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## FOREWORD

This June edition marks a starting point for the journal as it is the first volume published. Six articles are presented in this edition, opening with Anna C-S Chang contribution on narrow listening as a subset of extensive listening. The second piece by Alistair Wood discusses the innovation and creativity in teaching listening. Then, Gumawang Jati's contribution on perspectives on ICT in teaching and learning listening & speaking in the 21st century become the third article**.** Following in fourth is Maria T. Ping's discussion on dialogic reading as a potential activity to facilitate the learning of listening and speaking skills. Kiren Kaur's questioning on teaching or testing listening become the next part. Bambang Yudi Cahyono's investigation of Indonesian efl students' speaking ability and writing proficiency across competence levels in terms of whether good writers speak better become the last article of the journal.

Thanks are extended to the authors, internal advisory board, associate editor, editorial board, and those involve in production. We hope you will enjoy the edition and look forward to your contribution.

Chief Editor

Junjun Muhamad Ramdani

## ABOUT THE JOURNAL

The Journal of Teaching & Learning English in Multicultural Contexts (TLEMC) is a freely accessible, full text, peer-reviewed journal allowing for the dissemination of ELT in these main areas: (1) Methodology in ELT, (2) Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL), (3) Language Policy and Curriculum, (4) Teacher Professional Development, (4) Literature in ELT, (5) Language Assessment, (6) Language Material Design and Evaluation, (7) Psychological and Sociological Influences on English language learning (8) World Englishes and, (9) Other related disciplines or areas of research.

This journal is intended for an international audience of elementary and secondary teachers, researchers, teacher educators, scholars, parents and instrucutors at tertiary levels who are concerned with the teaching and learning of English in varying contexts (such as families, classrooms, schools, colleges, universities, communities, countries etc.), whereby two or more languages are prevalently and extensively used by an individual speaker or a community of speakers.

TLEMC welcomes articles that are **original research papers** (both qualitative and quantitative studies), **conceptual papers**, and **classroom papers** that discuss different levels of education. TLEMC focuses on the impact of English language education in a multilingual context on an individual or/and the community's learning, development, knowledge, socialization, engagement, culture, advancement and all other related phenomena. These impacts should be explicitly explored and critically argued by contributors in making their conclusions and implications.

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# NARROW LISTENING: A SUBSET OF EXTENSIVE LISTENING

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**ABSTRACT**

Though narrow listening is not a new approach in developing listening competence, the effectiveness of narrow listening has hardly been reported in the research literature. Narrow listening refers to learners doing a large quantity of listening practice but focusing on the same theme or the same author's work systematically and consistently for a period of time. When they are familiar with one theme or one author's work, they move on to the next one. Narrow listening can be seen as another subset of extensive listening because both require learners to receive a massive amount of aural input. In this talk, I will discuss the advantages of using narrow listening in teaching L2 and how to choose materials for implementing narrow listening in an L2 listening course.

**Keywords**: narrow listening, extensive listening, narrow reading

## Narrow Listening: Where did it originate?

Narrow listening was first introduced by Krashen in 1996; however, the term was in fact extended from Krashen's own narrow reading (1981). Narrow reading is defined as reader focus on the work of single author or single topic over the course of a number of texts for an extended period of time (Krashen,1996; Schmitt and Carter, 2000). The concept of narrow reading perhaps can be applied to narrow listening as Krashen notes that narrow listening will be most useful for lower level L2 learners because they can take advantage of the background knowledge of the previous text to aid their comprehension of the present text. Narrow listening can, therefore, be seen as a subset of extensive listening because both require learners to receive a massive amount of aural input. To be more specific, extensive listening is a general term for listening to a massive amount of aural input for an extended period of time; however, its input features may involve several forms, such as wide listening and narrow listening. Both wide and narrow listening can be assisted or unassisted, such as supported by written print or pictures. They differ, however, in how materials are organized and studied. Narrow listening hence refers to learner focus on the same theme or the same author's works systematically and consistently for a period of time, and then move on to the next theme or author. In contrast to narrow listening, wide listening/reading means that learners randomly study whatever they like without particularly

focusing on any author or theme. In this talk, wide listening is used just to be in contrast to narrow listening. Like narrow reading, there are several advantages for using narrow listening in L2 learning. From the point of view of background knowledge, topical familiarity has been found to be helpful to comprehension. If learners are exposed to the same topic, they will become familiar with the same topic and will have better background knowledge for the input (see below). While listening with familiar background knowledge, they will be able to pay more attention to the linguistic features (Chang & Read, 2006, 2007). From the perspective of frequency of word occurrence and distribution, research has demonstrated that learners need multiple exposures to acquire a word; therefore, in narrow listening, key words in the relevant topics will recur, so learners will have multiple exposures to the same words and are more likely become familiar with these words and thus ease the lexical burden (Hwang & Nation, 1989; Schmitt & Carter, 2000). From the point of view of listening/reading fluency, if learners possess better background knowledge of a topic and are familiar with topical vocabulary, they are more likely to be able to process the input more efficiently and eventually become fluent.

