakan hasil dari sintesa, evaluasi dan telaah dua puluh taksonomi, strategi, program dan tes berfikir kritis.

INTRODUCTION

Even though critical thinking is an elusive concept, it is believed to be important in this globally changing world, in which humans' lives are bombarded with a stream of information. Not being able to be critical, people could be the victims of misleading information; they also could be manipulated easily. This may be dangerous for society and eventually threaten democracy.

Critical thinking has gained attention in education to address such issues as democracy, tolerance and independence. Besides this, critical thinking can promote deep learning as an alternative approach to what rote learning and memorisation approaches cannot provide. Many countries have included critical thinking in their educational agenda, some of which even have included critical thinking in English textbooks. China, for example, has included critical thinking in English textbooks for university students.

Indonesia has also included critical thinking as one of educational objectives. This is written in the government document: the Regulation of the Republic of Indonesia Number 17 Year 2010 Regarding Educational Management and Administration. The latest school curriculum, the 2013 curriculum, seems to have considered the importance of critical thinking though it is not clear what kind of critical thinking needed in Indonesian education. That critical thinking has gained attention in the newest curriculum can be seen from the adoption of Bloom's taxonomy; Bloom's taxonomy is claimed to be able to promote higher order thinking skills, a similar concept to critical thinking. However, there is no explicit examples for teachers how to promote students critical thinking skills or how teachers can optimise coursebooks to encourage students' critical thinking.

This article attempts to fill the gap between the educational objective and its application in the classroom regarding critical thinking, especially in the teaching of English (ELT). Very little attention has been paid to how critical thinking can be included in ELT, particularly in the Indonesian context. This article argues the benefits of critical thinking and therefore proposes how to infuse critical thinking into reading texts by providing the

examples of critical thinking questions that can be adopted and modified by Indonesian English teachers. It is expected that students can be critical when reading texts; thus, avoiding them to become the victims of texts' propaganda and help them put their own position in this ever-changing world full of 'irresponsible' information.

CRITICAL THINKING

The Importance of Critical Thinking

Critical thinking has been admitted by many authors to have a lot of benefits in various aspects of life and for people coming from different walks of life such as students and professionals (Alfaro-LeFevre, 2003; Bandman & Bandman, 1995; Brown & Rutter, 2007; Cottrell, 2011; Forshaw, 2012; Milos & Hitchcock, 2005; Sharma & Elbow, 2000). It seems to have been a favourite topic of discussion in an academic setting, along with its pros and cons. This may be because there is no agreed definition of critical thinking owing to its abstract concept. Every book presents a different definition, and every author is entitled to define its conception. However, Fisher (2008) argues that "while there may be a problem in definition, nonetheless a focus on teaching thinking has the potential to significantly improve the quality of education for all students" (p. 7).

There are some doubts whether the skills of thinking can be taught or not, but thinking process always happens in human mind in spite of no special training on the skills. All skills, whether they are difficult or not, could be taught and learned, including the skills of thinking. This is supported by Costello (2000) who argues that thinking skills can be taught to not only teenagers or adults but also children. If thinking skills can be taught to children, logically the teaching of the skills to teenagers and adult may be easier as they have more experience and more developed intelligence to reason. This is because adults "have internalized over time a greater quantity of metacognitive information" (Fisher, 2008, p. 9).

If thinking skills can be taught, critical thinking, which is part of thinking skills may also be taught. It means that critical thinking can be improved. Halpern (2014) supports this notion by citing some studies (e.g. Herrnstein, Nickerson, de Sanchez, & Swets, 1986; Van Gelder, 2001) showing that critical thinking can be improved. For example, Herrnstein, Nickerson, de Sanchez, and Swets (as cited in Halpern, 2014) report that based on the evaluation of nationwide thinking skills programme in Venezuela, students participating in the programme had better oral and written argument than those of control group.

As mentioned, many authors believe that critical thinking can have positive impacts on students when applied at school. Regarding the benefits of critical thinking, Cottrell (2011) argues that:

Good critical thinking skills bring numerous benefits such as improved attention and observation; more focused reading; improved ability to identify the key points in a text or other message rather than becoming distracted by less important material; improved ability to respond to the appropriate points in a message; knowledge of how to get your own point across more easily; skills of analysis that you can choose to apply in a variety of situations. (p. 4).

