ELTL International Conference
2012 Proceedings
Foreword


Editor
Dr. Khairi Obaid Al-Zubaidi
Language Academy, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM)
international Campus, Kuala Lumpur

Associate editor
Dr. Issy Yuliasri
English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts
Semarang State University (UNNES)

Reviewers
Siti Wachidah
Jakarta State University

Dr. Dewi Rochsantiningsih
Sebelas Maret University

Dr. Mirjam Anugerahwati
Malang State University

June 2013
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Article Title</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Foreword</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Incidental Vocabulary Learning through Reading</td>
<td>4-11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Applicability of Cooperative Learning Techniques in Different Classroom Contexts</td>
<td>12-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Academic Writing and the Interdependent Relation between Language-use and Ideas</td>
<td>21-32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The Language Learning Beliefs of Arab ESL Students</td>
<td>34-43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Methods Used in Teaching English at Junior High Schools in Central Java</td>
<td>44-55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The Pronunciation of the English Words Ending in ‘-ate’ in the Light of Spellophononetic Technique</td>
<td>56-65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The Female’s Masculinities against Siamese Patriarchal Systems in Elizabeth Hand’s <em>Anna And The King</em></td>
<td>66-71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Reshaping Gender Identities and Ideologies through Foreign Language Learning</td>
<td>72-77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Critical Discourse Analysis on the Javanese Song Lyric ‘Ilir-Ilir’</td>
<td>78-91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Storyline Approach as Enhancement of Learning Foreign Language and Character Building at Elementary School</td>
<td>92-104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Incidental Vocabulary Learning through Reading

Holly Warzecha
University Islam Indonesia, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

Abstract
The purpose of the following paper is to take a closer look at the benefits of incidental learning through reading, with a specific focus on vocabulary acquisition. The teaching of vocabulary has traditionally been an explicit process where the target vocabulary is taken out of context and taught separately. However, this kind of explicit teaching and learning may only take into account a form-meaning connection. Therefore, this paper explores research on incidental learning and specifically looks at what it takes to acquire new vocabulary incidentally through reading while considering the coverage rates of texts, how many words must be known already from the text, how many repetitions it takes to learn a word, types of texts that promote learning, and the effects of pairing students’ reading with learner tasks. After reviewing many studies, it can be concluded that more reading is better. More specifically, extensive reading of chosen novels at an appropriate level and interest to the students showed important gains in vocabulary. In addition, readings that were supplemented with additional activities that focused on both form and meaning showed an even higher increase in word retention.

Keywords: Vocabulary, Learning, Reading
Introduction
In the past, the explicit teaching and intentional learning of vocabulary was believed to be superior to incidental learning. Today, teachers and researchers are acknowledging the importance of incidental learning and are discovering how this learning can positively influence vocabulary acquisition. This interest in incidental learning has sparked many studies that were (and still are) looking to generate concrete evidence to support their studies, however not all of the results were conclusive. So, this paper will explore some of the complex aspects of incidental learning by looking at both past and current research.

In terms of incidental learning through reading there are many studies confirming the positive effects of reading in L1 classrooms. However, this paper will look at L2 learners by exploring the following questions: What is the coverage rate needed to learn incidentally? How many words do learners need to know to read effectively? How many meetings with a word does a learner need to learn a word? What kinds of texts should learners read to promote incidental learning? Lastly, can reading be paired with student tasks to increase the likelihood for incidental learning? By exploring these questions there will hopefully be a clearer picture as to how a teacher could incorporate more opportunities for incidental learning through reading in the classroom.

Before discussing this research there needs to be some discussion about what it means to know a word. There are different levels of word knowledge with the first, and most basic knowledge being a form-meaning connection which involves recognizing the spelling of the word and then connecting the meaning. The next level of word knowledge is more complex and involves a fuller grasp of a word’s meaning which includes derivations, inflections, collocations, constraints in use and how words can be used in different contexts. Another important note to make is the kinds of tests used in evaluating this word knowledge. Many of the studies mentioned in this paper focus on tests that evaluate the knowledge of a form-meaning connection. The tests used in these studies are for the most part multiple-choice or translation tests that test for the basic level of knowledge mentioned above. Also, the tests that evaluate recognition reveal higher scores when compared to tests that have students recall the meaning of a word productively. These factors are important when considering the following research because they may have some impact on the results of each study.

To begin, the coverage rate refers to the percentage of words that readers should know in order to read comfortably and to learn unknown words from context. Based on this, the text should be fairly easy for students to read, so there is a focus on meaning and the overall message rather than on the form of individual words. Similarly, Krashen (1989;1993) goes on to say that acquiring a second language should be fairly easy given that learners are exposed to a significant amount of “comprehensible input” (Elley, 1997, p. 1). So, it is understandable that the text needs to be somewhat easy, but what is the appropriate level of difficulty?

Different studies have come to different conclusions concerning the kinds of coverage a learner needs to learn incidentally. Liu & Nation (1985) as cited in Waring & Nation (2004) found that if a student knows 80% of the running words, which is a vocabulary of about 2,000 words for a text that had not been simplified, the text will be too difficult to learn words incidentally. This means that the learner will not know one in five words throughout the text. This same study uncovered that learners need to know at least 95% of the words in the text, meaning that the learner will not know about one in every 20 running words. More recent studies found similar results but came to the conclusion that knowing even more words resulted in better guessing. According to Nation (2001), to have optimal learning teachers should choose texts...
with 98% coverage, or one unknown word out of every fifty. Nation came to this conclusion based on his testing of students using different texts at different levels and then testing for comprehension. Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) as cited in Huckin and Coady (1999) make an even higher estimate stating that students need at least 99% coverage for university texts.

This information leads to the assumption that teachers need to choose appropriate texts for reading if incidental learning is to occur. The level of reading should be easy enough for a focus on meaning rather than form. If there is too much focus on form, much of the time spent reading will be focused on unknown individual words rather than using the overall meaning of the text to supply information for unknown words. Also, texts should be chosen with a purpose and goal in mind. For teachers who want to focus primarily on language growth, there should be about 95-98% coverage, and for more fluency based reading, with some incidental learning, 99-100% coverage is sufficient (Nation, 2001). By reading at higher coverage rates learners will also develop a deeper understanding for words that were previously known at a form-meaning level.

To read effectively in a foreign language, learners need to know a certain amount of words. As mentioned above the ideal coverage should be about 98% or maybe a little higher depending on the goal (Nation, 2001). However, exactly what size of a vocabulary does a learner need according to that coverage? First, there needs to be a distinction between the different kinds of texts and purposes for reading. If the reading is for pleasure, or more extensive reading such as a novel, the known vocabulary needed for comprehension may be less. According to Laufer (1992) as cited in Waring & Nation (2004) 3,000 word families should be known for reading to be pleasurable. However, an older study found that this number should be higher at 5,000 words (Hirsh & Nation, 1992).

For academic reading there is a wide range of estimates that researchers believe are adequate for a university setting. Laufer (1989) suggests that 3,000 words is sufficient word knowledge to understand academic texts (Tekmen & Daloglu (2006). Nation (1990), as cited from Tekmen & Daloglu (2006) made an even lower estimate of 2,000 word families. However, this is only possible after learning those 2,000 words plus the University Word List (Nation, 1990) which contains 808 word families. So, in total 2,800 words is the minimum amount of word families that needs to be known. On the other end, Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) as cited in Huckin and Coady (1999) believe that the minimum is 10,000 words families.

Based on the results of these studies, there is a large discrepancy in how many words a university student should know to learn incidentally from texts. The reason for the significant range of results could be due to factors specific to each study such as the texts and the content they provide, the testing methods and learner motivation and attention. In terms of university level learners, it seems that a teacher should at least incorporate the updated version of the University Word List (Nation, 1990), being The Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000), which will allow for an increased understanding of academic texts (Nation, 2001). Overall, the research suggests that there should be knowledge of at least the 2,000 high frequency words in addition to words from The Academic Word List. To have knowledge of these words would be advantageous when reading academic level texts. Lastly, it is important for a teacher to decide the purpose and the goal of reading. For example, is the reading for pleasure or for more intensive academic reading? These different types of reading may need to be analyzed for the vocabulary they contain so that the appropriate texts are chosen for learners.

There is a general consensus that more repetitions and meetings with a word will result in an increased chance for learning incidentally. However, how many repetitions does it take to
learn a word? A study by Saragi, Nation, & Meister (1978) did not come to any conclusion on this matter (Webb, 2007). The study focused on learning Russian slang words in the text, *A Clockwork Orange*. For the most part it appeared that the adults were able to remember the words when encountering them ten times. Seventy percent of the adults were able to understand the meaning after coming across it once. However, upon encountering a word 96 times, these same individuals showed less knowledge of a different word by about 40%. As a result of various inconstancies, no solid conclusion was reached on the exact number of repetitions.

A similar study based on the previous study by Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) used a simplified version of the book, “The Mayor of Casterbridge” by Thomas Hardy and found that incidental vocabulary gains were possible with eight encounters. If below eight, the gains in vocabulary were unpredictable. The difference between this study and the others is that the text was read aloud to the students while following along in their books. This was done to ensure that all readers were exposed equally to the text and the same number of repetitions. This aspect of the research should be mentioned due to the fact that it could have influenced the findings the study.

According to the results of a different study, word knowledge is gained after being encountered twenty times. As cited in Webb (2007), Waring and Takaki (2003) found that there was a small chance that one could remember a word’s meaning if encountering it eighteen times. Also, a person will have a 50% chance of remembering a word if they encounter it at least eight times over the course of three months. These results yielded a general conclusion that twenty repetitions are sufficient for word retention. However, Rott (1999) found that only six encounters were needed to retain the knowledge of a word. She tested 96 learners of German as a foreign language and tested their long-term memory. Her test included a written text about everyday life. Twelve words were tested with various exposures ranging from two, four and six. The results concluded that six brought about the most learning.

Webb (2007) examined all of these studies before taking an in-depth, and more controlled look at vocabulary learning. In a recent study, he examined multiple aspects such as syntax, grammatical functions, orthography, association, as well as meaning and form. His examination focused primarily on the effects of repetition with 1, 3, 7 and 10 encounters with nonsense target words, and evaluated a fuller knowledge of the targeted words. The test results came to the conclusion that word retention was greater when more meetings with the target word increased. These students could incidentally acquire words from reading and may only need to encounter a word ten times. Unlike past studies, this study tested for a deeper knowledge of words using multiple tests.

Overall, these studies suggest that more repetition directly relates to increased vocabulary learning and retention. By having teachers gather texts, or a series of texts for students to read where the targeted vocabulary will be met on many occasions, significant learning will most likely result. Of course this may only be possible if a large portion of the curriculum is dedicated to some kind of an extensive reading program, where students are given a chance to read on a daily basis.

To learn incidentally, what kinds of texts should learners be reading? In studies looking at incidental learning through reading, many researchers use novels, graded readers and or shorter texts which may be simplified to accommodate the learners. A study by Day (1991) used an adapted version of the story, “Mystery of the African Mask”. This story originally had cloze
deletions but were replaced for this study. This story was shortened to 1,032 words and Japanese EFL students were given 30 minutes to read silently for pleasure. Afterwards, the treatment group was found to learn more unknown words based on the results of a vocabulary test.

In the study by Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) students read from a simplified text. The participants included 34 students from Oman who read “The Mayor of Casterbridge” over a ten day period. The story was selected for both its suitable level and interest. The authors said that students were “…absorbed by the story of secret love, dissolution and remorse, and tears were shed for the mayor when he met his lonely death at the end” (p.210). As previously mentioned, the results showed some gains in vocabulary that could have been due to the texts appropriate level and the students interest in the story.

Another study, the Fiji Book Flood (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981; 1983) as cited from Elley (1997) involving L2 fourth and fifth graders showed that the daily reading of high interest texts lead to vocabulary gains, with their comprehension rate increasing at twice the normal rate. Although some oral discussion was had between student and teacher this study still provides evidence that silent reading of interesting texts fosters vocabulary learning. Also, as mentioned earlier in the study by Saragi, Nation & Meister (1978) ESL college students who silently read the novel A Clockwork Orange for content showed significant learning of new Russian slang words without any outside assistance. Lastly, Krashen (1994) also found that by reading the Sweet Valley High series that ESL students became intrigued by the novels and showed many gains in vocabulary.

Lastly, graded readers can be used at elementary to intermediate levels. Graded readers allow the teacher to choose the appropriate level for their students where reading can be interesting, but still challenging enough for students to learn new vocabulary. Wodinsky and Nation (1988) as cited in Day (1991) found from the analysis of two graded readers that incidental learning could take place. This was based on theory and did not attempt to find if vocabulary gain was actually possible. However, graded readers are considered to be an important learning tool in the classroom. To provide enough opportunities for learning, Nation & Wang (1999) as cited in Waring & Nation (2004) said that at least one graded reader per week should be read. Overall, the underlying theme of most of these studies is that texts should be interesting for the readers and utilized for a specific goal. These goals may be to make reading more challenging, thus leading to more vocabulary gains, or to make it easier for not only some vocabulary gains, but also to deepen word knowledge and develop fluency.

By reading texts that are of interest to the students and at the appropriate level, new vocabulary can be learned incidentally. As mentioned earlier, teachers need to identify a purpose and goal for the reading. If there is a need for a more intense focus on vocabulary, shorter texts at a lower coverage rate should be chosen. These texts could include academic texts that are more difficult to read. Nation (2001) suggests that choosing topics that are familiar to the learners may provide even more learning based on the presence of increased contextual clues. On the other hand, if the goal is to improve fluency while focusing on developing a deeper knowledge of words, then longer texts for more extensive reading should be chosen. These texts may include novels where the coverage rate is somewhat higher. What if teachers allowed the use of outside sources such as dictionaries, or presented students with tasks while reading those texts? Would this deepen the processing of the unknown words and increase the possibility for incidental learning?

It has already been established that gains can be made in vocabulary learning through reading. However, the incidental learning of vocabulary may be enhanced by how much work
and involvement the student has in finding the meaning of an unknown word. Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) said that if a task can involve all or some of the dimensions of need, search and evaluation that words are more likely to be retained. Together, these three dimensions are referred to as involvement, and can be manipulated by the teacher to have a strong need in one area for example, and an even stronger dimension of search and evaluation in another. For example, as cited in Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) a study by Cho and Krashen (1994) had students read a text and were allowed to use their dictionaries to look up unknown words and write sample sentences using the unknown words. This study found that students who voluntarily used a dictionary and wrote sentences retained more words when compared to those who did not write sentences. Furthermore, the students who used the dictionaries and wrote no sentences did better than those who did not use the dictionary at all. As cited in Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) other studies have also linked students motivation of using a dictionary to look up words while reading as leading to retention (Luppescu & Day 1993, Knight 1994, Hulstijn 1996) So, the retention and processing of a word may be deeper given the student has more involvement with the word.

Another study by Joe (1998) looked at how reading and learning from a text may possibly be enhanced by the act of retelling. In this study 48 adult ESL learners ranged from lower-intermediate to advanced levels. This study relied on generative tasks which includes reading a text and then recalling what one has read. In theory this leads to the deeper processing of a word. For this study 12 target vocabulary words were put into a text and read by the learners. In a pre-test task some learners were able to practice the retelling of a related text. Before reading the texts, learners were given cue questions to guide them in their reading. Then, in a practice retelling task learners retold the key points of the text. Later, the learners were given a new text to read and retell. The results of the study showed that the learners who had more time to practice in reading and retelling produced more formerly unknown words. The practice of recalling and productively using the words lead to word learning. In terms of Laufer and Hulstijn’s (2001) theory of involvement load, reading and retelling includes a high level of evaluation.

Glosses may also be beneficial for learners while reading a text. Although the presence of glosses do not have as much learner involvement as the previous research containing dictionary use, writing sample sentences and read and retell tasks, a study by Yoshii(2006) indicates that glosses are helpful. This research involved the reading of an on-line text with the option of clicking on target words for glosses. One experimental group received L1 glosses, another group L2 glosses, while the last two groups received an L1 gloss plus picture, or an L2 gloss plus picture. The results of the study did not come to a conclusion about which glosses were superior, but the research does support the use of glosses while reading to learn incidentally.

The implications from these studies provide some evidence that learner involvement directly relates to word knowledge and processing. Learners that are motivated enough to use materials such as dictionaries and glosses may learn more than those who do not. Also, productive tasks such as reading and retelling, or writing sample sentences, involves the student more intensely, thus resulting in a deeper processing of a word. So, depending on the goal, teachers should consider pairing texts with learner materials such as dictionaries and provide students with tasks to increase learner involvement.

Finally, based on the research there is evidence that incidental learning through reading is possible. Similarly, Meara (1997) goes on to describe how inevitable learning is through the reading of texts by saying it “…is like putting seeds in a pot only to confirm that they will grow into flowers” (Waring & Nation, 2004, p. 13). So, exposing students to extensive reading can
only add to their vocabulary. Perhaps studies looking for exact numbers of repetition, word coverage, word level and type of text is futile. On a different note, in terms of learner levels and choosing appropriate texts and tasks, there needs to not only be an assessment of the overall level of a class of students, but also an assessment of individual learners. If weaker students read the same text as the stronger students in the class, there may not be many vocabulary gains. Also, as cited in Waring & Nation (2004) weaker level readers should have opportunities for even more encounters with a word (Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001). If students are weaker readers then too much focus will be spent on the form of unknown words as opposed to the overall message of the text which would normally assist in the learning of unknown vocabulary. Lastly, despite the multiple levels of knowledge a learner can have of a word, the overall feeling is that the more opportunities the learner has to encounter it in reading, that over time the meaning of the word will become known on a deeper level in terms of collocations, derivations, constraints, etc. Also, even though many of these studies reported small vocabulary gains through reading, significant gains can be made over time as long as there are plenty of opportunities for reading. As a whole the studies have brought us closer to realizing the potential of how reading can assist learners in gaining vocabulary incidentally.

Bout the Author:
Holly Warzecha is currently a U.S. State Department English Language Fellow at the University Islam Indonesia in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. Holly holds a M.A. in TESOL from St. Cloud State University. She has previously taught English in the United States and China.

References


Applicability of Cooperative Learning Techniques in Different Classroom Contexts

Issy Yuliasri
English Department
Faculty of Languages and Arts
Semarang State University (UNNES)

Abstract

This paper is based on the results of pre-test post-test, feedback questionnaire and observation during a community service program entitled “Training on English Teaching using Cooperative Learning Techniques for Elementary and Junior High School Teachers of Sekolah Alam Arridho Semarang”. It was an English teaching training program intended to equip the teachers with the knowledge and skills of using the different cooperative learning techniques such as jigsaw, think-pair-share, three-step interview, roundrobin brainstorming, three-minute review, numbered heads together, team-pair-solo, circle the sage, dan partners. This program was participated by 8 teachers of different subjects (not only English), but most of them had good mastery of English. The objectives of this program was to improve teachers’ skills in using the different cooperative learning techniques to vary their teaching, so that students would be more motivated to learn and improve their English skill. Besides, the training also gave the teachers the knowledge and skills to adjust their techniques with the basic competence and learning objectives to be achieved as well as with the teaching materials to be used. This was also done through workshops using cooperative learning techniques, so that the participants had real experiences of using cooperative learning techniques (learning by doing). The participants were also encouraged to explore the applicability of the techniques in their classroom contexts, in different areas of their teaching. This community service program showed very positive results. The pre-test and post-test results showed that before the training program all the participants did not know the nine cooperative techniques to be trained, but after the program they mastered the techniques as shown from the teaching-learning scenarios they developed following the test instructions. In addition, the anonymous questionnaires showed that all the participants perceived that they gained a lot from the program, and all admitted that they were motivated to use the techniques in their real classrooms. The usefulness of this training program was also reflected from their expectations, as stated in their answers in the questionnaires, expecting that other teachers of other schools should also benefit from this kind of program.

Keywords: applicability, cooperative learning techniques
Introduction

Nowadays Indonesian school teachers, those of English or teachers of other subjects, have been aware of the need for student-centered teaching-learning process. However, in practice, many of them do not apply student-centered learning, or they apply it but with limited variety of techniques.

In English teaching-learning process teachers should be able to create a student-centered atmosphere with different teaching-learning techniques so that the learning is fun and interesting. One of the student-centered learning methods is cooperative learning, with its different techniques, offering group/team learning with the teacher acting as the facilitator.

The purpose of the program in general was to improve the teachers’ competence in teaching English, with the following specific objectives: (1) to enable them to apply 8 different cooperative learning techniques (1) to enable them to adjust the cooperative learning techniques with different learning objectives and materials.

Theoretical Review

Language Competence

There have been different language competence models developed, and one of them is one developed by Celce-Murcia et al (1995), which sees the language competence from different perspectives motivated by pedagogic considerations. In this view, language is a means of communication rather than a set of rules. Thus, the language competence allows people to communicate using a language and to participate in the community of the language users.

Language education develops concrete skills through the learning process, and the communicative competence model developed as mentioned above helps formulate what competences should be catered by language education. When people communicate in writing or speaking they do not merely produce sentences; they actually organize and create logical connections among sentences or ideas. Thus, the role of a teacher is to develop the competencies that support the attainment of the communicative competence or discourse competence at the concrete level.

There are five communicative competencies as developed by Celce-Murcia et al (1995). First is the language actional competence, which refers to the ability to select the appropriate speech acts (in spoken language) or the rhetoric development (in written language) in every stage of communication, for example how to open a conversation, to interrupt, to suggest, etc. Second is the linguistic competence, which covers the ability of using the grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation, punctuation, etc. Third is the socio-cultural competence, which refers to the ability of using the language in an acceptable manner in view of the language cultural context. For example, the English words thank you, sorry, and please have equivalent words in Indonesian, but the frequency of use and the contexts of usage could be different. Fourth is the strategic competence, which is needed to overcome problems during communication, for example asking for repetition, asking for rephrasing, etc. Fifth is the discourse competence, which refers to the linguistic elements ideas so that united text is achieved, with cohesion and coherence, for example with the use of connectors, repeated words, prepositions, etc. (Depdiknas, 2003).
Learning English in EFL Context

In Indonesia, English as a foreign language has an important role in international communication, especially for the nation’s competitive position. Thus, the English education should be targeted to equip the learners with spoken and written communicative competence.

There are several factors to be considered in undertaking English learning, among other is curriculum. Curriculum is the reference in undertaking English education; curriculum, according to Nunan as quoted in Tarigan (1989:85) consists of the principles and procedures for planning, implementation, evaluation, and management of an education program. Thus, it is crucial that curriculum is well designed for the teachers to refer to. In addition, the learning has to be done with the methods and strategies suitable with the needs and characteristics of the students. Learning English as a foreign language has to be done continuously and contextually with continuous exposure to the language in the contexts of their everyday life, so that the learning is meaningful and is expected to gain optimum outcomes.

Cooperative Learning Techniques

One definition of cooperative learning is given by Slavin as quoted in Jacobs, et al (1997), which put emphases on three aspects, namely team rewards, individual accountability, and equal opportunities for success:

All cooperative learning methods share the idea that students work together to learn and are responsible for their teammates’ learning as well as their own. In addition to the idea of cooperative work, Student Team Learning methods [overall name used for those methods developed by Slavin and his colleagues] emphasize the use of team goals and team success, which can be achieved only if all members of the team learn the objectives being taught. That is, in Student Team Learning the students’ tasks are not to do something as a team, but to learn something as a team. (p. 16)

Other definitions of cooperative learning are given by Davidson and kagan & Kagan. Jacobs, et al (1997) summarizes that most experts on cooperative learning would agree on four points: (1) a task for group completion, discussion, and (if possible) resolution, (2) face-to-face interaction in small groups, (3) an atmosphere of cooperation and mutual helpfulness within each group, and (4) Individual accountability (everyone does their share), while others would include some or all of the following points: (1) heterogeneous grouping, (2) explicit teaching of collaborative skills, (3) structured mutual interdependence.