**Narrow listening: Its advantages**

Listeners or readers often rely on two principal sources of information in the process of aural input: linguistic knowledge and background knowledge. Efficient comprehension requires the linguistic competence to link the textual information with one's own background knowledge. In the following, the role of the two forms of knowledge on comprehension will be reviewed and discussed.

***A. Enriching background knowledge***

Background knowledge may be defined differently in studies. For example, some researchers define it as general knowledge of a discipline while other researchers may define it as the knowledge of specific topics, e.g., the Hong Kong pro-democracy protest. Others may consider background knowledge as cultural knowledge or assumptions, such as English Boxing Day. A number of studies have established the relationship between background knowledge and ESL reading comprehension . Carrell (1983) posits that comprehension is an interaction of background knowledge and the text. The text itself does not carry the meaning; however, it provides directions for listeners/readers as how they should retrieve or construct the intended meaning from their previous knowledge. Nunan (1985) also pointed out that providing knowledge of the linguistic elements and then expecting the learner to understand any text materials encountered is inadequate; learners

must possess some fundamental schematic knowledge to achieve comprehension.

Many studies have demonstrated that background knowledge has a facilitative effect on learners' listening comprehension. For example, Markham and Latham (1987) investigated whether religious background influenced listening comprehension. Their study revealed that Christian-background students recalled many more idea units and details than Moslem-background ones on Christian passages, and vice versa. The neutral group, however, recalled fewer idea units and had fewer elaborations but had more distortions than either the Christian or the Moslem-background students. A comparable result was found by Teng (1996), who investigated senior high school students' listening comprehension with a familiar topic, the Chinese Dragon Boat Festival, and a less familiar topic, American Thanksgiving Day. These two studies revealed that religious and cultural knowledge did facilitate L2 listening comprehension.

Other research that looked at background knowledge of a discipline produced mixed results. For example, Hansen and Jensen (1995) investigated the effect of prior study of a topic. Positive results were confirmed in only five of the eleven lectures, and the significant prior knowledge variable was more likely to show up in technical lectures rather than in non-technical lectures. Consistent results were found only when prior knowledge related to students' religious and cultural backgrounds; other studies showed mixed findings. The inconsistent findings are not surprising because researchers used different ways to assess learners' knowledge; for example, the use of pretest measurements , pre-listening exercises, or questionnaires, and self-reporting. Moreover, different researchers used different approaches to measure students' listening proficiency. With these different variables mixing together, it is naturally difficult to conclude how familiarity with a topic or discipline affects listening comprehension. Though not all studies demonstrated positive or significant effect on improving listening comprehension level, the importance of background knowledge on listening comprehension is evident; and Chang and Read (2006) reported that providing EFL listeners with background knowledge of a topic is the most effective approach to enhance comprehension compared to repeated listening or teaching vocabulary. Therefore, it is desirable to organize the input that may better background knowledge and facilitate comprehension.

### *B. Repeated exposure of vocabulary in narrow reading*

The second important form of knowledge for comprehension is linguistic knowledge. One of the most important elements of linguistic knowledge is "vocabulary." What role vocabulary plays in narrow reading or listening has not been studied extensively, nor is it well known how it affects comprehension; however, some corpus-driven studies might

provide the profile of lexical distribution in wide versus narrow reading texts.

Some studies have shown that narrowly reading a series of related texts recycles vocabulary more effectively than randomly reading unrelated texts. For example, Hwang and Nation (1989) looked at the vocabulary load in the newspapers at two ways. One is selecting a story and its subsequent follow-up stories, and the other is randomly selecting newspaper stories. The stories in the former way are related, but those in the latter are unrelated. They analyzed 20 sets of four related stories (on the election in France in 1988) and 20 groups of four unrelated stories in order to compare the effect that the two ways of selecting stories have on the repetitions of words outside the 2,000 most frequent words. They found that selecting related stories had a major effect on repetitions outside the 2,000 most frequent words, and the density of new word families in the unrelated did not decrease as much as it did in the related stories. The density of word families in the related stories decreased statistically significantly from 18.0 in the first story 15.9, 14.9, and only 12.8 in the second, third, and the fourth story; however, the unrelated stories showed no significant changes, from 16.9 in the first story to 18.1, 20.1 and 18.1 in the each unrelated stories. In terms of the total repetitions of the word families outside the first 2,000 words, the results show that in the four related stories, only 62 word families were outside the first 2,000 words but there were 73 one in the unrelated stories. This study shows that reading related texts can reduce the vocabulary load and provide optimal conditions for acquiring advanced vocabulary.

A similar study was conducted by Schmitt and Carter (2000), who analyzed the vocabulary from two sets of articles containing the same number of running words (7,843). One set was from a series of nine newspaper stories about the death of Princess Diana, and the other set were nine stories randomly selected from the same newspapers. The study showed that the Diana-related stories contained 156 fewer types and that words were repeated more often than in the unrelated stories. Schmitt and Carter hence concluded that the reading of related stories lowers the lexical load for L2 learners, which might allow learners allow for earlier contact with authentic reading materials.