Cottrell's argument shows the benefits of critical reading activities that are indeed an inseparable part of students' daily lives. Good reading activity is in fact not simply deciphering a text; it involves certain processes such as questioning, analysing, interpreting, concluding and commenting. In questioning a text, a reader can put in mind questions such as what the text will be about specifically or what the opinion of the writer will be. When the meaning is already understood, the reader can draw conclusion or make judgment concerning, among others things, the content of the text, the stance of the text writer, the way the writer supports his opinion, the writer's claim, the writer's argument, the importance of content to the reader's study, etc. In this process, a good reader can 'question' again through reflective period before eventually making a comment.

Those reading processes involve rational and critical thinking. Having critical reading habits or skills, whose benefits are stated by Cottrell above, can contribute towards students' academic success. Critical reading skills will also indirectly prepare students for their professional career in the future. So, it is true that critical reading skills are a must for students, especially those who are in the level of higher education as they mostly get involved with abstract concepts presented in reading texts that they have to discern. Unfortunately, a lot of students do not really understand what critical reading is (Wallace & Poulson, 2005). That's why the skills should be taught even in early education (Costello, 200).

Apart from students, people can also get benefits of critical thinking mentioned above inasmuch as reading does not solely belong to the students. A homemaker, for instance, who is fond of reading fiction can get the benefits as well. She can judge whether the book is good or not by finding out the consistency of characters presented in it. She can know the moral messages conveyed by the author. She can criticize why the characters in the book behave not

like the real human being, for example. She can say that the story intentionally discredits a certain party and the writer's discredit is actually wrong. She can also say that the description of certain location in the book is not really proper if she happens to know the location exactly. Finishing reading the book, she can conclude that it is worth recommending or not. As a result, reading is not only a static process. Reading activities will be more enjoyable and meaningful (Costello, 2000).

One question arising is whether critical thinking itself can automatically make students good readers with the qualities mentioned by Cottrell above. For example, will students be guaranteed to have an improved ability to respond to the appropriate points in a message without certain characteristics inside themselves? What Cottrell states is actually a skill, and there must be some other factors that can make students possess the ability. There are other characteristics such as motivation or determination that may also be influential. Motivation, together with the student's intellectual development, is an influential factor to possess the skill.

Another point that sounds good but difficult to obtain from Cottrell's argument is 'skills of analysis that you can choose to apply in a variety of situations'. It is good news because problems come to a human being anytime and anywhere, so they need a smart, rational and intelligent solution, otherwise the decision taken is not satisfactory. Nonetheless, the analysis skills are not as easy as turning the hand palm. The skills may be easy to teach, but the result is unpredictable. There are some factors that influence the successful transfer of knowledge or skills such as student, teacher and condition. From a student's point of view, for example, to get the skills, again he needs to have motivation and to practice the skills. When he practices the skills, he gradually internalizes the skills that will become part of his life. Teacher also plays an important role in making the students have skills of analysis. For example, does the teacher present clearly, give enough exercises to students, encourage students' curiosity, or facilitate the learning process well? Those factors, together with other conditions, contribute to the success of skills of analysis.

The reasons mentioned above also prove that mastering critical thinking skills needs some other factors. The one that is very influential is motivation or determination. Motivation must always be existent in any human's endeavour. In short, to achieve the skills mentioned by Cottrell above needs certain characteristics within a human being. After all, the critical thinking skills can be learned and taught, and they are indeed important for everybody as they give various benefits.

Another opinion highlighting the benefits of critical thinking for students is presented by Judge, Jones, and McCreery (2009) who state:

Some of the most important skills you will need to learn as an education students are the ability to think both critically and objectively about an issue and present a well-constructed argument. Critical and analytical thinking skills such as these will be essential to most aspects of your study, whether you are listening to lectures, contributing to seminars or reading about your subject. (p. 4)

What does Judge et al. mean by ‘think both critically and objectively about an issue’? The word critical could mean using cognitive, rational and intelligence, while objective means it is always based on real facts and not influenced by personal beliefs or feelings to avoid personal bias. Why this is important for students is because they will and have to present the argument of an issue. The argument that is built not based on critical and objective thinking will not be convincing at all as it will miss the point.

Judge et al. (2009) also put forward an interesting sentence that states the skills are very important for students to get involved in learning process. Let’s take ‘reading about student’s subject’ as stated by Judge et al. (2009) as an example. When a student reads an article written in a well-known journal about a certain topic, he will not directly agree, but there will be some questions circling in his mind such as ‘Is the author’s opinion true?’, ‘Should I believe with what the author has said?’, ‘What supports does the author use to build his argument?’, ‘Are the supports the author use still arguable?’ etc. After that the student will take a reflective moment and comments such as ‘Wait, I think what the author has said does not make sense to me’, ‘I still doubt his opinion because...’ etc. will emerge. Then the student can make a decision. These activities absolutely involve the learning processes.