As cited from http://edtech.kennesaw.edu/intech/cooperativelearning.htm, research has shown some strengths of cooperative learning techniques as follows:

- promote student learning and academic achievement
- increase student retention
- enhance student satisfaction with their learning experience
- help students develop skills in oral communication
- develop students' social skills
- promote student self-esteem
- help to promote positive race relations

Some Cooperative Learning Techniques
There are a lot of cooperative learning techniques developed by the scholars in the area, but only 9 are presented here as examples (taken and directly quoted from http://edtech.kennesaw.edu/intech/cooperativelearning.htm), as they were used in the community service program. Teachers can always modify these techniques to suit their teaching needs.

1. **Jigsaw** - Groups of several students (depending on the material) are set up (home group). Each group member is assigned some unique material to learn. Students learning on the same material then get together and form a new group (expert group) to decide what is important and how to teach it to the other home group members. After practicing in these "expert" groups, they get back to the home groups and students teach each other.

2. **Think-Pair-Share** – This involves a three step cooperative structure. The first step allows individuals to think silently about a question/task posed by the instructor. The second step suggests individuals to pair up and exchange thoughts. In the third step, the pairs share their responses/ideas with other pairs, other teams, or the entire group.

3. **Three-Step Interview** (Kagan) - Each member of a team chooses another member to be a partner. In the first step individuals are supposed to interview their partners; in the second step they reverse the roles (interviewers become interviewees); in the final step, members of the team share their partners’ responses.

4. **Round Robin Brainstorming** (Kagan) - Class is divided into small groups (4 to 6) with one person appointed as the recorder. The teacher asks a question that allows a lot of possible answers and students are given time to think about the answers. After the "think time," members of the team share their responses in the group round robin style. The recorder writes down the answers of the group members, starting from the person next to the recorder. This is done until time is called.

5. **Three-minute review** – In this technique, the teacher stops at any time during a lecture or discussion and give the teams three minutes to review what has been said, to ask clarifying questions or to answer questions.

6. **Numbered Heads Together** (Kagan) – The teacher divides the class into groups of four. Each member in each group is given a number, so in every group there is a member number 1, a member number 2, a member number 3, and a member number 4. The teacher asks questions. The group members work together to answer the question so that all can verbally answer the question. The teacher calls out a number (for example, number two) and the member number two in each group is asked to give the answer.

7. **Team Pair Solo** (Kagan) - Students solve problems that the teacher poses, first by doing it in a team, then with a partner (in pair), and finally on their own (solo). It is designed to motivate students to overcome difficult problems which initially are beyond their ability. It is based on the notion of mediated learning, suggesting that students can do more things with help (mediation) than they can do alone.

8. **Circle the Sage** (Kagan) - First the teacher polls the class to see which students have a special knowledge to share. Those students are then assigned as the sages. The sages stand and spread out in the classroom. The teacher then asks the rest of the classmates (in teams) each surround a sage. Each member of a team goes to a different sage; no two members of the same team go to the same sage. The sage explains what they know about the subject matter/tasks the teacher poses, while the classmates listen, ask questions, and take notes. All students surrounding the sages then return to their teams. Each, in turn, explains what he/she has learned from the sage.
9. Partners (Kagan) - The class is divided into teams of four. Half of each team is given an assignment to master to be able to teach the other half (as tutors), while the other half act as the tutees. Partners (tutors) go to one side of the room to work to learn and can consult with other partners working on the same material. Teams go back together with each set of partners (2 students) teaching the other set. Partners quiz and tutor teammates. Team then reviews how well they have learned and taught and how they might improve the process.

Training Procedure
To get the picture of the teachers’ understanding and mastery of cooperative learning before the training, pre-test was given, consisting of 2 items. First, the teachers (training participants) was asked to give check marks on the techniques they know and or master among the 9 cooperative learning techniques provided. Second, they were asked to make 6 teaching-learning scenarios (for vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing) using 6 of the 9 cooperative learning techniques in the training.

It was found out that 7 out of the 8 teachers claimed that they did not know all the 9 techniques and so they could not make the scenarios required in item 2 of the test. Another teacher claimed that he knew *think-pair-share* technique. However, the scenario that he made did not demonstrate understanding of the technique. It was concluded, then, that none of the participants understood the 9 techniques. The training was then designed to make them understand and able to apply the techniques.

The training was designed to give participants the experience of using cooperative learning techniques to learn English grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading, speaking, and writing. As the real practice of using cooperative learning techniques was done on 6 of the 9 techniques, in the reading learning session (with jigsaw technique), the participants are exposed with reading material on 9 cooperative learning techniques. The subjects and methods of training are given in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Method of Delivery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Workshop with Jigsaw technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Workshop with Round Robin Brainstorming technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Workshop with Numbered Heads Together technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Workshop with Team Pair Solo technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Workshop with Three-step Interview technique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Workshop with Think-Pair-Share technique</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find out the outcomes of the training and the participants’ response on the training, post-test and questionnaire were given to all participants, and the questionnaire was filled anonymously. The test items were the same as the pre-test, and the questionnaire consisted of 8 open-ended and closed questions.

Findings

Pre-test dan Post-Test
As mentioned previously, none of the participants understood the 9 techniques and none could make the teaching-learning scenarios using the techniques before the training. After the training, 5 participants claimed that they understood/mastered all the 9 techniques. 1 participant claimed
she understood/mastered 7 techniques and 2 participants claimed that they understood/mastered 6 techniques. This shows that majority of the participants gained a lot from the training. However, it is worth identifying the techniques that participants claimed they did not master, namely: three-minute review, circle the sage, and partners. The 3 techniques were those learned from the reading (during the jigsaw technique workshop) only instead of the real experience workshop. This gives feedback and conclusion that learning cooperative learning techniques is more effective when it is done through workshop (learning by doing).

As opposed to the pre-test, during the post-test all the participants were able to write 6 teaching-learning scenarios with the cooperative learning techniques of their choices. Interestingly, all the participants were able to write scenarios for purposes different from the models in the training. This shows teachers’ creativity in exploring the different applications of the techniques, which also shows the applicability of the techniques in different classroom contexts. The teaching-learning scenarios were even extended not only for the teaching of English, but also for the teaching of other subjects such as Mathematics, Science, and Religion (Quran Reading/ Qiro’ati). Additionally, some of the participants demonstrated high creativity by modifying the think-pair-share technique into observe-pair-share and explore-pair-share. This shows that the training was successful in convincing the participants that cooperative learning techniques can be applicable in different classroom contexts, and allow exploration of different techniques, each for different purposes. List of the 48 teaching-learning scenarios with cooperative learning written by the participants is given in the following table:

Table 2: List of Teaching-learning Scenarios Developed by Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Application/Subject</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Numbered Heads Together (10 scenarios)</td>
<td>• Grammar (5 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Listening (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Writing (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Science (2 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Maths (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Round Robin Brainstorming (9 scenarios)</td>
<td>• Vocabulary (6 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Reading (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Science (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Writing (1scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Jigsaw (7 scenarios)</td>
<td>• Writing (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Reading (2 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Science (2 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Maths (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Listening (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a.</td>
<td>Think-pair-share (5 scenarios)</td>
<td>• Reading (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Listening (2 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Religion/ Islam (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Maths (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4b.</td>
<td>Explore-pair-share (1 scenario)</td>
<td>• Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4c.</td>
<td>Observe-pair-share (1 scenario)</td>
<td>• Science</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Among the 48 teaching-learning scenarios developed by the participants, *numbered heads together* was the most dominant technique used (10 scenarios), followed by *round Robin brainstorming* (9 scenarios), *jigsaw* (7 scenarios), *think-pair-share* (5 scenarios) plus its modification into *observe-pair-share* (1 scenario) and *explore-pair-share* (1 scenario), *three-step interview* and *team-pair-solo* (6 scenarios each), *three-minute review* (2 scenarios), and *circle the sage* (1 scenario).

The scenarios also show applicability of the cooperative learning techniques for different learning contexts. They are used for the learning of English, such as grammar, vocabulary, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as for the learning of Science, Mathematics, Religion/Islam, Quran Reading, and Social Science.

The results of the post-test above indicate that the teachers had good mastery of 6 techniques, i.e. *jigsaw, think-pair-share, three-step interview, round robin brainstorming, numbered heads together, and team pair solo*, as shown from the variety and high frequency of application in their teaching-learning scenarios. These 6 techniques were trained by direct experience through workshop. Among the other 3 techniques, which were trained through reading material during the jigsaw workshop, only 2 of them were then applied by the participants in the teaching-learning scenarios, i.e. *three-minute review* and *circle the sage*. The other technique, *partners*, was not used at all in the teaching-learning scenario. This technique was not the one of the techniques that the (majority of) teachers claimed to master. This has proven and give feedback that the workshop method works better that the reading method in training teachers cooperative learning techniques.

**Questionnaire**

In addition to doing the post-test, the participants also answered all the 8 questions in the questionnaire. In response to question number 1, whether they benefited from the training, all the participants said they gained a lot, with the following reasons: (1) got good teaching methods applicable to subjects other than English, (2) inspiring for more variety of teaching methods, (3) inspiring for more fun and interesting learning, (4) could apply the 9 cooperative learning techniques, from knowing nothing about them, (5) cooperative learning techniques could well be applied in their school context, (6) got the up-to-date teaching techniques they need, (7) the different techniques are applicable for students’ better understanding of the subjects taught, and (8) got knowledge and mastery of new methods. The answers show the teachers’ appreciation to the training program and their recognition that it has inspired them to apply the techniques for better quality teaching.

In response to question number 2, whether the training was interesting, all the teachers said “yes”. Similarly, when they were asked the third question, whether they were motivated to use the cooperative learning techniques in their future classroom teaching, they all said “yes”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Three-step Interview (6 scenarios)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Speaking (4 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Science (2 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Team Pair Solo (6 scenarios)</td>
<td>• Writing (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Speaking (2 scenarios)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Maths (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Social Science (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Three-minute Review (2 scenarios)</td>
<td>• Listening &amp; vocabulary (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Religion/Islam (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Circle the Sage (1)</td>
<td>• Quran Reading (1 scenario)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Numbered heads together* was the most dominant technique used (10 scenarios), followed by *round Robin brainstorming* (9 scenarios), *jigsaw* (7 scenarios), *think-pair-share* (5 scenarios) plus its modification into *observe-pair-share* (1 scenario) and *explore-pair-share* (1 scenario), *three-step interview* and *team-pair-solo* (6 scenarios each), *three-minute review* (2 scenarios), and *circle the sage* (1 scenario).
This shows that the training was considered interesting and was successful in motivating 100% of the participants to use the techniques in their classrooms.

The participants’ response to question number 4, asking which techniques among the 9 techniques learned were interesting for their classroom application, indicated that they had different preferences. However, the most favorite techniques and not excluded from every participants’ choices were numbered heads together, round robin brainstorming, and jigsaw. This was in line with their choices in their teaching-learning scenarios, with the three techniques being the most dominantly used. Thus, conclusion can be drawn that the three techniques are the most suitable for application in their classroom contexts.

The rest of the questionnaire asked the participants whether they needed similar training on teaching English, asked them what training they needed for their further professional development, asked them to give comments on the training, asked them to write their expectations in the future training. The answers indicated that they needed further training on English teaching, specifically on teaching techniques, on teaching media, on assessment, and on the English. Other training courses that they needed are public speaking, student motivating, classroom management, training for trainers of English, and curriculum development. These show that there are variety of needs among different teachers and that the participants are eager to learn and give the best to education.

When asked to give short comments with descriptive words to describe the training, they gave positive comments such as “(very) inspiring” (4), “(very) interesting (2)”, “incredible” (2), “great”, “perfect”, “valuable (very beneficial for teachers)”, “thanks a lot for your spirit; hope Allah bless you”, “very very good”, “excellent”, and “unforgettable”. This shows how teachers highly valued training program for their better teaching.

Writing their expectations for future training, they mentioned the need for such training to be given to all teachers elsewhere, especially English teachers, the need for similar training targeted specifically to the basic competence in the curriculum, and similar training with longer period. In conclusions teachers generally need training courses for their professional development, and they are aware of the importance to give the best to the students.

Conclusion
Training on teaching English using cooperative learning techniques was well appreciated by teachers as the participants. Out of the 9 techniques trained, the most popular technique that teachers used most dominantly in their teaching-learning scenarios and which they mastered the best was numbered heads together, followed by round Robin brainstorming, jigsaw, think-pair-share, three-step-interview, and team-pair-solo. Three-minute review and circle the sage did not gain as much popularity. However, as stated in their response to the questionnaire, they were all motivated to apply all the 9 techniques. The teaching-learning scenarios with cooperative learning techniques that the teachers developed for different teaching contexts, including those for teaching subjects other than English, have proved the applicability of cooperative learning techniques in different classroom contexts.

About the Author:
Issy Yuliasri holds Ph.D in Translation Studies. She is currently the of English Department at Faculty of Languages and Arts, Semarang State University, Indonesia
References


Academic Writing and the Interdependent Relation between Language-use and Ideas

Cameron Richards
University of Western Australia

Abstract

More than 90 per cent of the journal literature in some scientific domains is printed in English and the most prestigious and cited journals are in English. Countless students and academics around the world must now gain fluency in the conventions of English-language academic discourses to understand their disciplines, to establish their careers, or to successfully navigate their learning – K. Hyland (2006), English for academic purposes, p. 24. Are the differences between Western and Arab educational genres a reflection of differences in rhetorical and ideological codes, or do they signify little more than stages in an educational cycle? – J. Swales (1989), Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings, p. 66.

Keywords: academic writing, language-use, ideas
Introduction
Swales’ influential CARS model of framing as well as introducing academic writing epitomizes a dominant model of Academic English (or English for Academic Purposes). It does so in relation to how ‘Academic English’ approaches to academic literacy, rhetoric, and writing tend to reflect a language perspective divorced from the knowledge-building process. The CARS model is typically defined in relation to the distinct functions of academic genres, related grammar structures and the distinct terminologies of specific academic discourses (Cf. also Swales & Feak, 2004). This also applies to typical Academic English courses (especially the short-course form) which generally cover all the parts, although typically tending to prioritize a particular genre, grammar or terminology emphasis. There are many students as well as language teachers who would agree with Hyland (2006) that around the world ‘English for general academic purposes’ generally fail to adequately or sufficiently help higher education students – especially those for whom English is a second or other language – to significantly improve their academic writing, literacy and rhetorical awareness.

However, we believe that Hyland himself is guilty of ‘throwing the baby with the bathwater’ in his denial that there can be a universal model of good Academic English writing approach and that this can be either taught or learnt. The work of Hyland (2006) represents an influential perspective that denies and strongly criticizes the idea that the universal aspects of a language-knowledge connection can be a foundation for the acquisition of academic literacy and related writing skills and knowledge – in particular for the development of a ‘research orientation’ (p.15). This is despite how he, like Swales, nonetheless acknowledges the centrality of the IMRAD model and thus reinforces a similar sliding definition. Rather Hyland advocates that for English natives as well as those students and academics for whom English is a second or other language, they only need and should only be taught ‘English for specific academic purposes’ in terms of the kind of genre model of English based on how ‘many communicative activities are specific to particular disciplines’ (p.19). This is no doubt useful advice to those who have a solid foundation of academic skills and knowledge already and ‘active learning’ interests in and approaches to the knowledge-building process. But many academic staff as well students in modern universities do not have this.

In this way such calls for teachers and learners to focus only on acquiring ‘academic language specificity’ epitomize an elitist and selective as well as advanced approach which tends to ignore the need for the average student (and also academic) to acquire solid academic literacy and rhetorical foundations in order to be a productive and effective academic writer. Less obviously it further epitomizes a ‘spoken’ model of genre which also stands in opposition to or denial of how academic literacy and rhetoric is primarily a ‘written’ rather than ‘spoken’ genre in terms of the dominant convention of formality typically indicated, for instance, by high lexical density, high nominal style and tendency to impersonal construction (Hyland, 2006). Thus Hyland also suggests that language teachers should re-double their efforts at a ‘spoken’ model for bridging ‘linguistic worlds’ in terms of specific discourse acquisition.

English can also have potentially negative consequences for students as they find it hard to bridge the domains of English in their classroom and their vernacular language in everyday life… The task of teachers is to bridge these linguistic worlds, not by privileging the home literacy of learners against the literacy of academic study but by helping them to see the discourses of academic engagement as central to the disciplines… (p.13).
In other words what most students need from an Academic English short course is a much more effective (or ‘optimizing’) focus on the essential written language skills and knowledge in terms of an integral link to the knowledge building process. Yet what they tend to get is an implicit ‘spoken’ model which is generally not relevant to academic literacy and writing and is often covered so quickly and in piecemeal fashion that many or most students either become confused or forget what they learn. As Biber, Conrad & Reppen (1999) point out, for instance, it is not only a waste of time but confusing to teach students in short course formats especially different forms of aspect (perfect, progressive, etc.) when written academic English generally does not use aspect – and likewise ‘future tense’ when this is almost never used in academic writing.

**Academic Writing as a Convergent Language-Knowledge ‘Ecology’**

We therefore propose that the language skills and knowledge typically covered in Academic English courses would be more effectively acquired and applied by students if framed more directly in terms of: (a) the authentic and applied academic knowledge of both general academic and subject specific discourses, and (b) the particular rhetorical requirements of effective academic inquiry and writing as modes of knowledge-building. In other words we think that the very concept of Academic English might be ‘optimised’ in terms of the natural interdependence between language and related modes of learning, inquiry and knowledge construction - modes which have long been recognized in philosophy, cultural anthropology and even certain constructivist models of teaching and learning. As suggested earlier, the useful distinction between surface and deep modes of learning (e.g. ad hoc, decontextualized and rote learning vs. synthesizing, applied, and transferable learning) in itself emphasizes the constructivist role of both natural languages and active thinking modes in knowledge construction (Entwistle, 2001; Biggs, 2003). Thus a re-framed Academic English model might be built around the deep rhetorical convergence also between applied knowledge and the use of language for interdisciplinary as well cross-cultural and diverse social contexts of communication.
As discussed in relation to the ‘surface’ tendencies encouraged by the IMRAD model, descriptive academic research and writing tends to be reflected in a lack of integration of the related language features of terminology, grammar structure and the indicated alternation between an IMRAD structure and subject or disciplinary discourse. As Figure 1 indicates, academic inquiry and writing organized around a relevant problem reflected in an implicit or explicit focus question generally promotes and organizes a deep-level language convergence within an interpretive framework of knowledge-building. This deep rhetorical convergence should be reflected in an interdependent language and knowledge ‘ecology’ organized around a thread of inquiry reflecting a related convergence between individual acts of cognition and social structures of convention or communication. Likewise a relevant focus problem or question should inform and also be reflected by both the lexical coherence of any particular academic discourse (such as a written assignment or verbal presentation) and also the various forms, aspects and functions of grammatical cohesion. A particularly most useful linguistics model then for re-framing Academic English is perhaps Halliday’s (1973, 2004) Functional Grammar which comprehensively and integrally outline in relation to authentic contexts of human meaning-making the textual functions of coherence and relevance on one hand, and the similarly interdependent grammatical aspects of linguistic cohesion.

As is the case with critical reading skills and knowledge, the generic schemas and structure of academic writing also involve a fundamental distinction often confused or ignored. In terms of the transitions between paragraphs and also ideas typical connecting grammar structures typically reflect such organizing structures as cause-effect, description, and comparison or contrast. Just as transition words such as since, as a result, and because of typify a cause-effect structure of discussion, so too various schemas such as flow charts and mind maps epitomize a related verbal-visual convergence. However the key words and key concepts of any meaningful academic writing can or should be read in terms of an implied ‘semantic map’ of
lexical coherence. Good writers realize this and structure their writing to clarify as well as unfold and explore ideas through: (a) a vertical axis of conceptual hierarchies interacting with a vertical axis of associated synonyms and associations, and (b) related selection and combination language axes. Likewise in this way effective academic writing builds a related and convergent language and knowledge ecology.

We further propose to recognize how many of the key language functions of optimal academic knowledge-building relate to our earlier efforts to outline a ‘fail-proof’ framework to address the four key ways and stages that students tend to get lost in the academic inquiry and writing process (Richards, 2009, 2010b, 2010c). By ‘fail-proof’ we refer to a process of instilling in learners a set of both macro strategies and micro skills and knowledge which together as part of an optimal learning strategy might serve to transform academic presentation and writing into outcomes which make it more difficult for examiners to fail research papers, dissertations and various other academic writing assignments – whatever their methodological, rhetorical or cross-cultural assumptions and language conventions. In relation to the related processes of academic inquiry and writing, the concept of fail-proofing refers to an integrated strategy or interactive thread of knowledge-building conceived around the design of an inquiry focus and structure that includes both internal integrity and external relevance in terms of a particular problem or question addressed. Just as the concept of an integral ‘thread of inquiry’ represents a language as much as knowledge-building ‘focus and structure’ for optimizing the academic writing process, so too it represents an interactive and ‘deep rhetorical’ basis for productively engaging a reader. Such a concept not only links but also navigates the interaction between the macro dimensions of developing ideas and the micro language aspects. It does so in two related ways. As discussed earlier, in addition to providing an inquiry focus a problem and question also provides the alternately ‘internal’ and ‘external’ textual reference for progressive and inter-dependent lexical coherence, grammatical cohesion, and rhetorical relevance on one hand, and the transformation of accumulated data and information into knowledge on the other. In this way, academic writing and also reading might be conceived as an ecological process of knowledge-building framed by the tools of language with an authentic or applied focus the key missing link in efforts to teach or learn this.

**Figure 2. Language structures and functions: Inter-dependent macro and micro aspects**

Adapted from Richards, 2012

Arab World English Journal
ISSN: 2229-9327
Figure 2 outlines the progressive and inter-dependent language structures and functions of related macro and micro aspects. Just as the macro dimensions of language use generally refer to the contextual aspects of knowledge and language-use, so to the micro dimensions incorporate various textual and discursive elements (Swales & Feak, 2004). A model which links these inter-dependent macro and micro aspects thus also serves to overcome an either/or notion of conflicting perspectives and replace or re-frame this in terms of an emergent both/and logic and connection. In this way the concept of academic or other writing genres and discourses may be recognized to alternately refer to both particular ‘social and cultural contexts’ and typical kinds of text or discursive structure. As indicated earlier, academic writing courses tend to focus quite distinctly on either the teaching and learning of particular disciplinary or subject-specific terminologies on one hand, and on particular grammar structures and functions on the other (e.g. Bailey, 2006).

Such a perspective serves to approach any particular writing or communication purpose as a deep rhetorical structure or unity which integrates related aspects of both lexical coherence and grammatical cohesion on one hand, and both a semantic map of key words and concepts and the integrated purposes of particular academic or other texts on the other. To adapt the initial quote by Brown, the various lexical and syntactic errors of especially second language academic writing indeed are relatively trivial compared to not so much the ‘violation of anticipated protocol’ but rather the discursive or textual lack of focus, structure and general organizational integrity. This is an internally emergent function of the language-knowledge convergence.

Conventional academic writing courses tend to emphasize either larger or ‘externally’ relevant textual and discursive purposes on one hand, and the ‘internal’ language features of a paragraph in terms of the alternate lexical and grammatical functions of the topic sentence. In the alternative view provided above, the paragraph not the topic sentence is recognized as the integrating unit of writing. At the macro level the paragraph serves to link both the set of developing ideas or critical discussion and related language functions in terms of the organizing or deep rhetoric of a composition. Yet the paragraph also co-ordinates the micro functions of lexical coherence and grammatical cohesion which are ‘internally’ built around topic sentences. In such ways a common thread of inquiry and reception links both the macro and micro aspects of academic writing.