Sutarsyah, Nation, and Kennedy (1994) compared the vocabulary in an economics text and a set of 160 approximately 2,000 word unrelated academic texts. Both contain approximately 30,000 word counts. The analyses show that there were 9,469 word types and 5,438 word families occurring in the economics texts, whereas 21,399 word types and 12,744 word families occurred in the random academic texts. This meant that there are a larger number of word types and word families in the randomly unrelated academic texts than in the economic texts. The findings suggest that reading unrelated texts requires a larger vocabulary to understand than related texts about a single topic. The analysis also

shows that there were many more encounters with technical words in the economic texts than in the random texts. From the perspective of vocabulary load, the researchers further suggest that teachers or course designers should consider choosing only a few themes by using coherent texts rather than using a series of unrelated texts. If developing fluency is the focus of a course, they suggest narrowing the content focus by considering the use of one coherent text, which may allow learners to focus their attention on skill development, such as improving students' reading rates.

Gardner (2004) examined how the lexical differences between expository and narrative texts used by fifth grade elementary pupils could affect children's potential vocabulary learning through extensive reading. A total of 1,443,336 tokens from 28 narrative and 28 expository texts were analyzed. The analysis shows that narrative texts contain a greater proportion of general high frequency words than the expository ones, which implied that narratives require fewer lexical demands on children and thus provides a better condition for incidental acquisition. Apart from classifying texts by different discourse modes, Gardner also divided the texts into thematically related and thematically unrelated and found of the 32,913 total types in the corpus, 23,857 (72.5%) are outside the high frequency lists. Gardner thus claims that not all reading is the same. The choice of texts, themes —related or unrelated — can have a profound effect on the type of words the children can learn, the number of encounters with certain types of words, and the amount of prior vocabulary knowledge needed to actually learn new words during extensive reading.

In addition to printed materials, more recently, Rodgers and Webb (2011) looked at the potential of learning English words from viewing related versus unrelated television episodes. Rodgers and Webb (2011) analyzed 288 television episodes to examine the potential of learning English vocabulary from watching television. The scripts contain a total of 1,330,268 running words and had 203 hours of running time. Among the 288 episodes, 142 were related programs from a single season and 146 were randomly selected unrelated programs. They found that when the running words were equivalent in the two types of episodes, related programs contain fewer word families than the unrelated ones, and also the low frequency word families between 4,000 and 14,000 were 10 or more times likely to recur than the unrelated random program. Rodgers and Webb thus suggest that if a learner does not have high comprehension of television programs, it may be more effective for them to watch different episodes of a single program rather than single episodes of different programs. By doing so, they can accumulate the background knowledge and hence improve their comprehension.

These corpus-driven studies from analyzing newspapers, textbooks, narrative texts,

and television programs provide consistent evidence that texts on the same or related topic are more likely to have more encounters with specialized English words of that topic than unrelated texts do. Some empirical studies also provided evidence showing that L2 learners acquire more vocabulary knowledge through reading related texts than reading random ones (Cho, Ahn, & Krashen, 2005; Cho & Krashen,1994, Kang, 2015). For example, the four L2 adults, who read the *Sweet Valley* series for pleasure in Cho & Krashen's study, could pick up an average of 62% of the unknown words. Recently, Kang (2015) worked with two groups of senior high school students; one group read four thematically related articles on second-hand smoking, and the other group read four unrelated articles over a one-month period. Positive results further demonstrated that reading related articles led to higher gains than reading unrelated ones in acquiring both receptive and productive knowledge.

**Narrow listening: Some empirical evidence**

The study by Cho and Krashen (1994), is called narrow reading. Because this study was very successful, he then extended the concepts of narrow reading to narrow listening for his own Spanish learning (Krashen, 1996). He prepared a tape-recorder and asked a question to some Spanish speakers and recorded what they said. He then played back at his leisure and found it very comprehensible, helpful, and interesting. Following Krashen's method, Dupuy (1999) tape-recorded some short interviews by different proficient French speakers on the same topic and asked his students to listen to them and also filled out a questionnaire. His students reported that narrow listening is very interesting and very helpful in improving their listening comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, and confidence. Kimura and Ssali (2009) implemented a combined narrow listening and reading course on Japanese university freshmen. The first author taught listening by using a film based on a true story, *Hotel Rwanda*, as learning materials, and the second author taught reading using materials that were about Rwanda and Uganda. The study did not provide empirical data for the learning outcome, but feedback from students was very positive. Respondents particularly mentioned that language learned from narrow reading and listening was retained even after one year.