The definition presented by Judge at al. (2009) also put the term ‘objective’. Even though objective means free from personal feelings and beliefs, it cannot guarantee that the decision made is fully free from personal bias. Similarly, the decision taken by the student regarding the subject he has read will also involve his personal beliefs a little. People who practice critical thinking must be aware of this tendency. That’s why Judge at al. (2009) go on to say that in critical thinking people must also have “the ability to be honest about your own biases and prejudices, flexible in considering alternatives and opinions, and willing to consider and revise views where honest reflection suggests that change is warranted” (p.4).

Students, who get involved in an academic setting, must realize this. They must be open to criticism and different opinion. They must realize that there will always be differences in any aspect of human life, and being different is not always bad. If the students are aware of this and keep this attitude in their whole life, it is expected that they will be a more responsible citizen. That is one of the reasons why critical thinking must be taught at school and included in every school subject.

Knowing the benefits of critical thinking skills, when is the proper time to start teaching the skills? Is it when people start secondary school or when they start higher education? As mentioned, Costello (2000) argues that thinking skills can actually be taught to children, so we can start teaching the skills at primary education. Costello did classroom-based research on teaching thinking skills at early childhood education for his doctoral thesis and reported satisfactory results. He argues against common beliefs that say philosophy is difficult subject to study and the nature of philosophical literature is beyond the understanding of young children. Up to this point, Costello's idea makes sense for two reasons. Firstly, if we can teach mathematics or astronomy to children at primary school, we surely can teach thinking skills to them. Secondly, is 'thinking skills' a completely difficult thing so that it cannot be made simple and adjusted to children's mind? The idea seems doubtful since mathematics, which could be considered difficult, can be taught to children, so can critical thinking.

In countering the argument saying that philosophy is difficult subject to study and the nature of philosophical literature is beyond the understanding of young children, Costello (2000) states:

In my view, none of the reasons outlined above is sufficient to warrant the exclusion of young children from the discussion of philosophical problem. Indeed, I would argue that exposure to the skills of critical thinking and reasoning at an early age is essential if children are to cultivate those reflective habits which are crucial to their future lives as citizens in a democracy. To begin this process only at a university or other higher education institution is to arrest children's intellectual development and to imply that 'education for citizenship' is simply an exercise in indoctrination. (p. 47)

Interesting points of Costello's argument are reflective habits are crucial to children's future life as citizens in a democracy, and starting teaching thinking skills at higher institution

will arrest children's intellectual development. The phrase 'reflective habits' is very interesting. As mentioned above, reflection - for a student at higher institution - is needed to see his stance or view on the academic article he was reading, for example. This is the moment when he is in deeply careful thinking before deciding or making action. In every day's life, when this becomes the habit, he can perform well in a democratic society due to his objective position. A person who has no reflective habit might be an intolerant one and easy to blame others.

When thinking skills start to be introduced to children, this could be a habit until they learn at higher institution. Eventually, they are expected to be a scholar who can accept differences to find the truth. They could be a person who respects other people in terms of opinion, social status and belief. Even they could be a person who keeps learning to improve the quality of themselves as a human being. Finally, "omitting to offer children explicit teaching which is aimed at fostering their thinking and valuing processes, may have serious implications for their academic achievement" (Costello, 2000, p. 47). An idea of introducing critical thinking skills in education starting from early education as proposed by Costello is a good idea.

Apart from the benefits of critical thinking for students, professionals can benefit from the thinking skills as well. Cottrell (2004) argues that "skills in critical thinking bring precision to the way you think and work. You will find that practice in critical thinking helps you to be more accurate and specific in noting what is relevant and what is not" (p. 4). Cottrell's argument seems astonishing, and there is a possibility that it happens in the real world. Working world is imbued with decision making that needs critical thinking skills.

There are some reasons why critical thinking can make someone more accurate and specific. First of all, it starts when someone is still a student. Since he is engaged in critical thinking processes as having been mentioned by Cottrell such as improving ability to identify the key points in a text or other message rather than becoming distracted by less important material and improving ability to respond to the appropriate points in a message, he will be accustomed to accuracy and specification. There is the process of habit formation. Then the habit gradually will be part of his character when he lands a job.

Nowadays, almost all fields need critical thinking skills. For example, professionals in the field of social work, according to Brown and Rutter (2007), also need critical thinking skills. Again, this is related to the decision making. It is clear that the processes in critical thinking such as observation, question, evaluation and reflection become the foundation of

making a decision that is crucial for professionals. With respect to critical thinking skills for professionals in social work, Brown and Rutter (2007) state that “social work as a profession has always demanded critical abilities and qualities from its practitioners because decisions have to be made ‘on the spot’ and under pressure” (p. xii).