Yet there is an additional dilemma to be addressed. Although as a form of communication academic writing should encourage clarity, conciseness and efficiency, the conventions of academic discourse and writing suggest that one should tend to use passive not active voice, the third person and not first person, and generally engage in the various ‘modal’ indications of caution and provisionality identified as ‘hedging’ (Crompton, 1998) – for instance, modal verbs such as may and might, and modal adverbs such as possibly and perhaps. Yet if such alternately linguistic and knowledge-building ploys become habits rather than strategic tools for avoiding over-confident, opinionated or arbitrary assertiveness, then the writer risks clumsiness, obscurity and pedantry. Our convergent framework recognizes that such ploys are integrated aspects of an overall knowledge-building ecology and an emergent balancing of both direct and indirect (also concrete and abstract) functions of language and knowledge.
Critical Thinking as The Key To Optimal Academic Knowledge-Building

One of the characteristics of Academic English courses is that they require a ‘just-in-time’ flexibility being typically reduced to short-term frameworks of intensive learning. Figure 3 adapts to the Academic English context an optimal design model (Richards, 2010b) integrating both teaching and learning purposes within a larger re-framed ‘macro’ rationale directly linked to and informing the micro of particular skills and knowledge – in this case, the either general or particular use of academic terminology, and the typical grammar structures of academic discourse and writing genres. As we discuss further below, an active engagement with and application of a ‘critical thinking’ process is the crucial key to achieving this convergence and integration of language and knowledge.

Figure 3. An ‘optimal learning’ model of Academic English

Adapted from Richards,

An ‘optimal’ notion of the learning process recognizes how the most effective practical or conceptual learning or knowledge-building links human language and thought (including body and mind as well as individual and collective forms of knowledge) in terms of dynamically focused and structured ways of establishing and proceeding from levels of naïve to comprehensive and applied modes of understanding via the capacity for reflective explanation. In relation to second language contexts of learning, such an approach adapts Krashen’s (1982) notion that the most effective learning involves grounding in authentic communication contexts of optimal comprehensible inputs and also comprehensible outputs. In terms of how academic purposes revolve rather around formal written purposes rather than non-formal speech contexts, such an approach re-frames this insight in relation to those of the writing process movement that purposeful (not just comprehensible) outputs in written form especially can assist with optimizing the knowledge connections between understanding and explanation on one hand, and on the other the interdependent links between human activity and reflection. To the extent that the most effective learning and knowledge-building represents an interplay of internal or self-organizing and external or ‘focused and structured’ aspects, we might therefore speak of a common ‘corridor of authentic and applied learning’ which transforms not just translates both
the surface and deep rhetorical as well as lexical and grammatical structures of human understanding and explanation.

Another reason why we have advocated that a focus problem or question is the key to a knowledge-building framework supported by language tools is that it also serves to avoid an arbitrary distinction between subjective and objective (also cognitive and social or conventional) perspectives in communication as well as how an integral research or inquiry design should inform either a qualitative or quantitative methodology of evaluation (and not the other way around). Figure 4 outlines a related model which navigates the either/or gap between the low-level mere reproduction or exposition of information (or related tendencies for knowledge ‘regurgitation’ or even plagiarism) and the opinionated assertion of views not sufficiently informed or supported by overall (as distinct from selective) evidence. Effective knowledge-building is thus associated with a deep rhetorical convergence of both language and knowledge indicators of understood, applied and transferable knowledge (i.e. ‘higher-order thinking and learning). The thread of achieving such an ecology or synthesis thus similarly navigates the alternate functions or levels of content, theme and discourse on one hand, and the interpretive stages of naïve, critical and dialogical forms of knowledge and analysis. It thus reconciles and builds upon the descriptive yet alternate tendencies of both content (including corpus) analysis and discourse analysis in order to achieve or encourage higher order-thinking, quality outcomes or transferable relevance (Charles, Pecorari, & Hunstan, 2010)

Figure 4. The related language aspects and interpretative stages of ‘deep rhetorical convergence’

The model of the four related ways and stages academic writers tend to get ‘lost’ reflects either an ad hoc or retrospective and ultimately hasty or superficial notion the inquiry process (Richards, 2010). It has perhaps been most useful for our present purposes to recognize how these linked stages of the inquiry process also reflect the key elements or parts of academic writing. The symptoms of a written academic dissertation which lacks relevant focus and integrating structure include the following: no obvious or at least prioritized research problem or question, a literature review which tends to read as merely annotated bibliography, a descriptive methodology of evaluation, a related empirical project not adequately linked to a chosen theoretical context, and an ad hoc or retrospective write-up which reflects a similarly disconnected overall project. Thus we have summarized these four ‘ways and stages’ of
academic disorientation, confusion, and uncertainty as follows: unable to find a focus or topic, lost in endless references and ‘literature’, lost in accumulated data, and lost in the writing process (i.e. unable to integrate for either the self or the reader).

The paper has outlined the macro-micro links which converge the process of knowledge-building on one hand, and on the other he various integrated language functions associated with this and a related fail-proofing framework of academic inquiry design developed earlier (Richards, 2010) – integrated language as well knowledge-building remedies by which the four key stages and aspects of academic disorientation, confusion and uncertainty might be more productively overcome. In this model the verbal predication of a guiding thread of inquiry provides the focus and structure by which lexical cohesion, grammatical cohesion and rhetorical relevance may not only be achieved to optimize or enhance academic writing effectiveness, but also an authentic and integrating focus for also more effective acquisition and application of related language skills and knowledge.

We have further addressed the related question of whether Academic English might be taught, learnt or generally acquired in a way in which reconciles the growing awareness of fundamental differences in cross-cultural communication and stylistic conventions on one hand, with the challenge on the other of achieving and applying standards of universality or transferability in the academic knowledge-building process. The paper has not only addressed this larger issue in terms of identifying common cross-cultural and cross-methodological elements of a deep academic rhetoric. It has also similarly engaged the challenge of ‘fail-proofing’ a piece of academic writing in terms of language elements supporting an inquiry design which both develop greater academic integrity and also make it less likely that it will be rejected or failed (or more difficult for anyone to justify doing so). Likewise the paper has identified how the so-called linearity of ‘Western formulas’ and ‘Anglo rhetorical patterning’ of academic writing: (a) is a surface or stylistic convention, and (b) which rather points to how universality might be achieved in relation to the rather ‘internal’ and integrated language and knowledge-building reference points of the basic inquiry-focused design and structure at work in different types of writing genres. In this way also the typical error correction tendencies of a second language learning framework of Academic English might be re-framed in relation to the alternative emergent and integral approach suggested (Russell, 2009). In a writing process model an active correction process of editing dovetails with the ongoing revision for further clarifying and linking or building of ideas.

Figure 5. The three distinct stages and modes of critical thinking as the basis of an integrated as well as optimal model of academic knowledge-building
Adapted from Richards 2011

In this way Ricoeur follows the Socratic model of recognizing two related trajectories of thinking which cut through and resolve the typical conflict or opposition between objectivist and relativist or subjective notions of ‘critical thinking’ – and this apply a third stage and mode of ‘critical thinking as applied reconstruction’ based on emergent principles of dialogue and deep understanding. The first trajectory proceeds from the naive understanding of an initial stage of ‘critical thinking as reflective practice’ giving way to or being challenged and deconstructed in terms of critical explanation (i.e. critical thinking as deconstructive analysis). A second trajectory recognizes ‘critical explanation’ as a provisional phase rather than fixed perspective giving way to an applied convergence of deep knowledge and understanding transferable to and across different contexts. As Figure 5 outlines, the achievement of this reconstructive mode and stage of thinking for knowledge-building involves going beyond a fixed reflection mode and stage of ‘either/or thinking’ – that is to transform reflection into a temporary rather than perpetual stage of confusion, frustration and uncertainty.

Reflecting two distinct stages of this arc of thinking for more productive knowledge-building’, academic writing conventionally proceeds to address an implicit issue/problem/question on the basis of proceeding from either (a) a passive/objective/’ignorant’ standpoint to develop/build/describe a response; or (b) the articulation of an explicit hypothesis/position/argument which will then need to be somehow ‘proved’ or demonstrated in a meaningful and transferable way. In practice, of course, any critical inquiry of either a more conceptual or practical emphasis will inevitably (a) build to some degree on prior knowledge and implicit expectations related to either individual experience or conventional models or theories; and (b) proceed as an attempt to both change and improve our understanding and knowledge of some particular yet exemplary aspect of the world. In short, any academic thesis or other form of inquiry-based writing and reporting represents a retrospective effort of meaning-making trying to selectively make sense of either some unique perspective on or specific intervention in relation to some general area, topic or practice of human knowledge.
The model above typifies how the ‘active inquiry’ process exemplifies a constructivist and life-learning view of knowledge-building. Such a process reflects the three pillars and related generic stages of constructivist knowledge-building which are problem-based learning (formulating a problem), inquiry-based learning (convert into a central question), and project-based learning (the emergent process of developing a ‘focus and structure’). Some people will develop their academic inquiry writing more in terms of a practical emphasis, aim and audience. Others will have a more theoretical or conceptual focus. Either way, it will help to be aware that in either writing up a practical inquiry or making some concrete connection to ground a more ‘theoretical’/conceptual/abstractly reflective inquiry, an effectively relevant critical inquiry can be represented as either a predominantly provisional ‘naïve-critical’ arc or more substantially developed ‘critical-applied’ arc of knowledge-building.

In similar fashion to the interplay of surface and deep genres, Kuhn’s concept of a ‘paradigm shift’ generally refers to the process in which there is a change in the organizing models of theory and practice which inform an ecology of specific theories, concepts and ideas. However this also includes the fundamental contrast between a positivist view of an either rational or ad hoc and disconnected world on one hand, and an emergently ecological ‘systems’ view of human interaction within social and natural environments or contexts. In this section we have discussed how just as the most effective writing implicitly reflects a convergent ecology of language elements and the process of knowledge-building, so too a related paradigm shift is perhaps required in the way that courses in Academic writing are taught and learnt as a convergence of language and knowledge around an authentic and applied problem-solving process of inquiry. Building upon Krashen’s insight that ‘comprehensible inputs’ assist an optimal learning process we have focused on how academic writing is a mode of ‘comprehensible outputs’ may likewise assist an optimal academic knowledge-building process.

**Conclusion**

Can Academic English might be taught, learnt or generally acquired in a way in which reconciles the growing awareness of fundamental differences in cross-cultural communication and stylistic conventions on one hand, with the challenge on the other of achieving and applying standards of universality or transferability in the academic knowledge-building process? The paper has not only addressed this larger issue in terms of identifying common cross-cultural and cross-methodological elements of a deep academic rhetoric. It has also similarly engaged the challenge of ‘fail-proofing’ a piece of academic writing in terms of language elements supporting an inquiry design which both develops serves to encourage greater academic integrity and also make it less likely that it will be rejected or failed (or more difficult for anyone to justify doing so). The paper has thus explored the macro-micro links between the process of knowledge-building and the various integrated language functions associated with this and a related fail-proofing framework of academic inquiry design developed earlier (Richards, 2010b) – integrated language as well knowledge-building remedies by which the four key stages and aspects of academic disorientation, confusion and uncertainty might be more productively overcome. In this model the verbal predication of a guiding thread of inquiry provides the focus and structure by which lexical cohesion, grammatical cohesion and rhetorical relevance may not only be achieved to optimize or enhance academic writing effectiveness, but also an authentic and integrating focus for also more effective acquisition and application of related language skills and knowledge.
About the Author:

Dr. Cameron Richards is an Australian academic with extensive experience of working in the Asia-Pacific region – including positions at Nanyang University, Singapore, the Hong Kong Institute of Education and the University of Western Australia. He has a multi-disciplinary background which includes specializations in academic research and writing methodology, educational technologies, intercultural communication, curriculum innovation, and new literacies. In his 15 years or so of focusing on new approaches to higher as well as school education he has developed a particular interest in the development of sustainable policy-building research and strategies in wider social as well as organizational context.

References


Entwistle, N. (2001). 'Styles of learning and approaches to studying in higher education', Kybernetes, 30, (5/6), 593-602


The Language Learning Beliefs of Arab ESL Students

Khairi Obaid Al-Zubaidi
Language Academy
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, International Campus
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Nurhasmiza Abu Hasan Sazalli
Language Academy
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia
International Campus, K.L

Abstract

Learning a second / foreign language is more than memorizing the grammatical rules and vocabularies. Language learning is a very complex activity, and culture plays a crucial role in this very dynamic, amorphous and debatable process. Learners of foreign /second languages also use different learning strategies which are influenced very much by their cultural and educational backgrounds. Belief is one of the most significant and important components of culture that encompasses language, religion, race and the personal history of any individual. During the last two decades many researchers have focused on learners’ beliefs. This study investigates the beliefs of Arab undergraduate students who are studying at three Malaysian Universities, are assessed on an adapted version of the Belief about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), which was developed by Horwitz (1985). The paper assesses the students’ beliefs in relation to the following areas of language learning: difficulty of language learning; foreign language aptitude; the nature of language learning; learning and communication strategies; and motivations and expectations.

Keywords: ESL/EFL, Second Language Learning, Beliefs about Language Learning, Arab Students
Introduction

The concept of belief remains a key factor in foreign/second language learning. The Belief about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was introduced and developed by Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988) in relation to the language learning beliefs of American students studying French, German and Spanish. The topic of beliefs about language learning has attracted many educators and linguists in various international contexts in the last two decades (e.g., Altan, 2006; Rieger, 2009; Bernat, 2003; Heinzmann, 2009; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Truitt, 1995). These studies which conducted on learners from different nationalities: Turkey, Hungary, Vietnam, Australia, Switzerland, and Korea. Such studies emphasize what Horwitz (1988) refers to as the beliefs of learners in role in language learning process.

The purpose of this study was to add to the body of knowledge of beliefs with a focus on Arab learners. The study looks at the beliefs of Arab students from seven different Arab nationalities who are studying outside their home counties. While these students share the Arabic language as their mother tongue, they belong to different background in terms of their social, cultural, and educational system. In addition, it is hoped that this study can contribute to the official efforts exerted by Arab authorities to assist the Arab students in their study the English language since the number of international Arab students number has grown tremendously in the last few years.

The Belief about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) of Horwitz (1987) was originally compiled from learner and teacher interviews and revealed that many students believe that language learning is merely learning vocabulary and grammar rules. Generally, they share many stereotypical views about language learning. The study also gives information about learners’, but it doesn’t give us a clear vision about the process of learning.

When Elaine K. Horwitz (Ortega, 2007) was asked about The Belief about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by her in 1988, she suggested that teachers use it as a discussion starter in language classroom. This was besides using it as a research instrument. As the BALLI deals with pedagogical issues, teachers could use it as a platform of discussion to get their students communicate and share their opinion.

Based on her experience of learning French and Spanish, Horwitz (Ortega, 2007) admitted that she has been aware since she was young that some people do have trouble when it comes to language learning. For some students, the source of anxiety is definitely there when seeing other students who understand what was going on in the classroom, while they are not. Therefore, Horwitz really believes that language classes must be communicative in the sense that students should be given opportunity to speak in the foreign language and “not use the native language to discuss grammar in the class” (Ortega, p. 6-7). Besides having suitable activities that stimulate communication in a good atmosphere classroom. Horwitz further stressed that students should have enough liberty to be themselves when learning second language. Although there could be some level of anxiety in both teachers and students, teachers could help to reduce the anxiety in the classroom by first minimizing their own anxiety. Horwitz also emphasized that at low level of anxiety, achievement does increase but anxiety continues to increase, there will be a point where achievement starts to decrease. In other words, she indicates that teachers should not do much correction when students speak, as it will impede learning.
Furthermore, she expected to prove the value of perfectionistic beliefs about language learning – the view that one should never make mistakes and should continue to practices. She hoped to be able to use beliefs to explain anxiety. However, it did not happen because the belief that “you have to have foreign language aptitude to learn language” is very pervasive. Other than that, another issue that could be debated in learning a second language is the challenge of overcoming the interference from first language. However, Horwitz (2007) stressed that changes are evolving as there are other important factors as well that could affect language learning.

**Literature review**

The literature review is divided to five areas that BALLI covers. It contains the following:

**The difficulty of language learning**

A survey conducted by Lassiter (2001) used BALLI for the purpose of gaining insight into the students of color at Southern University-Baton Rouge of why they were interested to continue the study of French even though the enrollments in the subject have suffered a dramatic drop. The items to assess students’ view on the difficulty of language learning aspect showed that 66% of the students considered French to be language of medium difficulty. However, majority of them (60%) also believed that they could become fluent in 1 to 2 years. According to Lassiter (2001), many would become frustrated when their progress was not rapid.

In the study by Oz (2007), he investigated the beliefs of Turkish EFL students in secondary education. The participants believed that some languages are easier to learn than others and in learning English; it is easier to read and write than to speak and understand it. 55% of the respondents also rejected the belief that they would feel embarrassed to use English in public.

As with other affective variables, beliefs are complex and influential. Burden (2002), for example, maintains that students’ judgments about the difficulty of a language are critical “to the development of expectations for and commitment to language learning” (p.3). The majority of Burden’s study participants believed that “they will not ultimately speak English well … and rated their own aptitude for English very poorly” (p.6) and were therefore reluctant to communicate with native English speakers. These students felt that an excellent accent was important and that they needed to persevere in spite of their errors, as practice was very important.

**Foreign Language aptitude**

In the area of foreign language aptitude, all respondents in Wu’s (2009) study shared the belief that Thai people are not good at learning foreign languages and a person who speaks a foreign language would have less difficulty in learning other foreign language. They also felt that children are better than adults when it comes to language learning and people who are born with a special ability could acquire the language faster than the rest. Nevertheless, only the teachers seemed to have positive perception about people who are able to speak more than one language and unlike the students, they also agreed that they do have foreign language aptitude. When judging the ability of women in learning language, all respondents were on the same side as they believed women are better language learners than men. Both groups also agreed that people who are good at Maths and Science are not good at language learning.
In Lassiter’s (2001) questions dealing with beliefs concerning the characteristics of good language learners, the study showed only 25% of the respondents believed that Americans are good at learning foreign languages and 33% of them felt that some people have the special ability to learn foreign language. There was a small percentage too, for those who believed that women are better language learners than men and people who are good at Science and Math are not good at learning language. However, 50% of the students surveyed felt that people who speak more than one language are intelligent. The overwhelming majority of them indicated that they possessed the aptitude to learn foreign language.

Only 20% of the respondents in the study conducted by Oz (2007) believed that Turkish people are good at learning foreign language. They also felt that it is easier for children to learn foreign language compared to adults and some people have special ability to learn foreign language. However, when inquired about their abilities, only half of them (56%) agreed that they have a special ability for learning foreign language. Other than that, only 20% of the Turkish believed that people who are good in Math and Science are good at language learning. The majority of them also agreed that some languages are easier to learn than others. They were neutral when responding to the statement whether girls or boys are good at language learning.

The nature of language learning

From the aspect of the nature of language learning, all participants in Wu’s (2009) study believed that learning a foreign language is a matter of learning grammar rules and vocabularies. Unlike the opinion of both groups of students, the teachers did not agree that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translation. In contrast, the teachers also felt strongly on the importance of knowing the culture of the foreign language in order to speak the language.

Questions related to the nature of language learning in Lassiter’s study indicated only 30% of the participants believed the importance of knowing the foreign language culture in order to speak the language. Lassiter (2001) emphasizes that this indicates minimum attention was given to expose the students to the culture of foreign language and how it is pertinent in the teaching and learning of foreign language. This could explain why almost 50% of the participants disagreed that it is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country. Moreover, the majority of them felt that learning a foreign language is a matter of mastering grammar and vocabularies and also is mostly a matter of translating from English.

Almost half of the Turkish (42%) agreed that to say something in English, they would think of how the words are said in Turkish and then translate them in English. Only 28% of them believed that “The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Turkish” and 51% of the respondents rejected the statement “To understand English, students must first translate it into Turkish” (Oz, 2007).

Learning and communication strategies

In terms of learning and communication strategies aspects, all the participants in Wu’s study agreed about the importance to repetition and practice. They also felt that a person should try to speak the foreign language although he/she might not be able to say it correctly. They believed in the importance of speaking in an excellent accent but the teachers also felt conscious when speaking in public. Interestingly, only the teachers and the 2 year program students disagreed that if people are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard for them to correct themselves in the future while the 4 years program students were not sure about this. All
respondents agreed to go to someone to practice speaking English when they heard he/she speaking the language.

Whereas, in Lassiter’s (2001) study, the students strongly supported repetition and practicing in the language laboratory. Only a minority of them believed the importance of having accent when speaking foreign language and they should not speak the language until they master it. About 45% of them believed that if a person is allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later. Lassiter (2001) believes that the students’ responses demonstrate ambivalence towards taking risks in practicing the language as majority of them agreed that if they heard anybody speaking the language they are learning, they would go up to him/her to practice it (Lassiter, 2001) This further explains the importance of having communication activities which are non-threatening and reduce their affective filter or fear of using the language. 45% of the participants said that they would feel self-conscious when speaking the foreign language in public.

On the other hand, majority of the Turkish believed (Oz, 2007) in the importance of repetition and practice and learning grammar as a way to master English. With regard to the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, half of them agree with their teachers providing explanations in Turkish; 67% of them also felt that if their teachers are native speakers, they should be able to provide explanation in Turkish when necessary.

Benson and Lor (1999) think that one’s beliefs about how to learn a language can determine one’s choices of learning strategies. For instance, the belief “that the best way to learn a foreign language is to memorize its component parts” will contribute positively toward leaning possess especially grammar and vocabulary. Whereas, the belief “that the best way to learn a foreign language is to absorb it in natural contexts of use” will support better understanding towards communicating with native speakers. (p.459).

According to Cotterall, (1999), students who dealt with a new strategy show many different leaning behaviors such as: how to ask for assistance, how to arrange their practices system, and how to identify their strengths and weaknesses (p.508). Cotterall adds that when students given strategy are always associated with their knowledge of that strategy, and most of the time adopt and accept it.

**Motivation and expectation**

In the area of motivation and expectation all participants in Wu’s study (2009) study demonstrated the importance of using English in their daily lives and of having hopes of a brighter future of their lives if they could master the language well. They agreed that they would get a better job and get to know the native speaker better if they could acquire the language. Lassiter (2001) found the a majority of respondents were be able to speak the language well and the students hoped that there could be more time for them to learn the language in classroom. There was also a small percentage of students who found working in group useful. But a high percentage (%80) of students indicated that they preferred speaking French with their professors over speaking with their friends alone (58%). Lastly, with reference to questions related to motivation and expectation, Lassiter found that the students have moderate levels of instrumental and integrative motivation of learning the language. Many expected to be better language learners and that were optimistic about their language ability and the importance of learning the foreign language. Only 41% of them foresaw many opportunities to use the language. Just over 40% agreed that “Americans think that it is important to speak a foreign language, and 55% of them feel they should learn the language so that they could know French speakers better.
According to Oz (2007), a great majority of the Turkish strongly expressed their desire to learn English and the instrumental benefits of English in the future. They also hoped to one day be able to speak the language well. However, the “participants differed in their beliefs regarding the necessity of knowing about English speaking countries, the enjoyment of studying English in relation to time, and the wish to learn English in order to get to know English-speaking people better” (p. 64).