These above three studies have demonstrated that narrow listening is helpful; however, no empirical, quantitative data support the position, and no comparison groups and control group were involved in these studies, which are conditions that limit our understanding of narrow listening. As previously mentioned, narrow listening involves many characteristics that are different from wide listening. The differences may have a different effect on language learning and skills development, e.g., vocabulary learning and listening

fluency development

**Narrow listening: How do we do it?**

In this section, let us look at how to organize texts for implementing narrow listening for beginners or lower level students, who usually need more assistance and guidance than higher level students. There are many ways of organizing texts that language practitioners may consider when implementing narrow listening, for example, selecting texts by the same author, by the same genre, by the same title, or by the same linguistic level. Each way of organizing text may affect your students' comprehension to some degree. Let us take audio graded readers for example. As shown below, *The Elephant Man, Grace Darling,* and *The Mysterious Death of Charles Bravo* are true stories written by Tim Vicary. It has fewer word types than *Sherlock Holmes and the Duke's Son*, *Sherlock Holmes Short Stories*, and *The Last Sherlock Holmes Story,* which are written (simplified) by different authors though the three books are the same genre on crime. Another easy way is selecting the same title but published by different publishers. This has been found particularly effective for low-level students. For example, students may study *The Railway Children* published by Penguin, containing only 549 word types. After reading it, students can move on to *The Railway Children* published by Compass; it uses 1,029 word types, but students will not consider it difficult because they have had the background knowledge about the story; they can then easily guess the meaning of the new words. Finally, they move to *The Railway Children* published by Oxford Bookworms. It is longer, containing more details and using more word types. This way of input was well-received by lower level students because they do not have to change from one topic to another when they read a new book, so they can put more of their attention into acquiring linguistic knowledge and find the differences between each level.

**Word types in different text organization**

| | Level 1 | Level 2 | Level 3 | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Same author same genre—***The Elephant Man; Grace Darling; The Mysterious Death of Charles Bravo* | | | | |
| | 581 | 783 | 1060 | 1473 |
| **Same title—***The Railway Children* published by Penguin, Compass, and Oxford Bookworms | | | | |
| | 549 | 1029 | 1077 | 1507 |
| **Same genre different author—***Sherlock Holmes' and the Duke's Son; Sherlock Holmes Short Stories; The Last Sherlock Holmes Story* | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 680 | 784 | 1214 | 1642 |

In addition to using graded readers and their corresponding audio texts, which are more suitable for lower level students, there are many other interesting resources that can be considered for more advanced L2 learners, such as TED talks and BBC Learning English. Overall, to enhance L2 students' learning effectiveness, language teachers should guide their students to select appropriate materials for themselves.

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# INNOVATION AND CREATIVITY IN TEACHING SPEAKING

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**ABSTRACT**

The paper will examine the related ideas of innovation and creativity as applied to the teaching of speaking. It will describe how the teaching of speaking can move beyond standard ways of presenting and practicing the skill, whether at secondary or tertiary level. Creativity as presented means both on the part of the teacher and the part of students, since it demands that both teacher and students step out of their traditional roles and rethink what it means to speak in the classroom. Different types of speaking will be looked at, from conversation to oral presentations, as well as various ways of integrating teaching and the other language skills. Speaking will be related to more general ideas of problem solving and project work and other ways of harnessing creative ideas, as well as innovative ways of bringing in use of computers and online media to help in making speaking meaningful.

**Keywords:** Creativity, innovation, teaching speaking, levels of creativity

## INTRODUCTION

Everybody at the moment seems to be talking about the need for creativity in education, from the Government of Singapore to Rodney Jones and Jack Richards in their recently published book 'Creativity in Language Teaching: Perspectives from Research and Practice' (2016). That 'creativity' seems to be the word of the moment, however, should not necessarily make us reject the concept out of hand as just another buzzword which has nothing to do with what we do in the classroom. Buzzwords and movements come along because they meet a need, a lack that teachers have found in what they do in the classroom. So we should examine this concept, neither jumping on the bandwagon uncritically nor ignoring it just because it seems to be fashionable.

Just what is meant by creativity will vary enormously from writer to writer, teacher to teacher, but we do not need to spend a lot of time arguing over definitions. With such a multifaceted concept it is natural that any one teacher is going to have a slightly different idea of what constitutes creativity from her colleague. However, we can start with the idea that creativity must surely involve the production of something new that has not been seen before. That 'something new' must also be something functional or useful in some way, as otherwise the production of a meaningless string of letters like 'xpversepppptweterewrw' would count as being creative. So we will take our basic idea of creativity as being the production of something new and different that has some value.

How does this relate to English language teaching? As indicated above, it is clearly not associated solely with language teaching, still less English language teaching, but is part of all education. Nevertheless, there are several ways in which English language teaching is more closely connected to the concept of creativity than other areas of teaching and learning. To understand how, we have to distinguish several different aspects of creativity as it relates to English language teaching. The first of those is the idea of creativity in language itself. Language use in itself is creative, in the well-known sense going back

to Chomsky that every fluent speaker of a language is able to produce, or create, sentences which have never been spoken before.