The fact that professionals in the field of social work often have to take decisions quickly becomes the reason why they need critical thinking skills (Brown & Rutter, 2007). One possible alternative to make better decision is through critical thinking in which information coming must be observed and questioned critically and intellectually. Then it is evaluated before a person performs a reflective thought. Finally, intelligent decision is made. Brown and Rutter (2007) go on to say that “...developing critical abilities within the social work arena can also enhance learning and development and there is potential to progress your own style of critical professional thinking” (p. xi).

What Brown and Rutter (2007) say that critical abilities can enhance learning and development also applies equally to other professional fields. This is because learning and development is an inseparable part of human’s lives. To make the most of learning and development, a human must be able to think critically. Thinking is actually a human’s responsibility; unavoidably, a human has to think. Stopping thinking could mean the end of life because learning and development will also stop.

Everybody is different indeed, and even though a group of people, for example, is taught how to think critically by the same teacher in the same classroom, they will surely develop their own creativity. This creativity is celebrated by Forshaw (2012) commenting on the role of critical thinking in the field of psychology. Forshaw (2012) states that “good critical thinking can be creative: it’s all about putting ideas together in new ways and making us think of things we didn’t think before” (p. 3).

We can see that there are various benefits if critical thinking is introduced to students. They can be successful in the academic journey, and critical thinking can equip them to be individuals who can compete in future lives when becoming professionals. Since critical thinking bring some benefits to people, its inclusion in school subjects of all levels of education is worth trying.

Concerns for Lack of Critical Thinking in Indonesian Education

Even though many authors have believed and shown that critical thinking can bring benefits to students, the teaching of critical thinking does not seem to be widely implemented in

Indonesian education. Indonesian students therefore are likely to lack critical thinking. Some Indonesian academics (e.g. Alwasilah, 2002; Nugroho, 2008; Syofyan, 2012) have voiced their concerns regarding this. Alwasilah (2002) states:

Realizing that our students have been left behind compared to their counterparts in other Asian countries, we need to update ways of teaching both national and foreign languages at all level of education, from elementary to university. Language teaching at present should be aimed at meeting global challenges. In the final analysis, though, basic to success in global competition is the mastery of critical thinking.

It is almost impossible for young Indonesians to be successful in the competition of global job market without critical thinking. Alwasilah's opinion is reasonable since people who hold decision-making position in a company must always think to find ways of becoming a market leader. People with poor critical thinking will not win. Lack of critical thinking in education might be what is happening in Indonesia. That causes Indonesia can only send domestic, not professional, employees whose number reach more than 10 million people (Krismantari, 2012). Conversely, rote learning - not critical thinking - is still widely adopted in Indonesian education. Nugroho (2008) points out:

For decades education in Indonesia has been dominated by teacher-centred instruction and rote learning. I remember very well what my teacher would do in her history class while I was in junior high school. She would come into the classroom, sit down and begin to lecture. All students would sit, listen to the lecture and take notes. The teacher would also ask her students to memorize all names of the ministers who had assumed office in the Cabinet. Another teacher required students to be able to name the cities where the National Sports Week had been held, including the dates and years they took place. These examples are perhaps commonplace in most Indonesian classrooms even today.

That is why Syofyan (2012) comments that "...we must move away from 'rote learning' (a memorization technique based on repetition) so that our youth do not form rigid mind-sets."

The condition like this is found in all formal schools all over Indonesia (Balfas, 2008). As a result, most Indonesian students are not accustomed to giving comment on the pieces of writing they have read, stating opinion to a problem, or analysing reading passages critically. They are mostly not creative and still left behind by their peers even in Asian countries

(Megawangi, 2007; Yusuf, 2006). Up to now, this seems to still exist in Indonesian education.

Apart from having low reading skills, Indonesian students' writing skills are also not very satisfactory. Imran (as cited by Syaifudin & Utami, 2011) reports that Indonesian students have very low writing skills. Syaifudin and Utami (2011) go on to say that:

Hasil penelitian itu menyebutkan bahwa kemampuan menulis siswa Indonesia paling rendah di Asia. Padahal pembelajaran menulis diberikan mulai pendidikan dasar hingga pendidikan tinggi. Hasil ini menunjukkan bahwa berpikir kritis siswa masih rendah pula. Ini disebabkan adanya hubungan berbanding lurus antara menulis (terutama menulis argumentasi) dengan berpikir kritis siswa. (p. 66)