Method
The researchers have adapted and modified a version of Horowitz’s BALLI (The Belief about Language Learning Inventory) for use in this study. (BALLI) was administered to 101 undergraduate Arab students are studying at three Malaysian universities. BALLI contains thirty-four items on a Likert type scale, and assesses student beliefs in five major areas: (1) difficulty of language learning; (2) foreign language aptitude; (3) the nature of language learning; (4) learning and communication strategies; and, (5) motivations and expectations. The survey instrument asked respondents to rate their agreement to 34 statements on a Likert-type scale. These statements concern beliefs, agreement to which needs to be indicated from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

Findings and Results
The researcher also divided this part of this study to five sections with accordance of BALLI’s categories

**Difficulty of Language Learning**
The data shows that a high percentages (66.7%) of the students agreed that “it is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand” while only 5.6% of the respondent strongly disagreed about the same item. A large percentage of the students (58.3%) also agreed that “I believe I will ultimately learn to speak English language very well.” Likewise, (55.6%) agreed that “Some languages are easier to learn than others”. Perhaps this result is due to the students’ awareness of their own language –Arabic- because it is very difficult to learn if it is compared with some other languages. Furthermore, the data show that 52.8% of the students disagreed that “Learning English language is difficult’ which seems to reflect awareness of the difficulty of their own mother tongue. This indicates the difficulty of language learning for some students is a case of comparison with the participants’ own language.
The Language Learning Beliefs of Arab ESL Students

Al-Zubaidi & Sazalli

Figure 1. The difficulty of Language Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Q2</th>
<th>Q3</th>
<th>Q4</th>
<th>Q5</th>
<th>Q6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Foreign Language Aptitude

Ninety six (69.4%) of the participants agreed that “Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language” while almost half of that percentage (36.1%) agreed that “It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.” On the other hand, 61.1% disagreed that “People who are good at Mathematics and Science are not good at learning foreign languages” while 61.1% agreed that “Some people are born with a special ability that helps them to learn a foreign language”.

Figure 2 shows that 56.6% of all students agreed that “People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent”, “It is easy for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one” and “My people (people from my own country) are good at learning foreign languages” respectively. Furthermore, the data show almost half of the participants (47.2%) disagreed that “Females are better than males at learning foreign language”.

Figure 3. Foreign Language Aptitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q7</th>
<th>Q8</th>
<th>Q9</th>
<th>Q10</th>
<th>Q11</th>
<th>Q12</th>
<th>Q13</th>
<th>Q14</th>
<th>Q15</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Nature of Language Learning

Most (66.7%) of the students agreed that “Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects”, whereas only (33.3%) agreed that “Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translation”. In addition, more than half (52.8%) agreed that “It is necessary to know a foreign languages culture in order to speak the language” and half of the students (50%) agreed that “It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country”. In this section the data show that the students have good knowledge of the nature of language learning and foreign language acquisition.

Learning and Communication Strategies

In this section the data shows that half of the participants (50%) strongly agreed that “In order to master foreign languages, it is important to repeat and practice a lot” and 66.7% agreed that “It is OK to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language.” Besides that 63.9% of the responses agreed that “If I heard someone speaks English, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language”. On the other hand, 41.7 % disagreed that “If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later”. Whereas, more than half of the students (% 52.8) agreed that “In order to master foreign languages, it is important to practice in the language laboratory”. This demonstrates that there is no consensus about clear strategies, but there is a need for practice and use of modern language labs. Figure 4
Motivations and Expectations
In this last section concerning the motivation and expectation of beliefs about the language learning, the data showed that (61.1%) of the students agreed that “I would like to learn English so that I can get to know native speakers of English better.” And (58.3%) agreed that “If I get to speak English very well, I will have many opportunities to use it”. In addition (55.6%) of the students agreed that “The people from my country think that it is important to speak a foreign language”, whereas, (38.9%) agreed and the same percentage strongly agreed about the statement “If I learn to speak English very well, it will help me to get a good job. The data in this section show that student’s are generally optimistic and have high expectations about mastering the English language.

Figure 5. Motivation and Expectations
Conclusion
This study found that Arab undergraduate students who are studying in Malaysia have expressed their beliefs about language learning in accordance with the five areas of the BALLI’s questionnaire. The results showed that the Arab students disagree that learning English language is difficult, a response that might be the result of their awareness of the difficulty of their own mother tongue. This indicates that the difficulty of language learning for some students is a case of comparison with the participant's own language. The study also demonstrated that high percentages of the participants agree that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.

Regarding the nature of the language learning section of the questionnaire, the results show that the Arab students have a good knowledge about the nature of language learning and foreign language acquisition. This might be due to the fact that these Arabic speaking students have a native language that is itself complex in three main respects as compared to other languages. First, the alphabet is totally different. Second, the writing in Arabic is done from right to left. Finally, the structure in terms of syntax is more complex than English. In terms of learning and communication strategies the study confirmed there is no consensus about clear strategies, but there is a need for practice and the use of modern language labs. Finally, the study showed that Arab students are optimistic and had high expectations about acquiring the English language. This maybe because they feel that English will help them to become better acquainted with native English speakers as well getting better jobs.

About the author:
Prof. Dr. Khairi Obaid. Al-Zubaidi, (Applied Linguistics) University of Northern Colorado, U.S.A. M.A: University of La Verne, California, U.S.A. Worked at University of Baghdad, Amman University, Sultan Qaboos University and currently at Language Academy, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) International Campus, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. His research interest is in applied linguistics, Cultural studies, Academic Writing, Media Literacy and Translation.

References


Heinzmann, Sybille (2009). "Girls are better at language learning than boys": Do stereotypic beliefs about language learning contribute to girls' higher motivation to learn English in primary school? Bulletin VALS, 89, 19-36.


Wudthayagorn, Jirada, (2009). Gaps and Mismatches between ESP Teachers’ and Students’ Beliefs about English Language Learning, 7th International Language for Specific Purposes. Kuala Lumpur, on 4-5 May.
Methods Used in Teaching English at Junior High Schools in Central Java

Abdurrachman Faridi
English Department of State University of Semarang

Abstract

English as a compulsory foreign language to learn in Indonesia, has an important role in our education. In the teaching learning processes, teachers at schools have the authority to select methods which support the learning objectives. This study is aimed at mapping the English teaching processes, identifying, and deciding whether the English teaching methods used by the teachers of Junior High School in Central Java were appropriate or not. The research used descriptive qualitative method. The data were collected through classroom observations, field note and documentation (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007: 80). The result showed that they were only 27.8%. Teachers at junior high schools using the teaching methods which support learning objectives, while the most popular methods used were grammar translation, communicative language teaching, and three phase technique.

Keywords: English teaching process, teaching methods, learning objectives
Introduction

Related to the global communication era where English is used in most aspects of media, the ability to use this international language either in the form of oral or written is unavoidable. When this condition is applied to our teaching learning process, there is a moral inquiry intended to English teachers to teach this subject in a better, effective and efficient way. As stated by Muchith (2008: 113), teachers’ responsibility is to choose and use the appropriate method to create a better, effective, and efficient teaching learning process. By applying a good method of teaching English to the students, teachers can develop students’ skills and the result of learning objectives can be improved. To do this, teachers competence must also developed. The Act No. 14 Year 2005 (1:10) explains that English teachers in every level of education must have a knowledge about English linguistic aspects (linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategies), understand spoken and written English, and understand receptive and productive skills communicatively.

One of problems faced by the teachers in teaching is how to use the right methodology. Not every teacher has skills in developing learning materials themselves and applying the suitable learning methods. This condition affects the application of School Based Curriculum in the field. Some teachers slavishly deliver the material based on books formats without considering the students’ ability and it will affect the learning result accordingly. Ideally, the teachers need to know teaching arts rather than theoretical skills in delivering the material to their students. The longer the teaching experience, the better theoretical skills the teacher has, and this is inclusive of arts of teaching. Surahman (1973: 19) in Nurdin (2004) about model of arts and science in teaching.


A teacher’s competence, as an individual capability can be seen through his teaching performance. Having the same method, the result achieved by the students can be different, this is because the teaching process is affected by many factors like the arts of teaching which varies from person to person.

Brown as quoted by Sardiman (1996), teachers’ responsibilities and roles are to comprehend and develop the teaching material. Comprehending the material means understanding holistically and comprehensively. Develop means provide, adjust and explain the material to the students and make them understand. However, the fact shows that teachers in the field, have not developed the teaching materials to be adjusted to the students’ ability.
Review of Related Literature

One of language study areas in English teaching is the use of methodology. For example, when the students are expected to be able to communicate using the target language, the teacher as a facilitator has to use appropriate teaching methods which highlight the oral activity. The following is an example of a research using certain teaching methods.

Mukaromah (2008) in her study entitled The Application of Drama Method in Improving English Achievement of the Seventh Grade Students of SMP Negeri 2 Paciran Lamongan discusses that method includes some activities and information which are designed by teachers to help students to learn. The teaching learning process will be creative if the teacher gives students opportunities to participate. When the students’ English achievement is low, this is assumed because they do not participate in the teaching learning process. Sometimes, the teacher is communicating with the students while he is only sitting on the chair all the time. It becomes a different atmosphere when he is applying a drama method acted by the students in front of the class.

Shortly, it can be explained that (1) the application of drama method may become an alternative for teachers to improve students’ English achievement in more interesting and fun learning situation, and (2) the English learning by using drama method can be applied to improve students’ activeness in the class and increase their self confidence.

Teaching and Learning Method

The word method comes from methodos (Greek) means a road or a way. Related to learning, method is a way used by teachers in managing information as fact, data, or concept in teaching learning process which may happen in a strategy. Because of that, method is meant a way to do something and learning method is meant a way used by teachers in delivering the material to students effectively based on the time allocated so the result will be maximum (Thoifuri, 2007). Other words, method is a technique used by teacher to teach or to give a material to students in the class so the material can be understood and used well. In learning, method is also meant as a way to reach an aim. In line with the definition above, it can be concluded that method is a good way to reach an intention. In this case, a method needs: aim, content, process and teaching learning activity, tool, time allocation, material type, students’ and teachers’ ability as well.

Shortly, a teaching method includes three activities. They are preparation, presentation, and evaluation. Each level has specific activities. Preparation step done by teachers at home. It proves that teaching method has a wide range, including teachers’ activities in reaching goals. Winarno in Suryosubroto (2002:148) exclaims that teaching method is a presentation way or how a material is given to students at school technically.

Method is one of tools to reach an objective. By using method accurately, it is expected that the teacher can reach learning objectives. A teacher has the right to choose and decide what method will be used so that learning activity may run effectively and efficiently.

Teachers’ Competency and Roles in English Learning

A teacher’s professional competency is a set of ability to do teaching responsibilities. Teachers are expected to be able to manage learning system including: defining goal, choosing material priority, choosing and using a method, choosing and using learning source, and also
choosing and using learning media (Uno, 2010: 18-9). It means that teachers must have good knowledge in their fields, understand methodology, have theoretical concept, and choose method in teaching learning process. In a teaching learning process, teachers’ competence will affect whether or not the material can be delivered to the students. Teaching method will also affect students’ motivation and attitude to a learning program. Based on Government Decree No. 19/2005 National Education System VI, 28 (3), teachers should have pedagogic competency that is a set of ability related to the teaching learning interaction between teacher and students in a class including material explanation, teaching-learning method, presentation, giving and answering questions, class management, and evaluation.

The Standard of Competence in English curriculum in most level will include the four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Krashen (2000) and Spolsky (1989) propose a concept that language learning will be successful if it is supported by unity between sufficient language model and environment where the language used. It means that language skills must be integrated. After students get sufficient language use model in listening and reading, then they are trained to speak and write. This adequate model will aid language process because students in low anxiety situation produce the language which they are learning (Krashen, 2002).

**Research Methodology**

This research uses descriptive qualitative method. It aims to describe a situation, characteristic, quality, or achievement level. Furthermore it is used to identify, explain, and elaborate (Saleh, 2008: 3-4).

**Population and Sample**

The population of this research covers state junior high schools English teachers and students (SMPN) in Central Java. Because of the limited time and budget, not all English teachers of state junior high schools are observed. For practicability, the area of observation (Central Java) is divided into six (6) areas based on ex Karesidenan (district) namely: Semarang, Pati, Surakarta, Kedu, Banyumas and Pekalongan, where three (3) schools in every area are randomly taken as sample. The total sample is eighteen (18) teachers. Shortly the sampling technique used is purposive random sampling.

**Technique of Collecting Data**

Source of data was the interaction between teacher and students in English learning. The data were method used in teaching English and teaching learning process. The techniques used were observation, field note and documentation (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 80).

**Technique of Analyzing Data**

There were three technique analyzing data used in this study. First, the data of English learning process were observed then mapped to find a clearer description. Second, methods used
during learning process were identified. Third, the methods were decided in terms of appropriateness.

Aspects analyzed in detail were:

a. Learning process during teachers interacted with students during the learning
b. The teacher’s skill in using teaching method in learning
c. Identification of teaching method used by the teachers
d. Appropriateness between teaching method and learning objective.

From the analysis, the conclusion was drawn about English teaching method with learning objectives and explained whether the teaching method used by the teachers were appropriate or not.

Result and Discussion

**English Learning**

Not all of learning processes done by the English teachers in Junior High School in Central Java were appropriate to the learning objectives. For example, a teacher taught students about degrees of comparison but the material should have been recount text based on the lesson plan. So, the material taught was not appropriate to the learning objective that is students are able to identify, get the information, and create a recount text. In this case, between planning and learning process was inappropriate.

Learning process was also inappropriate with the learning objective when there was a teacher who was intended to the method used without applying techniques in that method and ignored the result achieved by students in learning. For example, a teacher used grammar translation method but he did not lead students with any technique in that method to tell a narrative text as a learning objective.

**English Teachers’ Educational Background**

Junior High School teachers must have educational background minimum D-IV or S1 degree of study program which is in line with the subject taught, and achieved from an accredited study program (Educational Minister Decree No.16 Year 2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Educational Background</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>S1 English Education</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>61.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>S1 English Literature</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>S1 Transfer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>S1 Open University</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>D2 English Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.1 shows that the biggest percentage of English teachers’ education background in Junior High School in Central Java is S1 English Education, 61.1 %. With this percentage, it should reflect better teaching skill among others. How precise the teaching method used in learning process directly will affect a teacher’s teaching skill. Because during the lecture, they must have got pedagogic knowledge about the use of teaching method to students compared to others.

Meanwhile, for graduates having the same percentage, 11.1 %, are S1 English Literature, S1 Transfer, and S1 Open University. The least percentage is D2 English Education, 5.6 %. Based on the data above, there is one teacher who had not fulfilled the qualification requirement, D2 English Education, deals with Educational Minister Decree No. 16 Year 2007.

**Teaching Period**

Teachers having experience will feel easier in facing students’ problems in teaching learning process related to the subject material. Moreover they can motivate and support students and also empowers their skill. In some cases, teachers having longer teaching period will be expert in doing learning compared to the new ones.

**Table 2. The Percentage of English Teachers’ Teaching Period**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Teaching Period (Year)</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 displays the English teachers’ teaching period in Junior High School in Central Java. The biggest percentage is 27.7 % with the teaching period 1-5 years. There are two groups having the same percentage, 22.2 %, they are group 6-10 years and group 26-30 years. However, group 11-15 years has the percentage 16.7 %. The least percentage, 5.6%, owned by two groups, they are group 16-20 years and 21-25 years. It can be indicated that teachers having a good teaching skill are those who have taught more than 15 years. It happens because longer teachers teach more methods they use. So, they are so innovative to use the most appropriate method to reach learning objective.
Teaching Method Used

In this study, teaching methods usually used by the English teachers in Junior High School in Central Java are: grammar translation method, direct method, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), three phase technique, and Task Based Instruction Approach (TBIA).

Table 3. The Percentage of Teaching Methods Used

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Teaching Method Used</th>
<th>Appropriate to Learning Objectives</th>
<th>Inappropriate to Learning Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Teachers</td>
<td>Percentage (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Grammar translation method</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Direct method</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Three phase technique</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>TBIA</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 describes that there are five teaching methods used in English learning. Nevertheless, not all of the teachers used those methods based on the learning objectives. There are only five teachers using the teaching method based on the learning objectives. The teaching methods used were grammar translation method, CLT, and three phase technique. There were two teachers used grammar translation method with the percentage, 11.1%. With the same percentage, teachers used CLT as the appropriate teaching method to the students. On the other hand, there was only one teacher used three phase technique based on the learning objectives, with the percentage 5.6%.

From the comparison above, it shows that the total number of teachers using teaching method based on the learning objectives was so small. It clarifies that not all of the teachers used appropriate teaching method to the students so that it affected in failing to reach learning objectives.

Grammar Translation Method

There are some techniques applied to the students in this method: translation of a literary passage, reading comprehension questions, antonym synonyms, cognates, deductive application
of rule, fill-in-the-blanks, memorization, use words in sentences, and composition, however, only some technique used in the learning. For example, a teacher only used four techniques: translation, reading comprehension, fill in the blank, and antonym synonym.

In translation technique, there was a teacher asking the students to use dictionaries in translating difficult words. Another teacher helped the students to translate and write some difficult words in Indonesia. Technique used by those teachers was not so appropriate; students translated a reading text from English into Indonesia; in which the text focused in vocabulary and grammar. Then, reading comprehension technique used by the teacher was by asking the students to read a text loudly. This technique was not so appropriate because the students had to answer questions in English based on their understanding. The students should have been asked about the information in the text and related the text to their experiences. In antonym synonym technique, the students should have been given a word list, asked to find the antonym synonym, or asked to translate those words based on their experiences. However, the teacher just asked the students to translate by dictionary, so the process of word understanding did not run based on the techniques applied in this method. The examples above assume that not all of the teachers applied all techniques in grammar translation method correctly.

Some teachers used grammar translation method in learning, but it was not appropriate with the learning objectives. It was caused by the teachers who did not apply some activities and materials mentioned in the lesson plan. In speaking skill, a teacher only asked the students to read a text and find difficult words. This simple process was not followed by any technique to improve students’ speaking skill. So, the objective in the lesson plan, as students can retell their experiences, was not reached. In conclusion, although the teacher stated the objectives and method firmly in the lesson plan, he did not use the techniques in that method. This condition made the learning process was not related to the lesson plan.

**Direct Method**

The teaching techniques used in this method are: reading aloud, question and answer exercise, getting students to self correct, conversation practice, fill in the blank exercise, dictation, map drawing, and paragraph writing. In this study, a teacher could not apply direct method. It happened because he mostly used Indonesian in the teaching process. In reading skill, a teacher decided a learning objective to make students able to know descriptive text, understand its function, and identify the information. However, the learning process was not arranged well. The learning technique was also ignored. These reasons made direct method was used incorrectly. If this method applied based on the learning objectives, the students would understand the given material and automatically their reading skills improved.

**Three Phase Technique**

In this study, a teacher used three phase technique to teach writing about descriptive text. In pre reading, the teacher showed a cat picture so the students got information about the material. In reading, the students read a text with the teacher. In post reading, the teacher helped the students in identifying the information in the descriptive text. Based on the explanation related to the steps done by the teacher, the three phase technique used was based on the learning objectives.
Task Based Instruction Approach

All principles had been done by the teachers but it could not be said that they were successful in using Task Based Instruction Approach. It can be seen from the given material during learning process. In the lesson plan, a teacher firmly stated that the learning objectives of report text writing were that students could identify the main idea of report text, achieved information from the text, could compose a text, and capable in creating a paragraph with a certain title. In the learning practice, the teacher could not apply the technique or principle leading to the learning objectives correctly. The teacher tended to teach a material of comparison degrees and it could not contribute to the students’ writing skill. Because of the inappropriateness between the material and the learning objectives, the method’s role was not successful in the learning process although the technique or principle had been applied.

In summary, a teacher used teaching method which was not based on the learning objectives. This condition occurred because there was no appropriateness between teaching method and learning objectives, inappropriateness between teaching method used with the material given to the students, and the learning process was not relevant to the lesson plan.

The Appropriateness between Teaching Method with Learning Objectives

Table 4. The Percentage of Total Teacher Used Teaching Method Based on Learning Objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>The Appropriateness between Teaching Method with Learning Objectives</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Appropriate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Inappropriate</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the Table 4.4, it can be identified that only five out of 18 teachers used teaching method and appropriate to the learning objectives. So, the percentage of teachers using appropriate teaching method to the learning objectives was so small, 27.8 %. It means that those teachers applied appropriate method based on competency standard and standard competency of a skill. Some factors affecting teachers’ success in using teaching method are education background and teaching period.

Table 5. The Percentage of Teachers’ Education Background Using Teaching Method Based on Learning Objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Education Background</th>
<th>Numbers of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>S1 English Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>D2 English Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.5 informs that all teachers using teaching method which was based on the learning objectives were graduated from English Education Program both in D2 and S1 degree. There are four teachers graduated from S1 degree with the percentage 80% but there is only one teacher graduated from D2 degree with the percentage 20%. It is because they had been taught about teaching skill in how to teach English as a foreign language correctly so that they could teach by using appropriate method.

Table 6. The Percentage of Teachers’ Teaching Period Using Teaching Method Based on Learning Objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Teaching Period</th>
<th>Numbers of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Less than 15 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 illustrates that teachers having experience more than 15 years were successful in using teaching technique. There were three teachers with the percentage 60%. There were two teachers with the percentage 40% having teaching experience less than 15 years. It describes that between teaching period with teaching method based on learning objectives. Longer a teacher taught, better teaching method they used in learning. Teachers kept choosing what method which was appropriate to be used for students without ignoring the appropriateness to the learning objectives.

**Teaching Skill**

Teaching skill becomes very important in teachers’ duties and functions. Without a good teaching skill, a teacher can be innovative or creative to a material in the curriculum. One of the factors affecting teacher’s teaching skill is the use of appropriate teaching method. It means appropriate for students and material to reach the learning objectives.

**Conclusions and Suggestions**

Teaching methods used by the English teachers in Junior High School in Central Java were grammar translation method, direct method, communicative language teaching, three phase technique, and task based instruction approach. An appropriateness of teaching method use to the learning objectives really impacts to the teachers’ teaching skill. It is suggested that the teachers should apply various teaching methods and based on the learning objectives to improve students’ English skills.
Methods Used in Teaching English at Junior High Schools in Central Java

About the Author:

Dr. Abdurrachman Faridi, MPd is a lecturer in English department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Semarang State University (UNNES), Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia. His specialties are TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), English for Young Learners, English Language Teaching Across Curriculum and English for Business Purposes.

References


Cameron, L. (2001). Teaching Languages to Young Learners. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.


Government Decree No. 19/2005 National Education System VI, 28 (3)


The Pronunciation of the English Words Ending in ‘-ate’ in the Light of Spellophononetic Technique

Alim Sukrisno
English Department of State University of Semarang

Abstract

This article is concerned with the pronunciation of English words with ‘-ate’ endings. Though, generally speaking, English pronunciation is arbitrary and thus unpredictable due to their spellings, by relying on spellophononetic technique we can partially but accurately determine the pronunciation of certain groups of English words, including the ‘-ate’ ending words. Spellophononetic pattern supported by dictionary [Hornby, 2005] observation indicates that these words behave in three ways in their pronunciation. First, whenever they are adjectives or nouns, the ‘-ate’ should be pronounced as [-ǝt]; for example, accurate [ækyǝrǝt]. Second, whenever they are verbs, the ‘-ate’ should be pronounced as [-eIt]; for example, tolerate [təlǝrǝt]. Third, whenever this group of words consist of three or more syllables, the primary stress should be assigned to the third syllable counted backward from the ‘-ate’ syllable; for example, sophisticated [sǝ'fistıketId]. Minor deviations of these patterns exist. However, high level of accuracy (above 97%) of the pronunciation pattern is recorded. Given the high degree of predictability in the pronunciation of this word group, they lend themselves to the ease of learnibility and teachability in and outside the classrooms. Therefore, teachers and students of English alike can very much benefit from these observation findings.

Key Words: spelling, spellophononetic, pronunciation, and stress
Introduction
It is inevitable that those, non-native English people, who want to learn English by developing their listening, reading (aloud), and speaking, are always confronted with a notoriously difficult feature of English pronunciation. When they directly listen to English pronunciation or speak English without referring to English writing, the problem lies in the habit of recognizing and articulating English speech sounds. When they are familiar with English sounds and can copy the pronunciation of English native speakers or other people’s English speech, they can probably speak English, despite their inaccuracy of their pronunciation. The problem will be much harder and more complicated whenever we want to pronounce English words based on their orthographic representations. Here, we have to not only be familiar with English sounds, but we at the same time be confronted with the association of the English sounds in their written forms—better known as their spellings.