## THE CREATIVITY OF LANGUAGE

As indicated, there is a basic sense in which much of language use is creative. All of us, in our native language or in a language which we know reasonably well, produce sentences every day which have never been produced before. Thus if I say the sentence 'The purple crocodile was shot by the pudgy hunter yesterday using a crossbow made in Littlehampton on 26th February 1922', it is fairly likely that this sentence has never been produced before. This sentence, though, however creative it might be in the Chomskyean sense, fails to be creative in the further sense that it is any way useful or valuable.

There is a further problem here which should strike us as language teachers. That is the point that we cannot expect our learners to be creative, even in this sense, all the time. For all of us, much of our everyday language use is not creative at all. We use formulaic utterances, like 'Good morning', 'You going for lunch?' etc. all the time. None of us produces new, unheard before, utterances all the time. Much of the time our language output makes use of standard utterances or more or less minimal variations on standard utterances. Our learners have to learn to produce such utterances correctly. However, they cannot be said to be using the language competently if that is all they produce. Producing only standard prefabricated set utterances is phrase book language, not real language.

So let us call the production of utterances that are more than simply set prefabricated language first order creativity. This means that the learner produces language that, for that learner, has never been uttered before. We are all familiar with this kind of language use. Our students produce this language all the time, in the kind of structural patterns of language work that occupy much of our time in language classes. Thus students practice, for example, the present perfect, and produce sentences like 'I have lived in London for 3 years.' This might be called creativity at the level of structure and vocabulary.

### Creativity and Communication

The above level of creativity is creative, however, only in the sense of producing utterances that have never been uttered by the student before. They are structurally correct and creative in the Chomskyan sense, but no more than that. They may not even be true or make any sense in context. As a reaction to this, the communicative approach that we are all familiar with insisted that language is used for communication, and that utterances should be communicatively meaningful. This might be called second order creativity, that the sentence is not only newly made by the student but fits the context and has meaning for the student in the context.

Notice, paradox though it might seem, that this second level of creativity is more tightly constrained than the first level. The first level of creativity merely has to be structurally correct, the second level has to be communicatively relevant as well. Thus in a sense, as pointed out by Tin (2013), when we are creative we sometimes have to increase the constraints. Leo Messi, for example, would not be so creative if he were not constrained by the rules of football and could just use his hands when he felt like it.

But even this level of creativity does not strike us as being truly creative. The utterance produced is appropriate to the situation and may never have been produced by

that particular student before, but it is not particularly new. The student may now be saying 'I have lived in Bandung for 6 years' instead of 'I have lived in London for 3 years' and it may be very well be true and relevant, but it is not creative in the sense of being a new utterance that has never been spoken before.

**Creativity in the Classroom**

What is it that strikes us as not very creative in the utterance 'I have lived in Bandung for 6 years', even although it might be true for that student and he has never said that sentence in English before? I think it might be the fact that although the student might not have said that particular sentence in English before, he might very well have said that is the same or similar in Bahasa. It is not something that he has not considered before, it is simply expressing in English what is a fairly banal everyday thought.

Now this sort of communicative use of English is necessary and it must be practiced, but it is not creative in the third sense that I want to suggest. This third level of creativity is when a student uses the language to produce language that is not just creative in the first and second senses but also creative in the true sense. In other words that language is new and valuable to the student because it is something meaningful to that student. 'I have lived in Bandung for 6 years' might be true and make sense in the context to the student, but if it is just a communicative drill then it is not creative. It is only third order creative when the student is saying something that is new and meaningful for them.

**Examples of Third Order Creativity**

How then do we get students to produce this third order creativity in the classroom situation? I will first of all give an example from my own work as an ESP teacher. I was given a group of students who were pre-medical students to teach, who were going to study in my university, but who were going to go to Australia after 3 semesters to study to become doctors. This course would start in 2 weeks, we would need to produce a course from scratch for them and we had never had premed students before (Wood & Head, 2004).

What to do? What I decided to do was to take advantage of the fact that these students were going to be doctors but had not yet started to do medicine. So they would get the chance to do medicine in our English class. What I got them to do was to divide into groups and each group give a presentation to the rest of the class on a particular disease or condition. The twist was that they were not allowed to say what the disease was, and the rest of the class had to listen, then go away and research and write a report saying what they thought the disease was and why.

Here the students were being third-order creative. They were producing language, in great detail, about a subject that they had never considered before, so they were learning new ideas themselves, and new skills, like how to differentiate between different diseases. They were also personally invested in the presentation, at various levels. They were acting like doctors, discussing the symptoms of disease, so acting at the professional level they were aiming for. The course was also structured as a PBL, problem-based learning, course, which is the framework used in our university and many universities around the world to teach medicine. In addition, they had the competitive aspect of trying to outwit the other groups and see if they could get them to guess wrongly without deceiving them. So they entered into the activity with great enthusiasm and produced very good high level work, because they were being creative at a high, but appropriate for them, level.