The result of the research shows that writing ability of Indonesian students are the lowest in Asia, whereas writing lessons are taught starting from elementary school to higher education. The result shows that students' critical thinking is also low. This is because there is direct relation between writing (especially argumentative writing) and students' critical thinking skills. (p. 66)

Indonesian students cannot be blamed for their lack of critical thinking. This may happen because teachers do not teach them critical thinking. Why teachers do not teach them critical thinking may be because they were not taught how to be critical during their education. As a result, they are less creative and innovative in teaching. They tend to rely on textbook, not challenging students' curiosity. The research conducted by Direktorat Dikmenum (The Directorate of General Secondary Education) of The Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture in 1996-1997 shows that the teaching process at secondary schools tends to be textbook oriented that is not related to students' daily lives (Balfas, 2008). Though the research was conducted almost 18 years ago, the present condition does not seem really different.

That critical thinking is not popular to most school teachers in Indonesia is also supported by another study. A study by Ajisuksmo and Vermunt (as cited in Soeherman, 2010) reported that educational settings in the country are dominated by teacher's lectures and students' memorization to pass the examination. Even in higher education Soeherman (2010) contends that "there is no specific course called 'critical thinking,' yet the content of some courses, such as research methodology classes, may indirectly develop critical thinking

ability. Nevertheless, teaching methodologies applied in these classes are not intentionally structured to foster students' critical thinking skills” (p. 5).

As mentioned, rote learning and memorization that are widely adopted in teaching and learning approaches in Indonesia are actually not bad. In learning a foreign language, for instance, memorization is one of good strategies to remember words, phrases, collocations, or tenses. Yet, those vocabularies will not be internalized if they are not used in writing and speaking. Students should not only be asked to parrot words or memorize facts from reading passages but also be encouraged to discuss the reading passages and give comments both in spoken and written language. Students should be given an opportunity to think and taught how to think critically to respond to something that comes into their mind. Memorization makes people tend to accept something without criticizing it, and it is not really supportive in learning. Therefore, critical thinking should be added in the teaching process to counter weaknesses memorization learning strategy has. Related to this, Richmond (2007) states:

The educational methods commonly used in developing countries, particularly rote learning by students expected to be passive recipients of knowledge, are mostly ineffective at training professionals to think critically and creatively about the development needs of their nations. Whether mathematical formulae or facts are memorised, parrot-learned material lacks practical applications without an ability to place it in the context of local environments, where social and economic systems and priorities, finances, and managerial and political practices may be anything other than that outlined in the textbook. (p.1)

The doubt about most school teachers, even university lecturers, in Indonesia do not apply critical thinking in their teaching is supported by Hatmanto, the head of English Department at Muhammadiyah University of Yogyakarta, Indonesia. During opening remarks on the seminar taking theme “Constructivism Theory in Teaching Method for Teachers and Lecturers”, Hatmanto (2011) states that:

Selama ini metode pengajaran yang diberikan seorang dosen maupun guru masih menggunakan pendekatan konvensional dengan metode pengajaran repetisi atau pengulangan. Metode ini alhasil menyebabkan pendidikan dan penguasaan materi yang diajarkan kurang maksimal dan siswa juga kurang bisa berfikir kritis.

All this time, teachers and lecturers still teach conventionally by using repetitive method. This method makes education and materials mastery less maximal and makes students lack critical thinking.

The studies, along with the opinion of some educators, having been mentioned above are concerned with no critical thinking teaching in Indonesian education and lack of critical thinking understanding among Indonesian school teachers. Since critical thinking bring many benefits, its serious implementation in Indonesian education needs considering.

Critical Thinking and the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

With critical thinking gaining its popularity in education, the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) has also started to adopt it. Though there is criticism stating that critical thinking may not be successful in TEFL as it is a Western concept and could be problematic when applied in non-Western countries, many authors (e.g. Beaumont, 2010; Benesch, 1999; Davidson, 1998; Hawkins, 1998) challenge this criticism, and some studies (e.g. Barjesteh, Alipour, & Vaseghi, 2013; Daud & Husin, 2004; Hashemi & Ghanizadeh, 2012; Huang, 2012) have proved that infusing critical thinking into TEFL is successful.

Huang (2012), for example, did a qualitative study by exploring “students’ writing practices when a critical literacy perspective is incorporated and considers the implication for the EFL curriculum” (p. 284). The 20 participants were students at a university in Taiwan and had taken general English course for one year. The data being generated in the study were students’ research papers, reflection papers, writer’s autobiographies and researcher/teacher journal and notes. In this study the researcher acted as the teacher. In analysing the data, Huang (2012) read the data several times. The data of each student were organised into a file, and they were coded “for the ways in which they positioned themselves in relation to the themes and the research focus they chose, how they made sense of the knowledge they gained from the literature, and how they understood the social significance and implications of the research topics and findings” (p. 286). Huang compared the codes, looked for pattern of critical/uncritical engagement in the writing and generated broad themes explaining students’ critical disposition.