Talking about English spellings and their pronunciation is quite a taxing task for non-native speakers of English—say Indonesians. For Indonesians learning English, the association of English spelling and its pronunciation is quite notorious. This relationship is the major cause for difficulty, if not frustration for them. The apparent reason is that English pronunciation is arbitrary when it is related to the spelling of the word. Unlike English, the Indonesian language features a high degree of consistency between Indonesian spellings and their pronunciations. For example, in Indonesian, the spelling ‘-ng’in medial and final positions (note: ‘-ng’does not exist in initial position) must be pronounced as [ŋ]. Equally consistent in its pronunciation is the letters ‘a’ and ‘j’; in Indonesian they are always pronounced as [ʌ] and [dʒ]; for examples, ‘lalat’ (fly) [lʌlʌt] and ‘jarang’ (rare) [dʒʌɾʌŋ].

This ease of pronunciation is not available in learning English because of three apparent reasons; the spelling and its sound association, the presence of word or sentence stress, and the application of intonation in longer English utterances. Since in this article, the sound and its sound association have something to do with the topic of the present discussion, they will be touched on in a more detailed manner.

As regards the spelling of English and its sound representation, they pose the first hurdle in the pronunciation of English words. Let’s take, for example, the spelling ‘ng’in the following English words, ‘finger’, ‘singer’, and ‘danger’. As we can see, ‘finger’ is pronounced as [ˈfɪŋɡə], ‘singer’ as [ˈsɪŋɡə], and ‘danger’ [ˈdeŋɡə]. Therefore, the ‘-ng-’ represents completely different sounds and in turn it causes a problem for Indonesians or probably any other non-native speakers of English to learn English pronunciation.

One of the suprasegmental features called ‘stress’ poses another problem in pronouncing English words. Stress with its sub-level strengths exists in English, while in Indonesian it is not a common feature in the pronunciation of Indonesian words. Stress as part of English pronunciation has three characteristics that further complicate non-native speakers of English in their effort to make sense of English spelling and its sound realization in pronunciation. The three frustrating features of English stress are that: (1) it is arbitrary, meaning that there is no way of judging in what syllable dominant and less dominant stresses are assigned, (2) it shifts from one syllable to another in related words, and (3) the shifting of the stress is often followed by vowel, diphthong or consonant change. Let’s take an example of how these three characteristics of stress manifest themselves in pronunciation:

- admire [ədˈmaɪər]
- admiration [ədˈmaɪərəˈʃn]
admirable  [ˈædmərəbl]
admirability  [ˈædmərəbɪləti]

The above related words undergo changes of stress and their segmental features. Once we know the primary stress of the word admire, we cannot guarantee that we can maintain the stress to remain on the same syllable when we derive a new related word. Thus, it goes without saying that trying to pronounce each of the words above will need a great deal of effort. Whereas, failing to identify the stress and the segmental changes in the new word will more often than not cause hesitation which usually ends in improper pronunciation. Looking the word up in the dictionary is the best solution to this frustrating problem. But the question is: how many times do we have to check the pronunciation of the same word or maybe other English words whose pronunciations escape our immediate articulatory knowledge and capacity?

Addressing the problem above, this article offers a partial solution, that is by applying a technique as suggested by Sukrisno (2012) called alphophononetics or spellophononetics. By relying on this technique, at least English words ending in ‘-ate’ can be partially pronounced more accurately without having to check each word in the dictionary. As to how spellophonetic technique works in predicting the pronunciation of certain English word groups including ‘-ate’ ending word group, below a special section will be devoted to it.

Alphophononetic or Spellophonetic Technique

This is a completely new technique aimed at helping learners of English to arrive at a better or more accurate pronunciation by simply relying on the way an English word is spelled. In fact, the term alphophononic or spellophononic is a new English word formed by means of clipping and blending techniques. Alpho- stands for alphabet, while spello- refers to spelling. ‘-phono-’ refers to phonology. It is a sub-branch of linguistics which is intended ‘to discover general principles that underlie the patterning of sounds in human language’ (Dobrovolsky and Katamba, 1996). Meanwhile, Clark and Yallop (1990) provide the definition of phonology as a science that is ‘concerned with the organization of speech within specific languages, or with the systems and patterns of sounds that occur in particular languages.’ The last syllables of the word is ‘-netic’ which is the clipped form of another sub-branch of linguistics, i. e. phonetics. Here phonetics refers to articulatory phonetics, which, according to Ramelan (2005), studies speech sounds from the point of view of their mechanism of production. Based on the clipping and blending of the above words, Sukrisno (2012) defines ‘spellophononic’ ‘as a technique of determining the pronunciation of a word by looking at the way the word is spelled.’ This means that we can partially predict the sounds of a certain combination of letters in a word of certain word groups, arrange the sounds phonologically and then articulate them based on the principle of sound production.

Spellophonetic technique works from the back of a word to front or by noticing a certain spelling pattern of the last syllable of a word and then determine its pronunciation. The endings of words subject to spellophonetic prediction in their pronunciation can be of different parts of speech, such as noun, verb, and adjective. Spellophonetic technique can also determine the pronunciation of inflectional morphemes attached at the end of nouns or verbs, such as past participial morpheme ‘-ed’, third-person marker ‘-e/s’ in verbs, or plural marker ‘-es’ in nouns. The pronunciation of certain word endings are predictable when we look at them spellophonetically. Let’s take the word ‘entities’ as an example. This word consists of two morphemes, entity as the root of the word and ‘-es’ as a plural marker. Using spellophononetics,
we can accurately predict the pronunciation of the the penultimate syllable ‘-ti’, the last syllable ‘-ty’, and the plural marker ‘-es’ of the word, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>entity</th>
<th>entities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ɛntɔt]</td>
<td>[ɛntɔtɪz]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Spellophononetics (Sukrisno, 2005 and 2012) dictates us that any words ending in –ity behave consistently in the pronunciation of this word ending (-ity). The vowel of the penultimate syllable must be pronounced as [ɛ], and that of the last syllable (-ty) must be pronounced as [ɪ]. Whenever this word is pluralized, the pronunciation of the plural marker can also be determined, that is the sound [-z], because the plural marker ‘-e/s’ materialized itself phonologically as [-z] in its articulation. This rule applies to any other English words ending in –ity; thus ‘realities’, ‘audacity’, modalities, etc. are respectively pronounced as re[a]ltɪz, auda[stɪ], and moda[ltɪz].

Apart from becoming a partial predictor of pronunciation, spellophononetics can also predict dominant stress patterns of a certain group of English words. Let’s take some words ending in –ity again. By looking at the spelling –ity at the end of any English words, we can accurately predict that the primary stress of the words is on the third syllable from behind (from the last syllable of the word). Therefore, the above words will receive the strong stress as follows: re’ality, au’dacity, mo’dalities, etc.

As far as this present observation is concerned, the word group under discussion, that is, words ending in ‘-ate’, is also eligible for spellophononetic treatment. However, before discussing the result of the observation on the words final-syllabically spelled in –ate, the concept of English sounds and their orthographic and phonetic representation will be presented. This is due to the fact that in describing the pronunciation of a word in written form we have to use phonetic symbols.

**English Sounds and Their Phonetic Symbols**

The use of phonetic symbols in describing sounds is simply a must in an article dealing with pronunciation. Different authors or different dictionaries differ slightly in symbolizing sounds. For example, Hornby (2005) uses the symbol [e] to represent the English front vowel, such as found in the word ‘fellow’ [‘felɔː], while The Macquarie Dictionary (1990) and Ramelan (2005) use the phonetic symbol [ɛ] for the same sound. The dictionary used as the main source of data of this investigation is Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (Hornby, 2005), whereas the use of Ramelan’s (2005) symbols is preferred here for a certain practical reason.

Though this article will to a greater extent involve the use of phonetic symbols which represent the pronunciation of the syllabic ending ‘-ate’, other phonetic symbols will also be used. Therefore, so as not to create misunderstanding in reading the symbols, the sets of phonetic symbols introduced by both Hornby and Ramelan would be introduced. These symbols represent the segmental phonemes of the English language, consisting of vowels, diphthongs and consonants. The sounds are involved in the description of the pronunciation of ‘-ate’ spelling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Phonetic Symbols of English Sounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hornby’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɪ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɛ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[æ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arab World English Journal
ISSN: 2229-9327
In fact, the way of symbolizing sounds in phonetic symbols among authors and dictionary makers do not differ too much. Between Hornby’s and Ramelan’s symbols, for example, only several symbols are different; [əʊ] (H) vs. [oʊ] (R), [e] (H) vs. [ɛ] (R), [j] (H) vs. [y] (R), etc. They share the rest of the symbols. In this article, the symbols frequently used to describe the pronunciation of the ‘-ate’ spelling in English words are the symbols [ə] and [ɔ]. To a lesser extent, the symbols [a:] and [i] are also used.

Collection of English Words Ending in ‘-ate’

Exhaustive dictionary (Hornby, 2005) observation on the words ending in ‘-ate’ produces the following results:

Table 2. Groups of words ending in ‘-ate’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syllabicity</th>
<th>Words ending in ‘-ate’</th>
<th>Total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two-syllabic</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-syllabic</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Altogether, there are 607 words in the dictionary. Of the 607 words, 37 of them are two-syllabic, and the rest are multi-syllabic words consisting of 3 or more syllables. Syllabicity of the words ending in ‘-ate’ will produce different segmental and suprasegmental consequences when they are pronounced. Using spellophonetics, it is assumed that all multi-syllabic words ending in ‘-ate’ behave in two ways: 1). They always receive the primary stress on the third syllable counted from the final syllable of each word, and 2). The last syllable, that is syllable ‘-ate’, must be pronounced as [ə] whenever they are verbs, but as [ɔ] whenever they are adjectives or nouns.

To show a few random examples of the prediction, we can have the following words:
1. eradicate (verb) [’ɪərdɪkeɪt ]
2. delegate (noun) [’delɪɡət ]
3. appropriate  (adj.)  [ˈproʊprɪtɪ]

With regard to 2 and 3, spellophonetics predicts that 2 (delegate) must be pronounced as [ˈdɛlɪɡet] and 3 (appropriate) as [ˈprəʊprɪtɪ] whenever they both serve as verbs. However, whether this theory of pronunciation holds true to the rest of the words ending ‘-ate’ has to be proved. Therefore, the sections below will discuss such phenomena.

The Segmental and Suprasegmental Behaviour of the English Words Ending in ‘-ate’

When coming across any English words ending in ‘-ate’ and having to pronounce them, we can to some greater extent rely on the spellophonetic technique. Spellophonetic patterns dictate us that this word ending can be treated in two ways: segmentally and suprasegmentally. Segmental treatment tells us how to determine the phonetic reseprentation of this particular word ending in terms of its articulation. In written discussion this articulation is represented by phonetic symbols as has been introduced in the previous section. Suprasegmental feature appearing on this word ending is the articulatory realization of the stress pattern. The stress pattern referred here is mainly the primary stress, and not the other kinds of stress, secondary and tertiary ones, which, in this discussion is represented by the symbol [‘.’].

In order to justify the spellophonetic prediction on the English words ending in ‘-ate’ provided in the preceding section, here are the findings of this word group based on a dictionary observation (Hornby, 2005). These facts will be discussed in terms of their segmental and suprasegmental representations.

Segmental Realization of the Syllable ‘-ate’

As recorded earlier, there are 37 two-syllabic words and 570 multi-syllabic words ending in ‘-ate’. The 37 two-syllabic words consist of 35 verbs, 1 adjective, and 1 noun. Let’s see the whole words in the following table.

Table 3. Two-syllabic words ending in ‘-ate’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Two-syllabic words</th>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>'aerate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>'castrate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>col'late</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>con'flate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>cre'mate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>de'bate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>de'flate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>dic'tate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>di'late</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>do'nate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>'hydrate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hy'drate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>fel'late</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>frus'trate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>ges'tate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'gestate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>gy'rate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>in'flate</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the ‘-ate’ spellings in the listed
In terms of the syllables spelled in ‘-ate’ occurring in the above-listed words, a certainty of pronunciation of their segmental property of the ending ‘-ate’ is obtained; that is, it must be pronounced as [ət] regardless of whether the word is a verb, adjective, or noun.

This is different from the treatment applied in the multi-syllabic words. The ‘-ate’ is pronounced as [ət] whenever the words are verbs and as [ə] whenever the words are adjectives or nouns. As mentioned earlier, among the 570 words ending in ‘-ate’, 416 are verbs; 96 are adjectives; and 58 are nouns.

The dictionary reveals that the syllable ‘-ate’ in the 416 verbs is always pronounced as [-et]. However, in the case of adjectives, deviations occur. Among the 96 adjectives, there are two phenomena worth noticing. First, in all adjectives which are formed with the addition of past participial marker (-ed), such as found in the words sophisticated, obligated, opinionated, etc., the ‘-ate’ in this kind of adjectives must be pronounced as [-et]. There are 25 words of this kind. Therefore, a certainty of the pronunciation of the ‘-ate’ in this type of words is confirmed. Second, all adjectives other than past participially formed ones must be pronounced as [-ə] except one word, that is Latinate. The ‘-ate’ in Latinate is pronounced as [-et].

In the case of the 58 multi-syllabic nouns ending in ‘-ate’, three phenomena of pronunciation also occur. First, the ‘-ate’ in the majority of this type of words is always pronounced as [-ə]. Second, there are 13 nouns ending in ‘-ate’: apostate, carbohydrate, caliphate, candidate, carbonate, concentrate, distillate, magistrate, neonate, particulate, potentate, reprobate, and sophisticate, whose ‘-ate’ ending is pronounced as [-et]. The ‘-ate’ ending in the words ‘candidate’ and ‘particulate’ share a double pronunciation; respectively, they can be pronounced as either [ˈkændɪdeɪt] or [ˈkændɪdeɪt], and [pəˈtrɪkəlɪt] or [pəˈtrɪkəlɪt] among authors and dictionary makers. Third, two words ending in ‘-ate’, ka'rate [koˈrætə] and pomegranate [ˈpəʊmɡrænət], behave differently in the pronunciation of their ‘-ate’ endings.

In conclusion, based on the findings in the last three sections, we can be more accurate in pronouncing the ‘-ate’ ending of the words belonging to nouns, adjectives and verbs. The ‘-ate’
ending should be pronounced as either [-et] or [-ə] except for the words \textit{ka\textasciitilde{r}ate} [kə\textasciitilde{r}a\textasciitilde{t}ə] and '\textit{pomegranate}' [\textit{pəməgrənət}].

\textbf{Supra-segmental Realization of the ‘-ate’ in Two- and Multi-syllabic Words}

What is meant by suprasegmental realization here is the primary stress of the words ending in ‘-ate’ represented by the phonetic symbol ‘\textit{]}’, for example, ‘\textit{dedicate}'. The findings of this observation reveal a very interesting suprasegmental phenomenon with regard to the stress pattern of the words ending in ‘-ate’.

As mentioned earlier, there are 416 verbs, 96 adjectives and 58 nouns ending in ‘-ate’. How this type of words would be stressed in their pronunciation will be discussed in the subsections below.

First, with regards to the 416 verbs above, spellophononetic technique provides a very accurate prediction of their strong stress pattern. When we come across any verb whose last syllable is spelled in ‘-ate’, we can predict that the primary stress falls on the third syllable from behind. That is to say that if we chose a verb of this kind randomly, we can always accurately predict that it will be stressed on the third syllable from behind, that is from the ‘-ate’ syllable moving backward. Let’s take some multi-syllabic verbs randomly, for examples, \textit{regulate} and \textit{contaminate}, or any other verbs ending in ‘-ate’. These words will be stressed as follows: \textit{regulate (v)} and \textit{contaminate}). However, when we particularly talk about verbs, a deviation of this pattern occurs. This is supported by the finding of the dictionary observation. Of the 416 verbs collected, only three words deviate from the spellophononetic prediction. The three deviating verbs are \textit{oxygenate} [\textit{ɔksɪdʒənət}], \textit{under\textasciitilde{r}ate}, and \textit{under\textasciitilde{st}ate}. Thus, 99.27\% accuracy of stress assignment is obtained. However, the last two verbs, \textit{under\textasciitilde{r}ate}, and \textit{under\textasciitilde{st}ate} are not original verbs but prefixed ones. Thus, if these two prefixed verbs are omitted, there is only one verb deviating from the predicted pattern. The accuracy of stress becomes 99.75\%.

Second, if we apply the above spellophononetic prediction to multi-syllabic adjectives, the result will be more or less the same. The primary stress falls on the second syllable before the syllable ‘-ate’. Thus, randomly chosen, the adjectives, \textit{subordinate}, \textit{ultimate}, or any other multi-syllabic adjectives, are stressed as follows: \textit{su\textasciitilde{b}ordinate} and \textit{\textasciitilde{ult}imate}. Similar to the case of multi-syllabic verbs ending in ‘-ate’, this present dictionary observation demonstrates some deviations. Of the 96 adjectives collected from the dictionary, there are only two adjectives; mainly \textit{in\textasciitilde{c}arnate} [\textit{ɪn\textasciitilde{k}aːnət}] and \textit{in\textasciitilde{q}orate} [\textit{ɪn\textasciitilde{k}wə\textasciitilde{r}ət}], which are penultimately stressed. In terms of percentage, the accuracy of spellophononetic prediction is 97.79\%.

Third, spellophononetic prediction on the multi-syllabic nouns ending in ‘-ate’ is the same as that applied to verbs and adjectives; that is on the third syllable counted backward from the syllable ‘-ate’. Therefore, randomly chosen, the nouns \textit{in\textasciitilde{v}ertebrate}, and \textit{consulate} are primarily stressed as such. Deviation of this stress patterns exists, however.

As mentioned previously, there are 58 multi-syllabic nouns ending in ‘-ate’. Five words, mainly \textit{appelate}, \textit{\textasciitilde{carbohydrate}}, \textit{ka\textasciitilde{r}ate}, \textit{patriarchate} \textit{\textasciitilde{p}ε\textasciitilde{t}ra\textasciitilde{t}a\textasciitilde{t}}, and \textit{pomegranate} are stressed differently from the spellophononetic pattern. In terms of the percentage of accuracy, this word group is the lesser one, but it still has 91.37\% level of stress accuracy if we pronounce the words guessingly.

Fourth, concerning the bi-syllabic words ending in ‘-ate’, spellophononetic technique works less accurately. The primary stress mostly is assigned to the last syllable of each word; for
example, the words lo'cate and mu'tate. As listed in the table above, there are 37 bi-syllabic words ending in ‘-ate’. At a closer look at the list, we find out that among these 37 words, there are 9 words stressed on the first syllable of each word. These nine words are: 'aerate (v), 'castrate (v), 'hydrate/hy'drate (v), ges'tate/gestate (v), 'mandate (v, n), 'probate (v, n), 'prostrate (adj.), and 'update (n). If we put this figure into percentage, 78.37% of the 37 words are stressed on the first syllables. The rest (24.32%) of the words are stressed on the last/second syllable. However, the words 'hydrate/hy'drate (v) and ges'tate/gestate (v) demonstrate two versions of stress.

Conclusions

By using spelphononetic techniques, the segmental and suprasegmental realization of the words ending in ‘-ate’ can be predictably determined. Segmental realization refers to the pronunciation of the ending ‘-ate’ of the words and suprasegmental realization refers to the primary stress pattern of the multi-syllabic words ending in ‘-ate’.

Supporting the spelphononetic prediction, a dictionary inventory demonstrates that 568 (98.59%) multi-syllabic words are stressed on the second syllable counted backward from the ‘-ate’ syllable. The rest (1.42%) of the words deviate from the predicted pattern. These words are 'oxygenate ['ɒksɪdʒəneɪt] (v), in'carnate [ɪn'kɑːrneɪt] (adj.), in'quorate [ɪn'kwɔːrət] (adj.), appelate [ə'pelət] (n), carbohydrate [ˈkɑːbəʊ'hɑːdreɪt] (n), ka'rate [ko'rɑːt] (n), patriarchate ['pærɪtrɪkət] (n), and pomegranate ['pɒmɪɡrænət] (n). As regards bi-syllabic words, out of the 37 words, the majority (78.37%) are stressed on the last syllable, while the rest (24.32%) amounting to 9 words are stressed on the first syllable of each word.

In terms of segmental realization, the ending ‘-ate’ in all verbs and past participially-formed adjectives are pronounced as [ɛt]. The remaining adjectives, except for one word Latinate ['lætmɪt], are pronounced as [ə]. The ‘-ate’ in the 58 multi-syllabic nouns is pronounced as [ə], while the rest (13) are pronounced as [ɛt].

All in all, it can be concluded that the stress pattern of the words ending in ‘-ate’ and the pronunciation of ‘-ate’-ending verbs, adjectives and nouns can be accurately predicted. Owing to the high degree of predictability of this group of English words, such a phenomenon of pronunciation contributes itself to learnability and teachability in and outside the classroom. Teachers and learners of English should benefit from these findings.

About the author
Alim Sukrisno is currently a lecturer at the English Department of State University of Semarang, Indonesia. Alim Sukrisno holds a M.A. from Macquarie University. His fields of interest are phonetics and lexical studies.

References


The Female’s Masculinities against Siamese Patriarchal Systems in Elizabeth Hand’s Anna 
And The King

Anna Sriastuti
Satya Wacana School of Foreign Language

Abstract

By not giving voice and value to women’s opinions, responses and writings, men have therefore suppressed the female, define what it means to be feminine, and therefore devoiced, devalued, and trivialized what it means to be a woman. As femininity is mostly related to women for women are labeled as extensions of men, mirrors of men, devices for showing men off, and also devices for helping men get what they want, women’s position is inferior to men. This study discusses the female’s masculinities through the portrayal and life experiences of the main female characteristics, Anna Leonowens, as her protests against the Siamese patriarchal systems that abundant her life as a career woman and also the oppressed lives of Siamese women in Elizabeth Hand’s novel Anna and the King. Feminism and Deconstructions approaches will be applied to analyze Leonowens’ actions and reactions regarding to what Siamese patriarchal systems claim to be parts of masculine traits. Leonowens’ nationality, cultural and educational backgrounds as well as positions play significant roles in the novel. By opposing Leonowens’ ways of thinking to the King who represents the patriarchal system of Siam, Hand gives a new identity to women in struggling for gender equality in Siam.

Keywords: masculinity, femininity, patriarchy, feminism, deconstructions
Introduction

The social system of the patriarchal society is a system which enables men to dominate women in all social relations. The system is known in feminist discourse as ‘patriarchy’ - refers to the possession of phallus, which entails the possession of power. It is believed that in the patriarchal order of knowledge perpetuate in the patriarchal society, the kind of looking which results in ‘knowing’ is likely to be exploitative. Men see knowledge, in other words, as something to be mastered, in the way that women are to be mastered. (Ruthven,1984). Furthermore, it is mentioned that feminist criticism is moral because it sees that the one of the central problems of Western literature is that in much of women are not human beings, seat of consciousness. They are objects, who are used to facilitate, explain away, or redeem the project of men.

Beauvoir in *The Second Sex* (1949) establishes with great clarity the fundamental questions of modern feminism. When a woman tries to define herself, she starts by saying ‘I am a woman’. No man would do so. This fact reveals the basic asymmetry between the term ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’. Man defines the human, not woman. Women have been made inferiors and the oppression has been compounded by men’s beliefs that women are inferiors by nature. Woman is riveted into a lopsided relationship with man, he is the One, she is the Other. In line with Beauvoir, Madsen L. Deborah (2000) states that specific cultural values are tied to male interests such as the oppositions between rational (male) and emotional (female), and between nature (female) and civilization (male), women are defined as rendered invisible and silent, if they do not fit the patriarchal scheme. Outside the dominant definitions of male-dominated culture women exist only as insane, inarticulate, or irrelevant. In the matter of discourse, additionally, women have been fundamentally oppressed by a male-dominated language. A sociologist Robin Lakoff believes that women’s language actually is inferior, since it contains patterns of ‘weakness’ and ‘uncertainty’, focuses on the ‘trivial’, the frivolous, the unserious, and stresses personal emotion responses. Whatever encourages or initiates a free-play of meanings and prevents ‘closure’ is regarded as ‘female’. Male utterance, she argues, is ‘stronger’ and should be adopted by women if they wish to achieve social equality with men (Selden,1986).