It might be argued that this is all very well at tertiary level with highly motivated medical students, but how can this be done at lower levels? This kind of presenting of a mystery topic, though, is one which could be done at any level. At secondary level, for example, students could present about a particular singer or sportsman that they admired and the class had to guess who it was. Because the students are interested in that particular person they are invested in the presentation and are being creative when they present, the constraint being that they have to hide the identity of the person being presented.

A feature of this activity is that the speaking activity is by one speaker or group but the rest of the class is also taking part by listening to the speakers. However, they are not only listening: they have a task which is also creative in that they have to solve the puzzle presented by the speakers. So the listeners are not just listening to understand and answer comprehension questions, they are also being creative in that they want to solve the problem presented and they will learn something by doing so. In the case of my students they also had further work in that they had to justify their decision and critique the presentation if they thought it misleading in any way. This is also being creative in that they are doing something with language that enhances their general medical learning and their self-identity as future doctors.

**Ascending the Levels of Creativity**

As mentioned, there are three levels of creativity in the model of creativity I am presenting, and all three need to be used. It is impossible just to operate at the third level of creativity, but equally we should not omit that level. So what needs to be done is to integrate all three orders of creativity, though not necessarily at the same time or every time. But for every class there should be all three levels, since students need to be able to handle structures, to communicate and to be truly creative.

How all three levels can be integrated can be seen in how we might teach, let us say, real and unreal conditionals. At the first presentation, there is no creativity involved, since students are simply learning the different forms and meanings of the conditional. Then the first level of creativity would be when students completed a conditional sentence with the correct forms. Given “If I became a dancer,....” the students complete the sentence. This is producing a new sentence with the correct forms, but there is no communication and no proper creativity, just the purely linguistic variety.

At the next level, communicative context is brought in, and so the students may be given a context to communicate in, e.g. directing a visitor to the school, as in “If you turn right at the end of this corridor,...”, after being given a spot in the school and a target destination. This is communicatively meaningful, but it does not engage the student at a really creative level since the student does not produce any kind of language that is really new and they have never thought before.

The third level is where the creativity really enters. To produce this level, we have to give a context to the students that will bring out what they have not fully described at all. This can be done in the context of real life or a game, that is not important. What is important is that the student comes out with new ideas. An example would be to get teenagers to describe what their life would be like if their dream boy/girlfriend came into their life. Give it a twist - if they had lots of money, if they had no money. What would they feel like if that person then left them? Get them to describe in detail their feelings. That is being creative in the sense that they are personally invested in the language and perhaps are exploring

ideas in depth that they had not examined before.

It is often thought that creativity in language classes involves the creative arts, normally creative writing, often doing thing like writing poetry. There is nothing wrong with this and it is possible to get students to do creative writing, e.g. writing haiku. However, creativity in this third sense is not restricted to just this sort of activity. It is quite possible, for example, to have creative speaking, even at a very basic level. Take for example, the standard beginners' activity of introducing someone to someone else using the structure 'This is x, she/he is my y', as in 'This is Mohammed, he is my brother'. A creative version of this with very young learners would be to give them various pictures of cartoon animals, and get them to introduce the animals to their partner in a pairwork activity. This lets them invent names and relationships, and is creative as they will never have thought about these animals before. Here of course there is a playful element that is especially important for young learners.

**Creativity and New Technology**

The title of this talk is innovation and creativity in English language teaching, but I have not mentioned innovation yet. Partly this is because I hope what I have been telling you is recognizable as somewhat innovative. Partly it is because I do not believe in innovation for innovation's sake. We should use new technology, for example, when it enhances our teaching, not just for the sake of it. With that caveat, we need to be aware of new technologies and use them where they can enhance our teaching.

As far as speaking is concerned, the Internet is not such a valuable resource as it is in teaching writing or listening for example, since the Internet is a visual medium. However, it can be used to gain access to lots of stimulating materials that can be used for speaking purposes. Most importantly of course the Internet is bigger than the biggest library there ever was, so there is a wealth of information and data that we can use in the classroom available to us. This means that project work is much easier than previously. It is possible to give students a presentation topic, have them research and present it in a much shorter time than previously. In terms of creativity, it means that students can access personally important information at the touch of a mouse. It also means, for example, that they can access visually stimulating examples extremely easily.

Many students nowadays of course access the Internet not via computers but via their smartphone. This means that they have Internet access right away in class. As a corollary, it means that you as a teacher do not need to be the only source of teaching materials. Students themselves can access the web, inside or outside class, and use the wealth of materials available there. Do not be afraid to let them access the web in class if they can. For my students at least, this is second nature to them. So rather than forbidding them to access the web, use it to your advantage.

Let us say for example that you are doing a lesson on 'My house', which describes the rooms in a house and similar ideas. Students can of course describe their own house, but you can extend it by getting them to go onto the web and find other houses to describe. This can be done for added interest but it could also be a way of avoiding embarrassment for some pupils who come from a poor background and are nervous about describing their own actual house. This can easily be a creative exercise if you get them, for example, to imagine that they are a few years older and give them a budget to buy a house. They then have to find a house on the Internet and describe it to the rest of the class. The class can

then vote on who chose the best house.