In this study, Huang (2012) assigned students to write a research paper which was divided into four assignments: background and research question, literature review, argument & critique and conclusion. In every stage, students were asked to be critical. For example, in

the first assignment students were asked to explain the choice of theme and reasons of research focus, while in argument and critique assignment, students were asked to argue their point of view based on the findings from literature review. Several themes for the research paper writing such as advertisement, gender, global warming, child labour, global economy, global warming and popular culture were proposed, and for the first three weeks Huang dealt with students' understanding of critical research and choice of theme/topic. The articles about the themes were discussed in the classroom. The students were also asked to present after each assignment, and individual consultation was facilitated.

The data analysis generated three themes informing the students' critical disposition: writing as the intersection of self and world, writing for purposes of knowledge transformation and knowledge creation, and the writer as socially relevant and locally/globally involved. With regard to the first theme, Huang (2012) writes:

Through the research-based writing, these students examined issues that speak to marginalised groups in society (e.g. child labour) as well as those that concern social relations (e.g. advertisement) and human rights (e.g. same sex marriages). They also employed research writing as a way to explore their own roles in relation to a worldwide problem (e.g. global warming). In other words, when an explicit connection is made between writing and social issues, students were able to construct themselves as writers who use English literacy to assert their membership and participation in the global village and thus cross the boundaries of the classroom into the broader world. (p. 291-292).

In relation to the second theme, Huang (2012) informs that the students' writing showed "their ability to reconceptualise their own understanding and societal assumptions of an issue" (p. 292). For example, one student who chose the theme of gender was able to see the debate on the same sex marriage in which those against the marriage always used degradation of familial values, HIV, the interruption of constitutional marriage and the neglect of children rights as the argument. The student, as reported by Huang (2012), argued that this was because people were usually concerned about maintaining their status quo.

The study conducted by Huang (2012) seems innovative in which she incorporated critical literacy pedagogy to find out its impact on the students' writing a research paper. Two factors that may contribute to the students' critical disposition are the discussion processes of

themes (advertisement, child labour, gender, etc.) and the progressive stages through individual consultation in making students understand how to write a critical research paper.

Huang (2012) reports that 16 out of 20 students produced research papers which reflected a critical orientation. Even though the study did not inform the criteria for differentiating between critical and uncritical writing, the quotes of students' works provided reveal that critical literacy pedagogy is able to promote students' critical thinking. Therefore, Huang's (2012) conclusion stating that "the study has demonstrated the potential of critical literacy for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) curriculum" (p. 296) can be accepted, and infusing critical thinking into EFL should be possible.

CRITICAL THINKING AND ENGLISH COURSEBOOKS

Critical Thinking Framework

As mentioned, there is no agreed definition of critical thinking. Each critical thinking book proposes different definition and conception of critical thinking. This also happens to critical thinking frameworks or taxonomies. In fact, many authors have proposed critical thinking frameworks that can be used in education; however, their frameworks seem incomplete to explore critical thinking skills in school subjects, including EFL. Besides, some critical thinking taxonomies lack explicit examples when applied in education. Take Bloom's taxonomy as an example. Bloom's taxonomy is widely believed to be able to promote students' critical thinking, especially higher stages such as analysis and evaluation. However, those stages lack explicitness, and though some authors have added verbs to the stages, some verbs overlap. Besides this, there are no examples of using the verbs in each stage.

Ilyas' (2015) framework of critical thinking can be an alternative. The framework was constructed by synthesising, examining and evaluating 20 critical thinking taxonomies, programmes, strategies and test. The critical thinking strategies examined and evaluated were from six empirical studies which infused critical thinking into EFL (Dantas-Whitney, 2002; Daud & Husin, 2004; Davidson & Dunham, 1997; Park, 2011; Shahini & Riazi, 2011; Yang & Gamble, 2013). Ilyas' framework of critical thinking therefore can be used in exploring students' critical thinking in the teaching of English as a foreign language and possibly in other school subjects.