The binary opposition of masculine and feminine traits are then concluded as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine Traits</th>
<th>Feminine Traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Vocal in speech</td>
<td>1. Silence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Consistent in one meaning</td>
<td>2. Going off into plurality of meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Relevant</td>
<td>4. Irrelevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Objective</td>
<td>5. Subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rational</td>
<td>6. Irrational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Focus on general matters</td>
<td>7. Focus on trivial matters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the feminist critics have employed wit to ‘deconstruct’ male-dominated ways of seeing. To deconstruct a discourse is to show how it undermines the philosophy it asserts, or the hierarchical opposition on which it relies. (Culler, 1983). Beauvoir concludes that women will achieve liberation only through their agency or positive actions in society.
“Anna and the King” is one of novel written by Elizabeth Hand which is enriched by cultural elements. It talks about a widow from England who was invited by King Rama IV in Thailand to tutor his children, wives and concubines the English language and to introduce them to the Great Britain customs. It explores much the way Leonowens gradually adapts to living in Siam and how her ways of thought and principles give big influences for those around her. On the other way around, the novel also shows Leonowens’ struggles to get through her life with her Siamese companions and lifestyle that gradually re-shape her personality, enabling her to come to grips with her husband’s death. Leonowens pursued her principles regarding to human rights and equalities as shown in many events of the story among them are her risky actions against unfair treatments to women. She felt outraged when she saw the beautiful young Burmese slave-girl Tuptim presented to the king as a gift from the subjugated king of Burma and her struggle to winning a case of a slave who tried to buy her own freedom. Leonowens’ concern and actions to defend women’s rights of equality deconstruct the patriarchal ideas that put women in a subordinate position to men.

Discussion
Silence is identical to femininity, as femininity to women. However, Leonowens seemed to be different. As an educated woman who knew much about how things supposedly went on, Leonowens always questioned something inappropriate. She could not remain silent when something went wrong, especially if she knew that she could do something about it.

Leonowens was being very vocal to the Prime Minister of Siam to demand her rights. The Prime Minister of Siam was the representative of the King himself who held the power towards a decision. As a woman yet a foreigner, Leonowens supposed to put high respect to him, at least, that was how the rule worked in Siam, where men had an absolute power toward women. Less awareness of Siamese culture is another factor for Leonowens’ concern was to get her rights of maintaining her privacy of her personal life and fulfillment of King’s promise of a house of her own. Leonowens persisted on her real goals showed her consistency and her demand of having the promising house outside the palace revealed the fact that Leonowens focused on general issues for a house is one of human basic needs and she was aware of it. Being a lady did not position Leonowens to accept any condition dictated to her. On the other hand, she set her own bargaining power which shows her power as a woman. Her protest was fruitful. She got what she wanted. Even in patriarchal society, where most power are owned by men, women carried masculine traits can excel.

“Behind them, tucked into a groove of rhododendrons, was a beautiful two-story house, in the Siamese style but built of faded rose-colored brick. Servants scurried in and out of its doors, already unpacking baskets full of Anna’s things.”

“Your Majesty,” she said, her eyes brimming. “I believe you’ve finally rendered me speechless.”

“I trust you’ll find ample spaces for engaging in English traditions,” said King Mongkut. “Even for growing of roses.” (p.114)
Leonowens’ authority in speech did not only appear once. She spoke for the La Ore-Jao Manga’s slave who had difficulty to buy her freedom. Leonowens could not ignore her conscience toward the injustice happened in front of her. She could not keep silent for she knew what had happened against the law. It was irrational and unfair for Anna that a slave, who deserved freedom for she had purchased it, was tortured and sentenced guilty. She tried very hard to release the slave, though she had to lose her wedding ring—the most precious thing that bound her feeling to her late husband. At the end, she succeeded. The slave was finally released.

The issue of slavery in Siam witnesses a fact that the ones carry out patriarchal values are not always men. La Ore-Jao Manga is an influential lady who adopted patriarchal values for she supported unfair treatment to women as commodities or objects. On the other hand, Leonowens again carried masculine traits of being logical and rational to detect and solve a problem. Leonowens’ vocal action seemed unstoppable. Tuptim, one of the King’s concubines, was accused of a traitorous act against the King, which was then sentenced guilty and got a death penalty. Leonowens’ thought that the accusation was too far and the punishment was unfair since what Tuptim did was just to love someone and devote her life for that person. What she did to defend a woman who was considered guilty for having an affair stole the public attention for then her action was rejected by the Siamese. It actually a narrow-minded thought when what she did was called irrational for what she objected was actually the death sentence since she was aware that to live was everyone’s right. A person with logical and objective ways of thinking will be able to view a problem not simply using emotion but ratio. And Leonowens had proven it.

The second example of Leonowens’ objectivity could be seen from the way she ‘woke’ the King after a great loss of Fa Ying’s death. Leonowen understood the loss felt by the King since she had experienced the same feeling for losing her husband. However, she thought that the way the King isolated himself from his family (other Royal children) was not good. As a King, he should not lose in his personal matter. That was why Anna tried to cheer him up. Leonowens’ decision to remind the King was quite rational. The King could not mourn too long since he had other responsibilities to do. His other Royal children and the nation needed him. Leonowens was able to rank the orders of importance. With her masculine traits inside her, she was able to wake King’s awareness of his duty of a King that he was not only a father of a dead daughter but a father for the whole nation. Her willingness to continue her life after her husband’s death showed the power of her ratio against her emotion.

How Leonowens carried the masculine traits was again seen in the way she tried to stand for the King and the Royal family against the humiliation toward Siam and the attack of General Alak’s troops. Naturally, as an English woman, she could ignore when another English man tries to underestimate Siam. However as an educated woman, she was able to use her logic to differentiate the truth. She could not support what British had done to Siam. She questioned the diplomat about the attacks on Siam whether British was behind those attacks. She thought that
that British had been unfair to attack Siam after the peace agreement offered by the King. She was very objective and brave to state that right is right, apart from any circumstances which might confuse it.

“You raised a glass to him, you commended him for his vision, but all the while you are waiting to take his country away from him.” (p. 226)

Leonowens was being very brave to determine what was right for her. She risked her life and took her responsibility of a teacher to her students that she decided to stand by their sides even in a very hard situation. She could not leave her ‘family’ faced a problem themselves. Leonowens did not give up easily for something she can struggle. She created her own destiny and would not let the destiny govern her life.

Leonowens’ courage was not only supported by her passion without any logical reasons. Her logical ways created a sudden to precise strategy to win the battle. When everyone saw no hope of winning the battle, she came out with an idea to use blow the English bugles and to set the fireworks to bluff the enemy as if the back-up troops of England had arrived to have their backs. Without sufficient knowledge, she would not come to the idea of using bugles and fireworks. Her knowledge worked together with her rationale was able to equip her to perform a precise action to handle a problem.

Anna’s logical action was also clearly shown in the last night she spent with the King before her leaving to England. She admitted her feeling toward the King and regretted why there was no solution for her love story with the King. However, she endured her own feeling and accepted the fact. She knew that in Siam everything had its own time and at that moment, it was impossible and still unacceptable for an English woman to marry a King.

Conclusion

Howe (1975) stated that traditionally, a man’s life in his work; a woman ‘s life is her man and that a woman’s life might have connections with her work is a revolutionary idea in that it might—indeed must—lead her to examine and question her place as woman in the social order. In this case, it can be said that masculinity does not always belong to man and femininity to woman for both man and woman must have these two characters in their selves. The degree of masculinity and femininity in one’s self will later influence how he or she thinks, acts, and reacts toward certain circumstances.

In the novel titled Anna and the King, Anna Leonowens was described as an educated woman who devoted much of her time to books and issues that made as if she knew more about the world than anyone. Her knowledge brought her rational and logical ways of thinking. Leonowens’ independent self-confident strong-willed characteristics break the doctrine of the patriarchal values that put women position lower than men. Her job as a teacher signals her position under what might be determined by patriarchal awareness that women find job opportunities primarily in the caring professions - like teaching and nursing - and the clerical posts that require the same kinds of organizational skills that a woman needs to run a household.
(Madsen Deborah L, 2000). Still, her ways of thinking, facing problems, finding and determining solutions reflect how Leonowens as a female character portrayed masculine traits against the strong values of masculinities in a patriarchal society of Siam.

References


Reshaping Gender Identities and Ideologies through Foreign Language Learning

Rizal
Sampoerna School of Education, Jakarta

Abstract
Many of the early studies in the field of language and gender explored the relation between language and gender in binary oppositions framework and essentialist perspective, which resulted in an over-simplification of gender roles, linguistic phenomena, and its relation with second/foreign language learning (Gordon, 2008). Although all of those approaches had indeed succeeded in identifying the gender inequalities as the result of male's control over various resources, it failed to acknowledge the social, economic, and political contexts which influence the construction of gender identity, especially in foreign learning contexts. The emergence of new perspective, which is largely influenced by the post structuralist tradition, contributes to the new and more complex understanding of the relation between gender identity and foreign language learning. It implies that in the process of foreign language learning learners are not merely acquiring the linguistic knowledge (grammar, lexicon, etc), but also acquiring the social and cultural aspects of the target language, including gender identities, ideologies and norms. Hence, in this paper I would like to explore the relation between gender identities and ideologies, and foreign language learning. The discussion will revolve around how the learners’ L1 gender ideologies influence their motivation or resistance to foreign language learning which eventually affect their success as well as failure. I also expect to explore what particular factors that might contribute to the transformation of gender ideologies and identities in foreign language learning.

Keywords: The post structuralist tradition, Gender Ideologies, Gender Identities, Foreign Language Learning
Introduction
Many of the early studies of language and gender explored the relation between language and gender in binary oppositions framework and essentialist perspective, which resulted in an oversimplification of genders role in linguistics phenomena (Gordon, 2008). The early work in this field which mostly used the deficit approach as their research framework viewed the language spoken by women as inferior. Scholars, like Robin Lakoff, claimed that women speak a powerless uncertain, weak, excessively polite, language, characterized by some distinguishable linguistics features, such as relying on hedges, emphatic stress, and hypercorrect grammar (Pavlenko & Piller, 2001). In its later development, the deficit approach received a lot of severe criticisms, since it views men’s language as the norm and tended to make an overgeneralization claims seeing women as a homogenous, undifferentiated group. Moreover, the critics argued that many of the claims regarding the male female differentiated speech were overgeneralized to all men and women based on limited research sample (white, North American, and middle class).

As a result, another approach emerged in response to those criticisms called the dominance approach. This new approach were intended to interpret Lakoff’s work within a new paradigm which were trying to see the women’s and men’s language differences is the result of one gender dominance over another and the imbalance distribution of power between these two different genders.. The speech differences are caused by a powerful control that male has over various material and symbolic resources, including language.

Like its predecessor, this approach was not immune from the criticisms. Scholars, like Penelope Eckert & McConnell-Ginet who later came up with the concept of community of practice (COP), argued that although the dominance approach had indeed succeeded in identifying the gender inequalities as the result of male’s control over various resources, it failed to acknowledge “the social, economic, and political contexts which influence the construction of gender identity” (Gordon 2008, p. 233).

Drawing upon the sociolinguistic variationist perspective, the difference approach gained its currency in response to the critics of the dominance approach. The proponents of this approach believe that the differences in language use between male and female merely reflect sex based division that do not involve any power relation concerns. In this approach, gender was seen as one of many other attributes such as class age or race, determining individual’s relation to linguistics variation (Pavlenko & Piller, 2001). All three approaches mentioned above seem to draw a similar assumption in regard to gender issue. They view gender as categorical and fixed notion which is innate and stable overtime.

How then those were used to explain the role of gender in second language acquisition in general, and foreign language learning (FL learning hereafter) in particular? Since they view gender as an individual variable in language learning, monolithic, and not as a complex system of social relations, it was argued that there seems to be different trajectories of FL learning that the both male and female FL learners take. Those trajectories are similar within, but different between the genders. If we assumed gender to be fixed and binary in the contexts of FL learning, then we can draw generalized claims that a homogeneous gender group is affected by uniform cognitive and affective factors in regards to FL learning outcomes. One of the most widely cited examples is the myths of female superiority in FL learning deriving from the difference approach. It generalized that female learners would do better than males. It was believed that female actually have a better learning strategy implying gender plays a significant role in the way that learners approach the task in FL classroom. For example, Burstall’s study in 1975 (as cited from Ehrlich, 1997) reported that the female learners achieved a significantly higher score...
in all tests measuring French proficiency compared to male learners. Ehrlich also points out many other similar studies that reflected a relatively similar tendency at that time.

However, these universalized claims were seen as counter productive by many. Therefore, the recent research work in the field of language and gender research has rejected the essentialist’s approach which views social identities, like gender, as fixed and unitary. Most of the scholars, who are largely influenced by the post structuralist tradition, come into one agreement that social identities are dynamic and multidimensional. They are constructed through the interaction of linguistic forms with other social variables, such as social status, ethnicity, gender, age, etc within specific physical situations. Based on this perspective, each person projects different identities, whether s/he realizes it or not, in different social contexts with different people. Therefore, an individual may have completely different social identities from one interaction to another depending on the goal of this interaction and his/her interlocutors, and language use is inevitably among the most salient factor in projecting those identities.

Moreover, the studies of scholars like Eckert and McConnell-Ginnet’s, although not specifically in FL learning context, has helped us to understand that gender is embedded “within the construction of other socially significant categories, which are constituted through language” (Gordon 2008, p. 233). Another important point emphasized by the proponents of this view is that they never assume that the superiority of one gender category in L2 learning as the result of biological inheritance. Instead, they acknowledge that “gender, as one of many important facets of social identity, interacts with race, ethnicity, class, sexuality, (dis)ability, age, and social status in framing students’ language learning experiences, trajectories, and outcomes” (Norton & Pavlenko 2004, p. 504).

This fresh paradigm contributes to the new and more complex understanding of the relation between gender identity and FL learning. It implies that in the process of second language learning the learners are not merely acquiring the linguistic knowledge (phonological, morphological, and syntactical aspects of a language), but to particular extents also acquiring the social and cultural aspects of the target language, including gender norms. As a result, the FL learners may construct different gender identities and ideologies when speaking in target language from those when speaking in their native language. According to Willet (1995), this relates to the claim that language learning is the process of becoming the member of a socio cultural group.

Hence, in this paper I would like to explore the relation between gender ideologies and identities, and FL learning and socialization. The discussion will revolve around how the learners’ L1 gender ideologies influence their motivation or resistance to FL learning which eventually affect their success as well as failure. I also expect to explore what particular factors that might contribute to the transformation of gender ideologies and identities in L2 learning.

**Gender Ideologies and Identities in FL Learning**

As many people concurred, like other social activities, FL learning does not operate in a vacuum. It is influenced by many factors, including sociohistorical as well as political context, interactional context, and individual agency. Moreover, it seems inevitable that gender ideologies and identities in a local speech community can fundamentally affect the students’ access and opportunities for classroom learning. The effects can be two folds. L1 gender ideologies can be supportive as well as unhelpful for the learners.

What sort of roles gender ideologies and identities play in FL learning has become the interest many FL researchers. Norton & Pavlenko (2004) identifies three areas in which gender
influences the opportunities for language socialization. First, gender identities and ideologies play a significant role in enhancing or limiting access to linguistics resources. In this sense, women and men may have different levels of exposure, attitudes, motivation, and incentives in learning FL as the result of gender differences. For example, in a community where second language skills are related to economic and social benefits, women are not allowed to learn or speak the language, since this kind of privilege belongs to male members of society. Those are done by the enforcement of many kinds of gatekeeping practices in order to restrict women’s mobility, access to mainstream language education, and the workplace (Pavlenko & Piller, 2001). Hill’s (as cited from Ehrlich, 1997) study of women’s speech reveals that most Mexican men are bilingual (speak Spanish and indigenous language “Mexicano”) while women tend to be monolingual (only speak “Mexicano”) as the result of gender labor divisions restricting women to participate in regular wage labor in which in turn, she argued, also prevents the women from having access to linguistic resource, i.e. Spanish. In most studies, researchers have shown that women’s access to FL classroom is also “constrained by many factors, such as their domestic responsibilities as wives, mothers, housewives, and caretakers, by transportation and safety concerns” (Pavlenko & Norton 2004, p. 305). To my experience, those kinds of gender ideologies are well maintained in some parts of the world where males dominate all walks of life.

Second, gender identities and ideologies influence the interactional opportunities for male and female learners in classroom. Willet (1995) using ethnographic approach concludes that the students of “room 17” do not merely learn discrete language skills by participating in phonics seatwork, but also construct their own social relations, identities, and ideologies. There is a process of identity negotiation and production among the participants in which sometimes affected by the larger society. For example, she points out that the practice of seating boys next to girl as an attempt to control their behavior is the result of ideologies about gender held by the wider society. No wonder, the students’ gender identities and ideologies formed in that local interaction are representation of the picture of gender identities and ideologies within the society itself. Further, Willet also argues that the various constructions of social relations, identities, and ideologies will in turn affect the learner’s access to FL learning. She contrasts the different experiences between the female learners and the only male students have in room 17. I have to agree with Gordon (2008) that by doing so, she actually wants to demonstrate how the construction of gender portrays the girl as successful learners and the boy as problematic learner.

Third, Norton & Pavlenko state that the intersection of language ideologies and gender ideologies influence the learners’ investment in or resistance to learning. This important point was also already explored by many researchers. There seems to be open possibility that FL learning and socialization may lead to the transformation of learners’ gender identities and ideologies. Gordon (2004) shows that Lao man and woman have to redefine their identities as they deal with a new linguistic and cultural environments, in which she argues that language socialization is one of the main contributors to the process of redefining identities. Although Gordon does not focus her discussions on the contexts of formal language classroom, she provides us with significant insights regarding the possibility of the learners’ gender identities and ideologies shifting. A more interesting finding comes from Kobayashi’s (2002) study of Japanese female English-language learners. Here, she argues that female students tend to have a more positive attitude compared to male students toward English learning, since it relates to the opportunity to expand broader gender identities for women. Therefore, the female learners have more chances to go through a process of reconstructing their gender ideologies and identities by
learning English. They can use English as language of empowerment, a possibility that is not available when they speak Japanese.

However, the process of transformation does not always run smoothly. The learners at some point may reject the new gender ideologies and identities ‘imposed’ through language use, especially when there are many contradictions between L1 gender ideologies and target language ideologies. Siegal (1996) investigates the role of language learner subjectivity in the acquisition of sociolinguistic competency a second language by choosing an American female Japanese learners as the subject. Mary (the subject of her research) resisted to use some Japanese linguistic forms, since she perceived it as problematic, putting herself in a lower position in terms of power relations. Whether she is aware or not with her choice, her resistance implies that using language involves making choices where each speech act becomes an ‘act of identity’ (Bourne as cited from Siegal, 1996). It seems to me that Mary’s ways of understanding the world and her sense of herself when speaking in target language will directly affect the degree of her success in acquiring Japanese sociolinguistic competency.

Conclusion
Considering the possible transformation on gender ideologies and identities, we can actually use FL learning as a vehicle to create social change, particularly creating a friendlier and just world for female member of the society. As shown by research works I cited above, gender ideologies develop and change overtime in the FL learning settings. FL teachers can start by using strategies discussed in Norton & Pavlenko (2004). They suggest some important steps in order to address the issue of gender in L2 classrooms. Those can be done in four ways: “curricular innovation, …; feminist teaching practices, materials and activities; topic managements…; classroom management and decision-making practices” (p. 504-5). For example, some concrete strategies that L2 teacher can take is incorporating topics like sexual harassment, domestic violence, and sexism in L2 classroom settings or using grammar teaching by exploring gay and lesbian issues.

About the author
Rizal has a Master’s degree in Intercultural Communication from Graduate School of Education University of Pennsylvania. Rizal joined English Department, Sampoerna School of Education in 2011 where he teaches Introduction to The Study of Language, American Culture and Society Studies, and Discourse Analysis. Before coming to SSE he held teaching appointments in a number of education institutions.

References


Critical Discourse Analysis on the Javanese Song Lyric
‘Ilir-Ilir’

Setyono
Post Graduate Student of Semarang State University

Sri Wahyuni
English Department of State University of Semarang

Abstract

Song, in spite of being an amusement work, is often used to foreground a particular ideology. The study aims to find out whether the Javanese song lyric ‘Ilir-Ilir’, as the object of the study, has certain ideological commonsense and power relation between the participants involved in the lyric. It focuses on its textual surface of discourse or descriptive and interpretative stages, as well as its explanatory stage in terms of critical discourse analysis. The data were initially analyzed based on Martin’s theory of analyzing the discourse (2004), and then to move deeper into the power that exists in both situation and cultural contexts which create the discourse, the theory of Fairclough(1992) was adopted. The findings showed that the lyric consists of many metaphorical expressions and ‘dominate’ and ‘dominated’ power relation were obviously noticeable. The results of the study suggest a deep pedagogical implication that it is important for people to understand the Javanese philosophical thought about the purpose of life.

Keywords: lyric, critical discourse analysis, ideological commonsense, power relation
Introduction

This paper is an investigation of how lyric of a Javanese song is constructed and what is the context of situation and context of culture involved in creating the text. As we have already understood that the creation of a song is sometime not merely for an entertaining purpose but farther as a band-wagon to carry particular ideological messages as philosophical thought, children character education, critics on the government, critics on a certain social phenomenon, etc. In Indonesian modern music for example, the ideological perspective of the music composer especially the lyric creator has been very popular accepted by the youth community. Iwan Fals, one of the expressive music composers has launched some of his songs to criticize the Old-Regime of Indonesian government. His song entitled ‘Oemar Bakrie’ has made him to be sentenced guilty in the Indonesian court as his effort to discredit the Indonesian Government at that time.

In the United States, Hip-Hop genre of music exists by carrying particular youth point of view toward what life they want to be. This kind of music invited some experts of anthropology and also linguistics to come for observing this phenomenon.

Some analyses on songs or particular genre of music have been done by severalexperts as Dan Stowel (2010), with the focus on discourse analysis evaluation method for expressivemusical interfaces. The other study was conducted by Nhamdi O. Madichie (2011), he studied paper seeks to highlight hip-hop's contribution to the entrepreneurship and place marketing literature.

Some theories that have researched the domain of music, songs, or lyrics suggest that some studies on expressive musical interfaces will improve the vocal quality of the singers, the other studies suggest that lyrics of songs may bring people admire to what the singers say. This discursive condition is possible to advertise place to be the tourist destination or the place for business investments (Madichie: 2011). Previous studies have indicated that the study on song or lyric is only based on the surface textual construction.

However, existing research does not explore on why such a song was constructed or - neither does it comment on how to construct typical of ideological lyric. Furthermore, the researches have been done, in the domain of song, do not deeply observethe power relation between the participants or explain the power behind the lyric discourse or how each type of discourse interconnects each other to create the new complex discourse.

The research undertaken for this paper seeks to explore the discourse of the Javanese folk song entitled ‘Ilir-ilir’ on: 1) How is the text formed? 2) What is the metaphorical discourse appeared in the text? 3) Who is the participant involved in the discourse? 4) What is the context of situation and culture? 5) What are the power relations in the discourse and what is power behind discourse? 6) What is the ideological commonsense carried out? It will be argued that this song’s lyric is in spite of very simple, it brings a lot of phenomena we have to take into account.