## CONCLUSION

Creativity, therefore, can be built into your lessons. You just need to get into a mindset where you think of all activities in terms of the three levels of creativity, creativity at the level of new language, creativity at the level of communication, and creativity at the level of new thinking. With every activity that you do, either in the textbook, or ones that you design yourself, work out what level of creativity it is at and then decide whether you need to add other levels to it. Very often you will find creativity at levels 1 and 2 already there, but you will need to add a level 3 activity to bring true creativity. Third order creativity is that where students produce something that is really new for them, not just in terms of language but also in terms of ideas. Since level 3 creativity brings in new thinking, it has the effect of really integrating the new language into the students' psyche. The student is motivated because the new language is not just new language but means something to them personally. For this reason, they will remember and it becomes part of them as a language learner, and, ideally, as a person as well.

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# PERSPECTIVE ON ICT IN TEACHING AND LEARNING LISTENING & SPEAKING IN THE 21ST CENTURY: BEYOND CLASSROOM WALL

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**ABSTRACT**

Rapid evolution of communication technologies has changed language pedagogy and language use, enabling new ways of learning, new forms of authorship, and new ways to teach beyond cognitive, classroom wall and curriculum. The first section of this paper identifies and discusses 3 major issues related to ICT: behaviorism, cognitive approach, and integrative ICT. Computer software and Apps for teaching and learning speaking & listening are discussed in term of their effectiveness. The second section discusses the development of ICT (Internet Communication Technology) in the 21st century and its common practice done by English teachers, especially in teaching listening and speaking. The third section discusses the implication for teaching and learning and what teachers and students can do beyond the classroom wall.

**Keywords:** ICT for ELT, Apps for ELT, Beyond classroom wall

## INTRODUCTION

Information Communication Technology (ICT) has played an important role in shaping the innovation in teaching listening. ICT provides great amount of resources to help students and teachers to get access to authentic materials for teaching and learning listening and speaking skills. There are variety of qualified materials for teachers to cater different students with different characteristics, i.e. preferences, interests, needs, and also learning styles. The authenticity of web-based resources can be a potential support for teachers in overcoming some problems with students' listening and speaking skills and preparing students to be able to cope with different listening and speaking situation in real contexts.

According to Pawlak, Waniek-Klimczak, & Majer (2011) the ability to speak in a foreign language is a difficult and arouse task; this is because the acquisition of speaking involves the mastery of different language subsystem to point that they can be employed automatically in spontaneous communication. Therefore one of the main functions of language teachers should provide as many opportunities as possible for their learners to develop their speaking skill in the target language. Then they ca interact with others under varied linguistics and social circumstances using such language subsystem appropriately and spontaneously. This is comprehensible in the sense that for many pupils the prime goal of learning a foreign language is to be able to speak it. This is essentially because many learners acknowledge that by being able to speak a foreign language, they are able to communicate with people of other countries, ethnic group race, and so on. Being able to speak a foreign language also builds their confidence, self-esteem, comprehension, and more (Vaseki, 2013). Factors affect successful oral language production includes the learners' ages, language knowledge and proficiency, and their motivation. Traditionally, the

teaching of speaking has taken place within formal classroom settings. Recently, with the rapid growth of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), computers and internet-based technologies play a more relevant role in teaching of the English listening & speaking skills and English in general. Thus, more and more English language teachers have opted for incorporating such emerging technologies into their everyday teaching as such "technologies can empower them as teachers and improve their teaching as well" (Smith & Barber, 2007, p. 11). This paper discusses the use of technology for listening in the first part and then for speaking in the next part.

## TEACHING AND LEARNING LISTENING SKILLS USING TECHNOLOGY

Nowadays, the use of tapes which was considered as "ideal playback machine for teachers' use" (Rixon, 1986, p. 132) have been extremely reduced. If not extinct, among teachers due to the availability of multimedia resources and advanced technology. Therefore the trend in the practices of teaching listening comprehension has experienced a lot of innovation throughout the time. Technology advancement provides support to learning environment for students' listening comprehension through multimedia which consist of visual, auditory and textual; information, also the interactivity of the resources. Teachers can help students develop their listening techniques by selecting different kinds of materials, using visual options on the screen, maximizing the interactivity of computer control and other features provided by the computer and interactive technology. Lynch (2009) points out the main benefits of using advanced technology in teaching listening is that technology offers more choices and control to students. Moreover, it allows students to adapt it in accordance with their own interest as well as their learning styles in terms of content, mode (audio/video) activity, task type, difficulty, support (subtitle/hypertext), sequence, time and pace. To illustrate the potential of websites, it is worth to see what Martinez (2010) have done. Martinez complied and categorized websites to be used for teaching listening into three categories, among others are websites which contain news in the form of audio, video and online radio, websites which speakers are not only native speakers but also non-native speakers. The followings are some interesting websites complied and describes by Martinez (2010), which are accessible through the internet in the form of audio and video (see appendix 1).