Table 1: Ilyas' framework of critical thinking

Clarification
Assumptions
Reasons and Evidence
Viewpoints or Perspectives
Implication, Consequences and Alternatives
Question
Predictions
Agreement and Disagreement
Summary and Conclusion

Infusing Critical Thinking into Reading Texts

Critical reading, which is an integral concept of critical thinking, can be implemented in the EFL classroom. Applying critical thinking to reading texts not only promotes reading comprehension skills but also encourages students' independence in analysing and criticising the texts, thus avoiding them to become the victims of text propaganda.

Infusing Ilyas' framework of critical thinking into reading texts in English coursebooks can be done by generating additional questions asking clarification, assumptions, reasons & evidence, viewpoints or perspectives, implication, consequences & alternatives, question, predictions, agreement & disagreement, and summary & conclusion. 'Additional questions' here means questions that complement original questions in the coursebooks, which may not promote students' critical thinking. In practice, original questions provided by the textbook writer(s) can be used as a scaffold before moving to critical thinking activities.

Questions asking clarification can be the ones asking students to clarify words, phrases, or sentences. Other questions can ask students to clarify the text writer's intention or clarify the message the writer wants to convey. Questions about assumption can ask students to find out what the writer or a paragraph assumes. Regarding reasons and evidence, students can be asked to find out reasons or evidence the writer provides to support his claim, for example. This can be followed by questions asking students to provide alternatives instead of the ones proposed by the writer.

Students can also be asked to predict what will happen if, for example, the solution proposed by the text writer is not implemented or fails. Again, in this stage students can be asked to propose their own alternatives or to give their own perspectives. This can encourage them to express their opinion, at the same time applying the questions about viewpoints or perspectives.

Regarding agreement and disagreement, students can be asked to support why they agree or disagree with the text writer, for example. If the writer does not summarise his article, students can be asked to summarise or conclude the article and comment on it. Finally, students can be asked to present their evaluation of the article.

The infusion of Ilyas' critical thinking framework into the reading text can be found in the appendix. The text was taken from the English textbook's 2006 curriculum *Developing English Competencies: Natural and Social Study Programme* grade 11 of senior secondary school; the reading text titled 'The Importance of Rainforest' on page 65 was chosen since the topic seem suitable for promoting critical thinking. The questions provided in the textbook do not seem to optimise students' critical thinking skills. For example, one of the questions in the True/False section asks 'Rainforests are unimportant to our life on Earth (sic).' Reading the statement, it is easy to say that it is false without reading the text because rainforest must be important for us. The examples of critical thinking questions in the appendix are not rigid; teachers can modify and vary the questions based on the critical thinking framework.

CONCLUSIONS

Critical thinking has been fashionable in education. It may answer the problems approaches in education such as rote learning cannot solve. Furthermore, critical thinking is a skill needed in this globally changing world in which competitions grow ever more impressive and a stream of information cannot be resisted. People lack of critical thinking could be the victims of propaganda and may be easily manipulated.

Though critical thinking has been included as one of educational objectives in Indonesia, it is not clear what kind of critical thinking needed in education in this country. Many Indonesian schoolteachers do not seem to know how to promote students' critical thinking skills by optimising coursebooks or textbooks provided freely by the Ministry of National Education. This might be due to no clear directives by the authority in this regard, or

this may be because the critical thinking tradition is not strong in Indonesian education. Possibly, this could be both.

Several critical thinking frameworks/taxonomies attempt to help teachers encourage students' critical thinking skills. Few of them lack explicit examples for teachers like Bloom's taxonomy, while the majority of them seem to overlap. Ilyas' critical thinking framework, which was the result of synthesising, examining and evaluating twenty critical thinking taxonomies, strategies, programmes and tests, has come up to fill the gap. The framework can be used in the field of ELT as it examined and evaluated empirical studies infusing critical thinking into this field.

The critical thinking questions adopted from Ilyas' critical thinking framework provided in this article are the examples how teachers can promote critical thinking in the classroom. In practice, they can vary the questions adjusted to the students' level of education. The questions may be able to promote students' critical thinking skills; however, further investigation needs to be conducted.

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APPENDIX

The Importance of Rainforests

Rainforests are one of the most complicated environments on Earth. They are recognised worldwide as containing the richest source of plants and animals and are believed to contain nearly three-quarters of all the varieties of life on Earth. This is remarkable because rainforests cover only about six per cent of the Earth's land surface.

Rainforest are the oldest major ecosystem, having survived climate changes for more than one million years. They provide habitats for more species of plants, animals, insects and birds than any other environment found on our planet. Scientists estimate that between 60 and 90 per cent of all species of life are to be found in rain forests. Unfortunately, the widespread destruction of many of the world's rainforests has caused a significant decline in the number of plant and animal species on Earth.