As such, this thesis responds to the call to critical discourse analysis by many studies academic who have suggested that research about song’s lyric has quite few observed, and there will be substantial findings toward the understanding of the previous cultural aspects of human’s life in a particular society.

The objectives of the study are as stated in the following statements. This research focuses on the study of the discourse analysis of the lyric text of the Javanese folk song ‘Ilir-ilir’. It observes the metaphorical discourse, the participants involved in the text, and the two contexts
which influence the discourse. This paper will also discuss further the power relation and the power behind the discourse, and finally it inquires the ideological commonsense brought.

Given the identified gap in this topic studies, this thesis has the potential to provide better theoretical and practical understanding of the discourse in the Javanese folk song of ‘Ilir-Ilir’. It may support the theory of critical discourse analysis that first, particular discourse has very complicated interconnection of many discourse types that Norman Fairclough called it as dialectics (Fairclough & Wodak: 1997). In a very simple word, there is no single discourse created by single discourse type. Second, it support the theory of critical discourse analysis that to analyze discourse must conduct two approaches, they are macro and micro discourse (Dijk: 1998). Practically, this study brings us the understanding of the actual content of the text, through the metaphorical linguistic expression that is unfolded by relating the text and the world.

Philosophically, this research gives us knowledge of what is ‘Islamic Ideological’ which has been thought from the Islamic Religious Leader to his followers. As always in our consideration, as teachers, that society need good ideological commonsense to be the right guide for reaching the life’s goals.

**Javanese Song, ‘Ilir-Ilir’**
The traditional children’s song entitled *Ilir-ilir* is predicted to come into existence in the 15th century. It is written in many manuscripts that the composer of this song was ‘Sunan Giri’, the Javanese Islamic Religious Leader. However, there are some experts in Javanese culture claim that the creator of this song was ‘Sunan Kalijaga’. It will be fruitful for us not to argue who was the writer of this song; for that reason, we will mention him as the ‘creator’ for the next discussion. The song, up to now, has undergone various developments in lyrics, meaning, and function. In case of the function, the song which was only sung by children in the past, has developed into, amongst other things, a means of *midodareni* ritual of Javanese wedding, entertainment, Islamic proselytism, dance accompaniment, consciousness recovery, war motivation, education and so on (Rabimin:2011)

In the book entitled ‘*Wejangan Walisongo*’ by G Surya Alam, the lyrics of this Javanese song ‘Ilir-Ilir’ carries Islamic philosophical thought from the old man to the younger or from the Islamic leaders to the followers as we can see at figure 1.

**figure 1. Lyric Translation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LYRIC: ‘ILIR-ILIR’</th>
<th>FREE TRANSLATION INTO ENGLISH</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Ilir-ilir, ilir-ilir</em></td>
<td>(be awake), (move your hand to get fresh air)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Tandure wus sumilir</em></td>
<td>(because) the plants have been growing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Tak ijo royo-royo</em></td>
<td>They’re green, green indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Tak sengguh penganten anyar</em></td>
<td>I’m feeling (joy) as a just married man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Cah angon, cah angon</em></td>
<td>Hi kids, hi shepherds</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discourse Analysis

A discourse is a set of meanings through which a group of people communicate about a particular topic. Discourse can be defined in a narrow or a broad sense and a narrow definition of discourse might refer only to spoken or written language. However, discourse analysis more often draws on a broader definition to include the shared ways in which people make sense of things within a given culture or context, including both language and language-based practices (i.e. the ways in which things are accomplished).

Discourse analysis has been used to understand a wide range of texts including natural speech, professional documentation, political rhetoric, interview or focus group material, internet communication, song’s lyric, music, newspapers and magazines and broadcast media.

Most forms of discourse analysis assume that discourse does not merely describe an external reality, but rather that it is constructive of the world as we experience it. An assumption underpinning most discourse analysis is that a person’s agency, or ability to make choices, is limited by the discourses available to him or her. People cannot begin to think and speak about things in ways that are outside of the discourses available to us and therefore we are all seen as being subject to discourse. Within each discourse, there are certain subject positions available. Within discourse analytic work, rather than talking about the ‘self’, writers often refer to the ‘subject’. The term ‘self’ implies that a person has a coherent and stable inner identity but this notion is challenged in discourse analysis by the notion of being subject to discourse.
Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) stems from a critical theory of language which sees the use of language as a form of social practice. All social practice are tied to specific historical contexts and are the means by which existing social relations are reproduced or contested and different interests are served. Fairclough's (1989, 1995) model for CDA consists of three inter-related processes of analysis tied to three inter-related dimensions of discourse. These three dimensions are: 1) The object of analysis (including verbal, visual or verbal and visual texts). 2) The processes by means of which the object is produced and received (writing/speaking/designing and reading/listening/viewing) by human subjects. 3) The socio-historical conditions which govern these processes.

According to Fairclough each of these dimensions requires a different kind of analysis, they are: first stage is text analysis (description), second stage is processing analysis (interpretation), third stage is social analysis (explanation). What is useful about this approach is that it enables us to focus on the signifiers that makeup the text, the specific linguistic selections, their juxtapositioning, their sequencing, their layout and so on. However, it also requires you to recognize that the historical determination of these selections and to understand that these choices are tied to the conditions of possibility of that utterance. This is another way of saying that texts are instantiations of socially regulated discourses and that the processes of production and reception are socially constrained. Why Fairclough’s approach to CDA is so useful is because it provides multiple points of analytic entry. It does not matter which kind of analysis one begins with, as long as the end they are all included and are shown to be mutually explanatory. It is in the interconnections that the analyst finds the interesting patterns and disjunctions that need to be described, interpreted and explained.

Discourse and Critical Discourse Analysis on Lyric

Being the old works of a society, lyrics convey various meanings for public consumptions. This indirect communicative event has attracted some experts on linguistic, music, anthropology, and other social scientists to study by using critical discourse analysis approach. Bjork (2011), from the Academy of Music and drama from University of Gothenburg explored how language is used in the context of gender-equity music initiatives to construct ideas about gender and social changes in Sweden. The empirical material consists of recorded round-table discussions with staff and participants from four different initiatives. The results are organized in four themes – Sound, Body, Territory, and Room – and are discussed in relation to the concepts of performativity (Judith Butler), feminine body spatiality (Iris Marion Young), and gaze (Michel Foucault and others).

The other observer in the domain of song lyric was Bovan (2010) that studied about the history of Serbo-Croatian oral lyric of Christian prayers. Heriwati (2011) was also interested in observing the Javanese lyric song in terms of its metaphorical meaning. She found that in metaphor there is a distance between tenor and vehicle which is very interesting. The more distant the tenor and vehicle, the more expressive the meaning of metaphor is. Then she stated that there are four kinds of metaphors; they are anthropomorphic, animal, abstract to concrete and the opposite, and sinesthetic. Those kinds of metaphor are for knowing how the perception about static space predicted as human being, animal or other creatures and there is the change of concept causing the resemblance of the perceptual and physical meanings. Metaphor is interesting for the linguists because it is viewed as a process of transference between two conditions of...
experiences based on the association of each others. Several kinds of the metaphor are found in lyric of Java’s songs.

The research we would like to conduct is based on both discourse surface of the text as well as the deeper stages in terms of critical discourse analysis. It observes the description of how the text is constructed due to its lexico-grammatical level, the interpretation of the interpersonal meanings carried out the text as well as the process of text production, and also the explanation of ideological commonsense that effect the social relation between the participants. In order to make it clear, we provide the theoretical framework of this study as we see on figure 2 (Fairclough: 1992)

**Figure 2. Theoretical Framework of the Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Conditions of Production and Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process of Production and Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEXT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational, Institutional, Societal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DESCRIPTION:**
(What does it look like?)
TEXT ANALYSIS

**INTERPRETATION:**
(What does it all mean?)
PROCESSING ANALYSIS

**EXPLANATION:**
(Why is it this way?)
SOCIAL ANALYSIS

**Methods**

In this chapter, I describe the research strategy that I have used to study the discourse of the Javanese song lyric entitled ‘Ilir-Ilir’ in three stages of discourse analyses: descriptively, interpretatively and explanatively. Building the conceptualization of discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis on a particular lyric, I present a more detailed consideration of the empirical dilemmas for research and outcomes.

It observes firstly the text formations on the lyric, metaphorical linguistic expressions, the participants involved in the text, and the two contexts which influence the discourse. Secondly, this paper will also discuss further the power relation and the power behind the discourse, and finally it inquires the ideological commonsense brought. Discussing deeply farther this lyric, for the initial analysis I apply Halliday’s and J.R. Martin’s theoretical approaches of discourse analysis to describe and interpret the content and contexts of the lyric. While for the later one, I adopt Fairclough’s and Van Dijk’s theoretical approach of critical discourse analysis to explain the social power relation, ideological common sense, and power behind the discourse.

I believe that the combination of these methods of analysis is the most proper system to analyze such a philosophical lyric. Martin (2003:1) stated that discourse analysis is an invitation
to grammarians to reconsider meaning in the clause from the perspective meanings on the text, and suggests social theorist to reconsider social activity as meanings we negotiate through text:

“For us this also means that we treat discourse as more than incidental manifestation of social activity: we want to focus on the social as it is constructed through text, on the constitutive role of meanings in social life.”

This research approach furthermore is significant due to Van Dijk (1998), as he suggested that we have to conduct the research through micro level analysis of the social order as discourse, language use, etc., and through macro level analysis of the social order as power, dominance, inequality, etc.

**Discourse and Critical Discourse Analysis in ‘Ilir-Ilir’**

**Ideational Metaphors**

In our text analysis we saw different approach in the way the composer of this song construed reality. This song’s lyric is telling about the unknown speaker that transferring message to the hearer in order the hearer to do something that the speaker suggested. We found that all the ideational meaning as the participants, the processes, and the circumstances are drawn in uncommon reference of the real world. This kind of discourse enable the composer delivered multi-layered meanings to avoid narrow interpretation. This kind of discourse has also composed an artistic lyric to admire. The key meaning making resource for this kind of discourse is known as ideational metaphor (Martin, 2004).

Metaphor in general involves a transference of meaning in which a lexical item that normally means one thing comes to mean another. There are many examples of ideational metaphors in ‘Ilir-Ilir’, even majority of lexical item chosen in constructing this song are metaphors. In the first couplet we found the word ‘Ilir-Ilir’ that means to be awake, relax by moving a traditional fan with our arm to get the fresh air. This is of course not the lexical meaning that the composer wanted to draw. Some Javanese linguists claimed that this word means that we have to be always conscious and aware of the situation, some argued that the meaning of this word is to relax, and enjoy the result of something that we have done. What is that? Because: ‘tandure wus sumilir’ that stated in the second couplet. This clause means ‘the plant has already been growing’. The plants is as the representation of the moslem society that had already been growing at that time. The ideological color of moslem is green, the clause is emphasized by the next clause ‘tak ijo royo-royo’ means ‘it’s really green, indeed green’. The composer (Sunan Giri or Sunan Kalijaga?) has allocated all his life for the growth of moslem society, thus knowing the Islamic religion had begun popular in the Javanese society, he felt very happy as stated by the utterance: ‘tak sengguh penganten anyar’ (I feel so joyful as a just married man).

The first couplet describes the creator’s feeling and effort that he has done, the second one explains the creator’s suggestion to the hearer (the shepherds or ‘cah angon’). Here, the shepherds are little children indicated by the word ‘cah’. Shepherds is metaphorical terms of the human in general, as in Javanese culture human is a psychical soul which takes care of its physical body, and the word children draws that basically we are as the hearer are un-perfect human. In short, everyone is a shepherd of his own childish physical attributes that always needs improvement by doing certain effort to develop, as stated in next sentence ‘penekna blimbing kuwi’ (get the star-fruit!). The word ‘get’ carries meaning of ‘effort to improve’. While the question of what matter that we have to improve is answered by the next lexical item on the same
clause that is ‘the star-fruit’. Star-fruit is an ideational metaphor of ‘5 basic tasks for moslem to do in order to gain happiness in his life. The next clause in the second couplet will be ‘lunyu-lunyu penekna’ (although it will be hard for you, but get it!). This metaphor (process) explains whether to do the 5 moslem basic task will be not so easy, however ‘you’ have to always try, always effort to establish Islamic religion which will brings you happiness. That is the objective of why human has to do the 5 basic tasks is as stated in the next sentence: ‘kanggo masuh dodot ira’ (to wash your clothes). Clothes in javanese culture as the metaphor of character or religion.

The next passage will be ‘dodot-ira, dodot-ira, kumitir bedhahing pinggir, dom-ana jlumatana, kanggo seba mengkosore’. All the lexical items above are metaphors. We have discussed before that the term ‘clothes’ in Javanese culture means religion, and to establish the 5 task on Islamic religion is not so easy that some time we failed to complete those task. However, we have to always effort to complete the un-complete ones. The function of developing human goodness (stated in the Islam religion) is to face and to be responsible to God, in later human’s life time (kanggo seba mengko sore: for the later evening meeting).

The last couplet contains the emphatic suggestion to moslem that we have to do something right away before the other things come (‘pumpung jembar kalangane, pumping padhang rembulane). The last sentence the creator invites all moslems to be happy.

**Grammatical Structure**

Javanese and English language have significant different on their tenses grammatically. The Javanese language, the difference of tenses in its sentences doesn’t change the lexical items, form. However, basically Javanese sentence proposition also has the tenses although it will not be stated grammatically in the given sentence. The tenses are often analyzed to recognize the speaker’s point of view toward the ideational meanings in a text.

We found that in the first passage the creator applied past perfect continues tense, then present continues, and present tense. The lyrics of this passage narrate recount of the past moment that the effect has been taking. The second, the third, and the last passages generate the future tense. These tenses choice indicates the speaker’s command, suggestion, and hope. This characteristic of the messages commanded by the speaker is dealing with the Islamic philosophical thought or in the critical discourse analysis this term will be called ideological common sense that will be discussed further in the next chapter of Power behind Discourse.

**Interpersonal Meanings**

Interpersonal meanings are meanings which express a speaker’s attitudes and judgments. These are meanings for acting upon and with others. Meanings are realized in wording through what is called MOOD and modality. Meanings of this kind are most centrally influenced by tenor of discourse (Gerot and Wignell: 1995).

We have to analyze this interpersonal meanings initially, as this is worth for our next deeper discussion especially in the power relation between the participants involved in the story. If a speaker gives us the information, he is inherently inviting us to receive that information. Or, if he is offering us some goods or services, he is inherently inviting us to receive that goods or services. On the other hand, if the speaker demands some goods or information or services, we inherently invited to give the information, goods or services. There are four kinds of the information-exchange, they are statement, offer, command, and question. Those carry particular characteristics that draw the discourse type of the speaker, hearer, and the power relation.
found in the song lyric ‘Ilir-Iuir’ majority of the MOOD system is command. This explains to us that the speaker was asking the hearer to do something.

Be relax! (be awake!) — COMMAND
(because) the plants have been growing
They’re green, green indeed — STATEMENTS
I’m feeling (joy) as a just married man

Hi kids, hi shepherds — COMMAND
Get that star fruit
(although) it’ll be hard, but get it
To wash your clothes

Your clothes, your cover
(because of) moving, it shall have little damage
Sew it, repair it
(to cover your body) for the later evening meeting
while you still have spare time
As the moon is still bright
Let’s celebrate — COMMAND
Let’s cheer, horray.

This characteristics of the speaker that has power to command the hearer will be then discussed in the next analytical stage as dominated social representation of discourse in the Power Relation chapter.

*Periodicity in ‘Ilir-Iuir’*

Periodicity is concerned with information flow: with the way in which meanings are packages to make it easier for the readers to take them in. As we know that text usually has the topic sentence and the supporting topics that elaborate and describe the topic sentence. The topic sentence then is placed initially in the text and just after followed by the supporting sentences in an order way. This kind of idea is about information flow, to give readers some idea about what to expect, fulfilling those expectations, and then reviewing them.

*(FIRST COUPLET)*

(we have to) be awake, (we have to) be awake — THEME NEW [REPETITION]

(because) the plants, (we have planted) have been growing — THEME NEW

(the plants we planted) are green, (they have been growing to be) green indeed — THEME NEW

I feel (joy as) like a just married man — THEME NEW
(SECOND COUPLET)

Hi kids, hi shepherds
\[\text{THEME} \ [\text{REPETITION}]\]

(you have to) Get that star fruit
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

(although) It’ll be hard, but get it
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

(it is worth) To wash your clothes
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

(THIRD COUPLET)

Your clothes, your covers
\[\text{THEME} \ [\text{REPETITION}]\]

(because of your) moving, it shall have little damage
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

(you have to) sew it, repair it
\[\text{THEME} \ [\text{REPETITION}]\]

(it will be useful to cover your body) for the later evening meeting
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

(FORTH COUPLET)

While (you) still have spare time
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

While the moon is still bright
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

Let us celebrate
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]

clause. It is understandable that
\[\text{THEME} \ [\text{REPETITION}]\]

(let us cheer), horray
\[\text{THEME} \ \text{NEW}\]
flowing should be creatively interpreted by placing the lost words. The first couplet begins with the repetition of the ideational meaning. This is the bridge to link to the next clauses by providing the main idea for the first couplet. This main idea is about action that the hearers have to do and the next clause describes of why the hearers have to do such action. The second clause is then followed by the third and forth ones which elaborate the argument. The second and third couplets have also the same structure as the first one. In the forth couplet we found the different structure than the above others, in every half couplet consists of repetition of the previous clause. These systems of structure have constructed these lyrics to be flowing and easy to follow. That’s no wonder if most people in every level of age in Java master this song.

**Connections in ‘Ilir-Ilor’**

Connection here means the relationship between the text and the world (Fairclough:1989). The term connection will not be merely the conjunction or other cohesive ties, however to gain the deeper explanation about this song we go further to the coherence that unfold the actual-process, societal, and interactional discourse rather than the text discourse. The connection of the ideational meanings stated through ideational metaphors has been discussed initially, in this chapter we would like to explain the connection in the terms of register that contains field, tenor, and mode. Those context organization by metafunction types of register than are inter-correlate each other than will bring us to the discussion of ideology carried by this song, the power relation involved in the interaction of the participants, and also explain what is the power behind the discourse.

**Register, Ideology, Power Relation, Power behind Discourse**

The main construct used by functional linguists to model context is known as register. In SFL, register analysis is organized by linguistic metafunction by Field, Tenor, and Mode. Field refers to what happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what it is that the participants are engage in, in which language figures as some essential components. Tenor refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and their roles: what kind of relationship obtain, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech roles they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved. Mode refers to what part language to do for them in the situation: the symbolic organization of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context. (Halliday and Hasan: 1985)

Field in the Javanese song ‘Ilir-ilir’ mostly consists of metaphorical ideations. We have discussed these metaphorical ideations in the previous chapter. Ideational meanings in the domain of field consist of firstly: things, matters, ideology, events, etc., secondly: the processes occur, and thirdly: the circumstances influenced in the discourse.

The thing available in the discourse is kids or shepherd as the metaphorical ideation of human generally. Human according to the creator of this song is one in the moslem society, thus this discourse brings Islamic ideological point of view. This assumption comes from the social context of who created this discourse, when this discourse constructed, and where it happened. As stated in the previous chapter related to the data, this song is created in the fifteenth century when the moslem society begun to spread popularly in Java. The creator was the Islamic religion leader named Sunan Giri (Sunan Kalijaga?), so this was a kind of song used to naturalize the ideological thought to the Javanese people especially the kids. As we know that Javanese songs
have many genres. The particular genre is only specific for particular kind of lyrics, it is determined by the certain topic carried. For example, the Javanese lyric of ‘love song’ will be classified as ‘Asmarandana genre’; the lyric of ‘sad feeling song’ will be generalized as ‘Megatruh genre’, the ‘Suluk genre’ for ‘ideological song’; and ‘Dolanan genre’ for ‘children song’; and there are still many other genres.

The question then rises on our mind of why the creator shot children as his target of naturalizing his ideological point of view? It is clear that the naturalization and generalization of such an ideological point of view is not a short time process. This process is also shown in the other ideational metaphor as the field domain as ‘planting’. Planting is kind of developmental process from the early age plants, taking care of them until they are growing. It is a metaphor for constructing a ‘moslem society’ in Java. In constructing ‘typical of ideological commonsense’ to construct new desirable society thus requires effortless naturalization of commonsense (Fairclough: 2004, pp. 91).

The target of this naturalization of ideological commonsense indeed is not only for children, however it is far more for human in general. Song is only one way to gain the interactional routines (Fairclough: 2004, pp. 99) to make the mentioned ideology becomes popular and is accepted by Javanese society that was still has heterogeneous ideologies at the given era (Islam, Buddist, Hindu, and Ancient Java Culture).

Moving to the second type of register, tenor, this song represents two kinds of participants which each of them have different positions. The creator of this song is nominated as the high power position participant or actor, while the readers (represented by the kids-shepherds) are the moslem follower of the low power participants. We are able to justify those participants’ positions by relating this discussion with the previous chapter of the interpersonal meanings. Majority of the couplets consist of ‘command’ of the linguistics function. It is argued that the speaker seems has authority to ask the hearers to do something based on his ideas. It is just like the communicative event between teacher and his students. Teacher is powerful and has an authority to shape the students and the worlds.

Moreover, Fairclough (2004, pp. 90) explains that this kind of positions can be categorized as dominant and dominated discourse type. The speaker or the leader of Islamic religion is the dominant discourse type, and the hearers as the dominated discourse type. The dominant discourse type has his role to run the rules in the society, and empowers to decide every social events and its regulations. The dominated discourse type is the follower that has to obey the rules that has been decided by the dominant one. The other aspect of this discourse type is that the creator, here, as the representation discourse type represents all the Islamic religion leaders in Java as social representation (Van Dijk: 1998). Thus the ideological commonsense which is proposed by this actor certainly be accepted by the other leaders as the representative ideological commonsense.

In the discourse genre of moslem social activity, the ideological common sense has to be a strong hegemony. The dominated representation of discourse type unconsciously accepted every dominant representation has argued. There is no single moslem as the leader’s followers criticized the rules given by the leader. They believed that the leader’s speech is the God’s speech. This position then was used by the creator of this song to deliver a worthful suggestions in order people to aware of their life (be awake), to plan their future (for the later evening meeting), to manage their mind (while the moon is bright), and not to give up when they face problems (it’ll be hard, but get it).
Conclusions and Suggestions

From the findings and discussion above, we found that song often brings ideological point of view from the creator manifested in the ideational, interpersonal, and its textual meanings of linguistic metafunction. The previous studies on song majority observed the lyrics on their surface of discourse and some of them deeply in terms of their metaphorical meanings. This research of Javanese song ‘Ilir-Ilir’ studied further the discourse of its ideational metaphors, the power relation, ideological commonsense, and also the power behind the discourse. We found that ‘Ilir-Ilir’ was constructed to be Javanese children song which carried Islamic Philosophical thought. The choice of to be children song is considered to be basic naturalization and generalization in terms of interactional routines for foregrounding the desirable ideology.

This study of as the starting point of the Javanese song research that conducted with three dimensional of critical discourse analyses, of course may has quite a lot of limitations due to the lack of the sources, and my knowledge of Javanese culture as well as the knowledge of how to conduct Critical Discourse Analysis. There are still many gap that have to be fulfilled, as the dominant and the dominated position between the participants and their ideology.

About the Authors:

Sri Wahyuni is currently a lecturer at English Department of Semarang State University.
Setyono is postgraduate student at English Department of Semarang State University.