Rainforests influence both our local and global climates. For example, between 50 and 80 per cent of the moisture in the air above rainforests comes from the rainforest's trees. If large areas of these lush rainforests are cleared, the average rainfall in the area will drop.

Eventually, the area's climate will get hotter and drier. This process could convert rainforests into a sparse grassland or desert.

Rainforests are also able to absorb over 90 per cent of the rainfall in their leaves and mosses. By doing this, they are able to slow down water run-off by gradually releasing the water over time into streams and rivers. This helps to control soil erosion and flooding.

Rainforests are vital to the Earth in helping to recycle carbon and oxygen. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the gas put into the air globally by humans, mainly by the burning of fossil fuels (for example in cars and factories). Rainforests are able to remove carbon dioxide from the air and return oxygen in its place. This is why our global rainforests are often called the Earth's 'lungs'.

Rainforests are major producers of the Earth's oxygen. In fact, scientists believe that nearly 50 per cent of the Earth's oxygen is produced by rainforest in the Amazon region alone. Nearly 40 per cent of the world's carbon is contained in the trees of the rainforests. As rainforests are cut down and burned, carbon dioxide is released into the Earth's atmosphere. Eventually, as this gas builds up the atmosphere, leading to what scientists call the enhanced greenhouse effect.

To sum up, the role of the rainforest is essential for human life. It creates equilibrium in our environment and its resources are significant for human beings' survival.

Some examples of questions promoting students critical thinking skills based on Ilyas' critical thinking framework:

1. Questions about clarification: *What does the writer mean by 'equilibrium' in the last paragraph? What does 'Rainforest are the oldest major ecosystem' mean? What does 'a significant decline' on paragraph two mean? What does the word 'remarkable' on paragraph one mean?*
2. Questions about assumption: *What does the writer assume that 'Rainforests are one of the most complicated environments on Earth'? What does the writer assume by saying that rainforest is called the Earth's lung? What do you assume based on the information of paragraph two?*
3. Questions about reason and evidence: *What evidence did the writer give to support his/her opinion that 'Rainforests influence both our local and global climates' on paragraph three? Is the evidence provided strong enough to support his/her opinion? What evidence do you think the writer still need to include in the text? Do you believe in what the writer has written in the text? Why?*
4. Questions about viewpoints/perspectives: *What is your opinion about rainforest? Why is it important to keep the existence of rainforests? What are some ways to keep rainforests from declining? What information would you add if you were the text writer? Why? In general, what do you think of this text?*

5. Questions about implication, consequences and alternatives: *What are the consequences if rainforests keep declining? What does the writer imply from paragraph 5? What are the impacts of greenhouse effects? What does the text imply?*
6. Questions about question: *What questions are you going to ask to the text writer about rainforest? What questions in number 3 above ask you to do?*
7. Questions about prediction: *Can you predict what will happen if people do not preserve rainforest seriously? What will happen to rainforest in Indonesia 20 years from now?*
8. Questions about agreement/disagreement: *Do you agree/disagree with the writer? Why? Do you agree with the statement saying that rainforests influence both our local and global climates? Why? Is there information from the text that you disagree? Why?*
9. Questions about summary and conclusion: *Does the text provide a summary? Why/Why not? Can you summary the text? What do you conclude from the text? Can you make a conclusion in one sentence stating the importance of rainforest?*

Author guidelines

1. The article should be submitted to the editors of **Journal of ELT Research (JER)** as an attachment at **journaleltresearch@gmail.com**.
2. It is typed in *Microsoft Word* with the font being used is *Time New Roman* size 12.
3. The number of words should be 5,000 to 8,000, excluding appendices.
4. British or American spelling can be used, but it must be consistent throughout the article.
5. The article should be completed with the name of author, email, and institution.
6. Research-based articles will be prioritised; viewpoint/argumentative research articles, however, will also be considered for publication.
7. For a research-based article, the outline consists of 8 sections without number: Abstract (in English and Indonesian) + key words, Introduction, Method(s), Findings, Discussion, Conclusion (and Recommendation), The Author, References + Appendix (optional).
8. Abstract should not exceed 200 words.
9. Introduction section talks about 4 points: background or context, literature review, gap + possible contribution(s) to knowledge and research objective(s). These subsections don't have to be titled.
10. Quotation and references should follow APA. The following are some examples of APA system of referencing:

A book

Richards, J. C. (2013). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Denscombe, M. (2010). *The good research guide: For small-scale social research projects* (4th ed.). Berkshire: Open University Press.

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An edited book

Aronson, J. (Ed.). (2002). *Improving academic achievement: Impact of psychological factors on education*. London: Academic Press.

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