References


Storyline Approach as Enhancement of Learning Foreign Language and Character Building at Elementary School

Frimadhona Syafri
Semarang State University

Rini Susanti Wulandari
Semarang State University

Abstract
Using stories in teaching foreign language, it forces the teacher to be creative and innovative to encourage the young learners to enjoy reading stories. The teacher has to be smart to select which one approach can enhance learning foreign language process and also can support character building of the students. Character education at schools is a vital need for giving the next generation basic skills that not only can make them as life-long learners in this global era, but also make them function in this world. Elementary school becomes the base of character building in formal education level so that character education get a lot of attention in every subject. One of approaches that can be implemented to fulfill the condition in teaching foreign language in Elementary Schools in Indonesia is storyline approach. The approach (Storyline) was mainly developed in 1967 by a team of teachers from Jordanhill College of Education (now known as University of Strathclyde) in Glasgow, Scotland. The primary schools in Scotland use a curriculum that involves integration of new topics, such as environmental studies and expressive arts, in their teaching foreign language process. This research focuses on how teaching learning English and character education are developed in SDNBI kota Semarang through storyline approach. The method of the research was qualitative in which data were in the form of interaction transcript between students and teacher. The data would be interpreted qualitatively. Meanwhile the data were gathered through interview, observation, and note-taking.

Keywords: storyline approach, teaching foreign language, character building
Introduction

Learning a foreign language could be frustrating for some young learners; however, integrating interesting and fun activities in learning would encourage them to develop positive attitudes towards learning a language (Ellis & Brewster, 2002). Actually, there are many methods or techniques how to teach a foreign language to young learners at elementary schools. One of them is using stories. They are an effective and enthusiastic technique in teaching young learners; they inject lots of amusement and help children enjoy learning foreign language in purposeful communication. Wright (1997) & Garvie (1990) as quoted by Cameron (2001:160) said that “Stories are frequently claimed to bring many benefits to young learner classrooms, including language development”. Related to the previous statement, Vernon states “Stories are perfect for teaching young ESL students because children already love stories and are already motivated at the thought of listening to one. And when children listen to stories, they’re able to internalize the language structure.”

Using Stories in Teaching Foreign Language to Young learners

Teaching a foreign language to young learners is different from teaching adults; it is definitely not easier but it is more challenging and interesting. The Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that early exposure of the target language is different from later stages that young learners learn a foreign language better than adults (Cameron, 2001). He differentiates young learners from adults as follow:
1. “Children are often more enthusiastic and lively as learners”;
2. “they also lose interest more quickly and are less able to keep themselves motivated on tasks they find difficult”;
3. "they do not have the same access as older learners to meta-language that teachers can use to explain about grammar or discourse”;
4. and "seem less embarrassed than adults at talking in a new language”.

Stories has specific characteristics that are optimum choice for learning a foreign language. According to Cameron (2001:161). It evolves certain language structure that can be read by children. Some features of stories are 1) Opening, 2) Introduction of characters, 3) Description of the setting, 4) Introduction of a problem, 5) A series of events, 6) The resolution of the problem, 8) A closing, dan 9) A moral. Moreover, stories has language components, such as 1) parallelism, 2) Rich vocabulary, 3) Alliteration, 4) Contrast, 5) Metaphor, 6) Intertextuality, 7) Narrative/dialogue, dan 8) Quality in Stories. It is supported by Slattery dan Willis (2003:96); firstly, stories can be told with pictures and gestures to help children understand; Secondly, stories help children enjoy learning English; Thirdly, stories introduce new language in context; Forth, stories help children revise language they are familiar with; Fifth, stories help children become aware of the structures of the language; Sixth, stories help children acquire intonation and pronunciation by listening; Seventh, stories can help bring English into other subjects; Eighth, stories can lead on to lots of activities using listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Moreover, stories can help young learners develop those language skills necessary for success. But implementing an effective approach depends, to a large extent, on children having access to reading materials that are relevant to their own needs and interests, being encouraged to participate in carefully structured activities, and being given incentives to promote reading. The teacher has to be smart to select which one approaches or methods which can enhance learning
foreign language and character building in the teaching foreign language process. One of them is storyline approach. This article delivers about what storyline is and how storyline process to enhance learning foreign language and character building to young learners.

**The Storyline Approach**

As the mention in abstract that the storyline approach is specifically designed for the use at primary schools. An innovative approach to curriculum integration is the Storyline Method. This method creates a context for curriculum linkage through a topic study called the Storyline. The essential elements of the Storyline topic are setting, characters and events. The unfolding narrative provides a structure and logic to curricula connections. It is random in a topic web whereas the sequence of the investigations is all important in the Storyline Method. Each Storyline episode is dependent on the preceding one. It is random in a topic web whereas the sequence of the investigation is all important in the Storyline Method. Each Storyline episode is dependent on the preceding one. The following diagram adapted from an illustration created by Mr. Ian Barr, provides a graphic explanation of the Space Abduction Topic Study using the Storying Method.

**Figure 1. Topic Line**

Adapted from the topic study diagram as illustrated by Mr. Ian Barr, Director, Curriculum and Evaluations, Glasgow, Scotland (http://www.storyline.org/history/index.html)

Moreover, Bell (1988) suggested that in the Storyline, ‘Unsere Schule’ (see below), the students are responsible for creating the characters who attend, decide on the incidents leading up to the open evening, the visiting judge and the final outcome. The teacher provides the outline of the Storyline and plans the skills practice bearing in mind the cognitive challenge inherent in the tasks prepared. Decisions will be based on the time available i.e. number of lessons; the organisation of the students i.e. whole class/pair/group/individual work; the lexis and structures to be taught, practised or recycled; the course book and other resources. However, through ‘choice’ e.g. the characters and incidents created and the use of ‘key questions’, students are given some ownership of their learning. Monitoring students’ work during the Storyline emphasizes the competent use of dictionaries and students are encouraged to make use of, add to,
create and refer to their own word banks as they progress through the Storyline. Whilst a number of formative assessment opportunities are possible there is no reason why a Storyline cannot be used for summative and peer assessment purposes.

The following is a suggested Storyline presented as an end of unit activity.

Figure 2: Unsere Schule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Storyline</th>
<th>Key questions</th>
<th>Teacher Activity</th>
<th>Student Activity</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Outcome/Assessment</th>
<th>Skill</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School subjects</td>
<td>Warming up:</td>
<td>Organise revision – ‘running dictation’ game</td>
<td>Students in groups copying</td>
<td>Authentic timetables with school subjects</td>
<td>Complete the timetables given Read and respond to questions, gap filling</td>
<td>Writing (Listening, Speaking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher asks questions</td>
<td>Whole class activity</td>
<td>Flashcards, OHT</td>
<td>Complete the timetables given Read and respond to questions, gap filling</td>
<td>Reading and Writing (Listening, Speaking)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitates and monitors</td>
<td>Individuals read students profiles write profiles</td>
<td>Students profiles from another group/ Germany.</td>
<td>Students write school profiles for: celebrity etc. to be displayed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Principles of the Storyline Method in Enhancement of Learning Foreign Language

In the teaching process, there are some principles that teachers need to keep in mind. It is necessary to demonstrate that principles of storyline method are not fulfilled only by using a course book, but also by using the storyline methodology. Below is an outline of these principles:

The Principle of Story

Story is a central part of human experience. Our history, our religious, our heritage have all been passed from generation to generation through stories for thousands of years. When we seek to understand the world around us or the culture of a people, we look to stories to enlighten us. Stories provide children with a predictable, linear structure and a meaningful context for learning what we are trying to teach.
The Principle of Anticipation
A good story draws us into its spell as we predict what is coming and we anticipate its unfolding with joy and excitement. All children want to know, “What’s going to happen next?” They follow the story from episode to episode, eager to see where it will go. Anticipation is also present at the end of a story when children ask, “What is the next story going to be about?” Anticipation ensures that learning goes on all the time whether in school or at home because children are involved in a process that they feel a part of. They are thinking about the story all the time and bringing their thoughts and ideas with them to each class session eager to contribute to the growing story unfolding around them.

The Principle of the Teacher’s Rope
This principle refers to the critical partnership between teacher and student in a Storyline topic. The Storyline method is also referred to as collaborative storymaking because of the balance between teacher control and student control. The teacher at all times holds the rope which is the actual “storyline” planned to include specific curricular goals. The magic of a rope is that it is flexible and allows for numerous bends and twists and knots while moving from one end to the other. This gives children their control. Still, the rope is the road that is being traveled and, in spite of the unexpected detours and diversions, the children still follow the path the teacher designed and learn the curriculum the teacher had planned.

The Principle of Ownership
This is surely the most powerful motivator for children. Children feel responsibility, pride and enthusiasm for projects in which they play a substantive role. Storyline honors children by beginning with the key question “What is a...........?” or “What do you think a........... is like?” This idea of starting by building the children’s conceptual model first says that children are not empty vessels waiting to be filled.

The Principle of Context
This principle is closely linked to the principle of story. New learning must be linked to previous knowledge. Children build their understanding by going from the known to the unknown. Context provides children the reason for learning what we want them to learn. Since a Storyline topic mirrors real life, the context is familiar and children see its relationship to their own lives. The linear, predictable structure of the story is also a context they understand. Children research, practice skills, and assimilate new knowledge because the story demands it and because they care about it.

The Structure Before Activity Principle
Before asking children to build their conceptual model we want to make sure that we have given them the chance to push their prior knowledge to its edges. When they have reached this point we know that they will frame their own questions and go about trying to find the answers. Children need to discover what they don’t know by articulating what they do know and seeing the gaps. Once this has been done, children need to be given structures which will enable them to find out what they want to know and to present what they discover. The teacher provides an appropriate structure for creating a frieze, doing some research, writing a report, doing a representation or creating a person so that all children have a point of reference or starting point. This structure equals freedom for those children who don’t have the skills to accomplish the task.
on their own. Those who do possess the skills have freedom to use the structure if they choose, or to diverge from it. This principle supports the belief that all children can accomplish what is being asked of them, provided they are given the necessary structure first.

This list of six principles provides a framework to keep in mind as you plan a topic, implement it in your classroom. Use them as filters to focus your planning, your assessment and your work with children. In the next issue of the connection we will look at one or two of these principles in move details and share some examples of how they shape what we do with children in the classroom.

(Jeff Creswell in http://www.storyline.org/history/index.html)

**Story Selection Criteria**

Based on experiences of some previous researchers that conducted studying about implementation storyline approach at primary schools, story selection is most important part of a teacher’s job. Here is a list of the most important story selection criteria as suggested by Cameron (2001: 167-169):

1) Real books or specially written ones?
   Real books were those written by ‘real’ authors for parents to buy for children, and there was a so-called “golden age” of young children’s literature in English in the 1970s and 1980s, as writers exploited the use of colour and pictures alongside simple story lines.

2) Will the content engage the learners?
   A good story for language learning will have interesting characters that children can empathise with, who take part in activities that the learners can make sense of it.

3) Are the values and attitudes embodied in the story acceptable?
   Stories can help children feel positive about other countries and cultures, and can broaden their knowledge of the world.

4) How is the discourse organized?
   Stories with a structure close to the prototypical format set above to be most accessible to children.

5) What is the balance of dialogue and narrative?
   The balance of dialogue and narrative in a story may influence choice, and will certainly affect the way a story is used.

6) How is language used?
   The built-in repetition of words and phrases is one of the features of stories that is most helpful for language learning.

7) What new language is used?
   A story can include some new language in a story, but no so much that the story becomes incomprehensible.

It is also essential to remember in selecting a story that since children can identify with the characters and through the use of their imagination they become a part of the story, the teacher should try to choose a story that fits the children’s interests.

Bell (2006) also states that many authors, who deal with using stories in teaching to young learners, find stories to be useful for teaching a new language and character education. It can be summarized as follows:

- Language in stories has meaningful in context
- There are some natural context for repetition of language in stories
- Stories help to build a language system that learned by young learners
- Stories give the chance for young learners to use all 4 language skills
- Young learners can be aware of moral value after reading the stories

The Storyline may be used as an additional approach to the development of course books. Assessment of most course books reveals that different approaches may be used in presenting either new grammar or vocabulary. It will be hoped when the traditional linguistic teaching approach fails, this theory suggests several other ways in which the material might be presented to facilitate effective learning. So, learning a new language will improve the linguistic ability of young learners and also inject moral value to enhance process of their character building.

**Character Education**

According to Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in Berkowitz and Melinda (2005): definition of character education is teaching children about basic human values, including honesty, kindness, generosity, courage, freedom, equality, and respect. The goal is to raise children to become morally responsible, self-disciplined citizens.

The previous concept is related to the policy of National Education of Indonesia, year 2003, the purpose of education is improving of student’s capability in intelligence, good personality and behavior. The Government expected that by means of educations both formal and informal can build the character of Indonesian young generation. Education as a preventive solution in crisis character that happened in Indonesia, therefore character education integrated into curriculum of education. Finally, education can be able to cope in crisis of human character and culture who is appreciate in outlook Indonesian nationality, and religious (Dwirahayu, 2011).

To solve the crisis of human character in Indonesia, Indonesian government has sought to improve the quality education. It is indicated by a change in the education curriculum. Last curriculum imposed in Indonesia since year 2006 is KTSP, developed based on the following principles:

a. Centered on the potential, progress, needs, and interests of learners and their environment. To support of these goals therefore developing of student’s competence must be suit with the potential, progress, needs, interests and the demands of the environment.

b. Diverse and integrated. It means curriculum be developed by taking into account of diversity of characteristics, local conditions, levels and types of education, regardless of religion, tribe, culture and customs, as well as socioeconomic status and gender.

c. Responsive to the development of science, technology, and art, therefore spirit and content of curriculum can encourages students to follow and make the proper development of science, technology, and art.

d. Relevant to needs of life. It mean developing of curriculum should lead to interest of stakeholders to ensure relevance of education to needs of life, include of social life, business and work.

e. Comprehensive and sustainable. It means that substance of the curriculum include all dimensions of competence, field of study and subjects which is planned and presented for all levels of education.

f. Long life education. It means that focus of curriculum is process of development, cultivation and empower of students for long life.
g. Balancing of national and regional interests. It means that curriculum was developed by taking national and regional interests to build the life of society, nation and country (Dwirahayu, 2011:6-5) < http://eprints.uny.ac.id/942/1/P%2012.pdf

The principles has been formulated in *GRAND DESIGN PENDIDIKAN KARAKTER* (Character Education Grand Design) by Department of Education and Culture Indonesia as follows:

**Figure 3: Character Education Grand Design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Rumusan SKL (Formulation)</th>
<th>Nilai/Karakter (Character values)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Menjalankan ajaran agama yang dianut sesuai dengan tahap perkembangan anak</td>
<td><em>iman dan taqwa</em> (religious)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mengenal kekurangan dan kelebihan diri sendiri</td>
<td><em>jujur</em> (honesty)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mematuhi aturan-aturan sosial yang berlaku dalam lingkungannya</td>
<td><em>disiplin</em> (discipline)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Menghargai keberagaman agama, budaya, suku, ras, dan golongan sosial ekonomi di lingkungan sekitarnya</td>
<td><em>terbuka, nasionalistik</em> (nationalistic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Menggunakan informasi tentang lingkungan sekitar secara logis, kritis, dan kreatif</td>
<td><em>bernalar, kreatif</em> (creative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kemampuan berpikir logis, kritis, dan kreatif, dengan bimbingan guru/pendidik</td>
<td><em>bernalar, kreatif</em> (creative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Menunjukkan rasa keingintahuan yang tinggi dan menyadari potensinya</td>
<td><em>terbuka, bernalar</em> (open-minded)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kemampuan memecahkan masalah sederhana dalam kehidupan sehari-hari</td>
<td><em>bernalar</em> (intelligent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kemampuan mengenali gejala alam dan sosial di lingkungan sekitar</td>
<td><em>terbuka, bernalar</em> (creative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kecintaan dan kepedulian terhadap lingkungan</td>
<td><em>peduli, tanggung jawab</em> (responsible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kecintaan dan kebanggaan terhadap bangsa, negara, dan tanah air Indonesia</td>
<td><em>nasionalistik</em> (nationalistic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kemampuan untuk melakukan kegiatan seni dan budaya lokal</td>
<td><em>kreatif, tanggung jawab</em> (responsible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Menunjukkan kebiasaan hidup bersih, sehat, bugar, aman, dan memanfaatkan waktu luang</td>
<td><em>bersih, tanggung jawab</em> (responsible)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Berkomunikasi secara jelas dan santun</td>
<td><em>santun</em> (polite)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Bekerja sama dalam kelompok, tolong-menolong, dan menjaga diri sendiri dalam lingkungan</td>
<td><em>gotong royong, peduli</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. Menunjukkan kegemaran membaca dan menulis (gigih)

17. Menunjukkan keterampilan menyimak, berbicara, membaca, menulis, dan berhitung (bernalar)


This Character Education formulation is implemented in National Education of Indonesia as the base of character building in formal education level so that character education get a lot of attention in every subject.

Discussion

The research was conducted in VI C classroom SDNBI Kota Semarang, Indonesia on 8 Agustus 2012. There were 25 students with held by two teachers. It had subject English that discussed the Indonesian traditional short story, Bawang Merah and Bawang Putih. The topic of discussing was children attitudes toward parents.

Bawang Merah and Bawang Putih (Indonesian Folk tale)

Once there was a beautiful girl named Bawang Putih. She lived with her father, her step mother and her step sister. Bawang Putih mother had passed away. Bawang Putih step mother and her step sister, Bawang merah, didn’t like her. But they always pretended and act nicely to Bawang Putih if her father was at home. When his father was on duty, they thread Bawang Putih cruelly. They asked her to do all the house work while they sat and did nothing. Bawang Putih was very sad, but she couldn’t do anything about that. She couldn’t tell her father because her father didn’t know that.

One day, while her father wasn’t at home, Bawang Putih step mother asked her to wash their clothes in the river. Bawang Putih went to the river and started to wash all the dirty clothes. However she didn’t realize that one of her sister clothe floated to the river.

Then she went home. At home, her sister asked her, “where is my dress? Have you washed it?” “Yes, sister, of course” Said Bawang Putih searching the dress in her bucket.

“Where is it?” “I am sorry Sis, I lost your dress,” said Bawang Putih.

“Well you have to find my dress or mother will not give you dinner,” said Bawang Merah angrily.

Bawang Putih went back to the river, she tried to find her sister’s dress. She walked down the river bank and hoped that she would find the dress. Then she met a shepherd taking his cow a bath.

“Hello sir? Can I ask you a question?” said Bawang Putih “Sure, what up?” answered the shepherd.

“I lost my sister’s dress while I was washing our clothes, did you see it? It has white color, and makes from silk.” “I am sorry my dear, I don’t know.” Said the man.

Bawang Putih was very sad, and kept looking for the dress.
Then she met a woman washing clothes at the bank of the river
“Excuse me mam, did you see a dress floating in this river recently?”
“I don’t know my child, ask the old woman there, may be she knows it.” Said the woman.
“Thanks, mam.”
Bawang Putih approached the old woman and asked her. “excuse me, granny. Did you see a
dress floating on the river just now? I lost my sister dress while I was washing our clothes.”
“Does it have white color and made from silk?”
“I kept it in my house. Follow me dear…” said the old woman.
Bawang Putih followed the old woman to her house.
“please have a sit child …”
“Thanks granny, you’re very kind.” Not long after that.
“here is your dress”
“Thanks granny, thank you very much.”
“And this, take this watermelon I give it to you…”
“You’re very kind. How can I repay your kindness.”
Meanwhile in Bawang Putih’s house, her father was worry because she hadn’t come back. He
was angry to his wife and said why his wife pushed to look for the dress.
“Why did you have to push her to find the dress? I can buy Bawang Merah the same one,” said
Bawang Putih father.
Bawang Putih step mother was quiet and didn’t say anything, so that Bawang Merah.
Then, came Bawang Putih. “Oh Bawang Putih, are you ok?” said her father. “I am fine father,
and sis, here is your dress.” Bawang Putih Gave the dress to Bawang Merah.
“And mother, a granny who found Bawang merah dress gave me this watermelon, lets open it..”
Bawang Putih step mother took the water melon and cut it off. However there is no watermelon
flesh instead there were some jewelries in it. They were very surprise.
Bawang Putih step mother was very happy and she excepted that she would have another water
melon and find some jewelries in it so she asked Bawang Putih where was the old woman house.
The next day Bawang Putih step mother and Bawang Merah went to the old woman house. They
asked another water melon. They pushed the old woman rudely. At last the old woman gave her
water melon.
Bawang Putih step mother thought that she would not come back to her husband house, she
thought that it would be better to live together with her daughter since now she had lot of
jewelries.
Then they opened the water melon that they thought that filled with jewelries. However they
were wrong, there were no jewelries in the water melon, they found hundreds of poisonous
snake, and the snake bit them. They cried for help but no one heard them. After what happen to
her step mother and her step sister, Bawang Putih lived with her father joyfully.


After observing the using the Storyline approach in the VI C classroom. The writer and
colleague got some findings:

Basic skills, integration
In topic work using Storyline the students have to write their own text (that includes spelling, making sentences and writing); read text to get information (that includes reading and finding main points); describe in text and orally; tell others both parents and students (that includes being able to stand in front of people and talk and being organised); listen to each other; make poems about their feelings; provide themselves to be able to speak a new language that they have learned.

**Cultural Aspect**

Through story, there are many aspects of life that found in it. One of them is cultural aspect. Folk tales from around the world were created long ago to address the challenges of being human being. The folk tale gives us simple scenarios and solutions that anyone from any culture of the world can relate to. This realization in itself helps to build an essential quality of character. Every culture has folk tales, every child can find stories from their culture of origin. This is important to build character education for children, besides they learn a language.

**Interest**

This tells us that the first and probably the main challenge for teachers at school is to awaken their students interest toward what they will learn. If they are enthusiastic in knowing the subject, so it easy for them in learning process.

**Learner-centred**

Students becomes learner-centred because they find out their knowledge base on interested towards what they learn. When we ask first we also know what the students know, and can in that way decide where to start to add or as would be done using the Storyline method decide what key question should be asked next.

**Co-operation**

Cooperation in group work is an important factor in the Storyline approach. Therefore if the students have opportunities to practise their speaking ability in small scope. The evidence from this study strongly recommends not to have the groups too big except when the teacher is the leader. Three or four in a group is good and children also work very well in pairs.

**Storyline in Enhancement of Character Building to Young Learners**

It is important to note that children are the most important part in the process of storytelling. They identify with the main characters and they often imagine that they are a part of the story. There are numerous lessons for children to enhance character building through the use of a story telling in the teaching process. Below is a summary of the lessons and character education that are derived from our own experience as observers in one of classroom SDNBI kota Semarang, Indonesia:

- **(be active);** each child is involved in the learning process actively
- **(be self-confident);** everybody has a chance to express themselves
- **(be happy);** children are not stressed
- **(be tolerant);** they learn about team work
- **(be communicative);** they learn how to communicate
- **(be polite);** they learn how to listen to others
(be responsible); their emotional and social development grows
(be responsible and aware); they are able to make sense of the world
(be intelligent); stimulus to the imagination is on a high level
(be tolerant and creative); they try to find the right solution in a group, where everybody does not have to agree
(be responsible); they learn about real life through fairy tales and the use of fictional creatures
(be creative and intelligent); they learn from their own experience
(be responsible); they have to use their knowledge from other subjects
(be creative and self-confident); they learn to present their work and justify their ideas

Conclusion
Teaching English as foreign language to young learners is not easy. It forces teacher to be creative, enjoyable and rewarding if teachers feel that they have a creative part to play as designers of education. Finding interesting method which is suitable with curriculum needs creativity. Storyline is one of methods to all creative teachers who want something more for their students rather than follow course books. Storyline is able to offer main strengths: student -centered learning promoting excitemt and ownership; and an opportunity to develop not only the 4 language skills (particularly speaking) but also skills of enquiry, communication and character building which are key aims of Indonesian National Curriculum.

About the Authors:
Frimadhona Syafri: she is an academic staff in Semarang State University, Indonesia. Her some researches are related to methods of teaching English for Young Learners and Academic Language Function at Primary Schools.
Rini Susanti Wulandari: she is an academic staff in Semarang State University, Indonesia

References