Film can also be a great recipe to pump up students' motivation. Students usually love to watch movies, and watching it together could be even more exiting for them. However, video watching cannot be the only activity for listening class. There should be a series of follow up activities to confirm students' comprehension or at least to get students' responses and feedback towards the video (see Appendix 2).

On top of this traditional materials, when talking about new technologies and listening comprehension, one of the first words we become familiar with is "podcast", the ultimate innovation in audio materials, not only for its quality but also because they can be saved and shared very easily. Podcast can be found all around the web, but you can find specific podcast directories, such as http://www.apple.com/es/itunes where you can find millions of podcasts about any topic of your choice by just typing key word on the search box. Other podcast directories are Podcast Alley (http://www.podastalley.com/) and Podcast Pickle (http://www,podcastpickle.com/). Alternatively, you can go for specialized websites which host podcast specially designed for language learners. Among the favorites such as http://www.eslpod.com or http://podcastenglish.com, where teacher and students can

listen, download the podcast and have access to a learning guide with complete transcripts, additional vocabulary, extra explanations, cultural notes and comprehension questions.

In teaching listening, students need to be exposed not only to the native speakers of English but also the non-native speakers of English. As in the real world students will encounter both situations. The following website provides listening materials both audio and video with exercise that can be done online. http://www.ello.org provides English speakers from all around the world, so we can practice accents in English as well.

In addition, to cater the students' needs, one of the things that teachers can do is t adjust the level difficulties to the students' proficiency level. Teachers need to design and create listening comprehension exercises and even provide transcript of the listening passage to give more help to the students. There are many real authentic listening (radio online and video streaming). Using real authentic materials means that there is no help of instruction on using them and implements them in the teaching learning process. The following are popular among young people, which can be used for beyond classroom activities.

- TED is nonprofit devoted to spreading ideas, usually in the form of short, powerful talks (18 minutes or less). TED began in 1984 as a conference where Technology, Entertainment and Design converged, and today covers almost all topics – from science to business to global issues – in more than 100 languages.
- World radio streaming such as www.tunein.com is also popular. TuneIn's website and free mobile apps offer users the ability to listen to streaming audio of over 100.000 radio networks and radio stations worldwide, including AF, FM, HD, LP, digital and internet stations. Additionally, over four million podcasts are available for streaming on TuneIn.

In short, the available readymade online materials for listening are in line with behaviorism where 'carrot and stick' principles are applied. However, some preparations need to be done when using authentic materials such as tune in radio and podcast.

**TEACHIING AND LEARNING SPEAKING SKILLS USING TECHNOLOGY**

The goal of teaching speaking skills is communicative efficiency. Learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. In other words, students need as much as language support and exposure as possible. Language learners need a variety of language experiences. They need to hear the language, write the language, speak the language and read the language. Technology has provided richer resource, greater access to resources, greater interactivity and greater opportunities for the students to manipulate and use language. When teacher adds sound of voice to text, especially when students can access it outside the physical presence of the teacher can give personalized touch to students' learning experience. Skype™ is a free computer program you can use to make telephone calls over the internet and that you can also use it to make conference calls and voice calls, to chat, and to transfer files. Furthermore, Abdulazer, Abdulazer & Diamond (2007) affirm that "Skype™ can dramatically alter how you exchange information, how you meet new people, and how you interact with friends, family, and colleagues" (p. 9). Godwin-Jones (200%) explored the use of Skype™ and podcasting for language teaching and learning purposes in online environments. Overall, he found that both Skype™ and podcasting can be considered "disruptive technologies" in

that they allow for new and different ways of doing familiar tasks and offer intriguing opportunities for language professionals and learners, as they provide additional channels for oral communication.

In recent years, internet audio has greatly increased in popularity. One recent example of internet audio, a podcast, is an audio file that anyone can create using a computer, microphone, and a software program. Once posted to the web, podcasts can be accessed, downloaded and played to a computer or MP3 player. The popularity of podcasts can be linked to their simplicity in creating, editing, publishing and listening to them. Using podcasting in contextualized language learning (as opposed to simple pronunciation drills) can also be useful in that it allows teachers to contextualize pronunciation and create meaningful tasks, rather than simply have students repeat and practice lists of words and sounds. Several tasks can focus on oral production, such as using audio diaries, conducting interviews with native speakers, and hosting talk shows where students "can record themselves and classmates for a classroom assignment and provide speech samples to the teacher for assessment. Students can record themselves or native speakers and then engage in listening practice as they focus on pronunciation, grammar use or intonation. There are so many websites and Apps that can be accessed which provide podcasts especially for language learning.

**Smartphone Apps for Practice Speaking**

After discussing the use of computer for teaching and learning speaking, there are also various ways to improve speaking skills using smart phones. These Apps are not intended for language learning but have many features that can be used for teaching. In this case teacher's creativity is essential. It is better to try them before using them for teaching or learning purposes (see Appendix 3).

Some language learning theories that can be used to design activities using technology are behaviorism and cognitivism, as mentioned above that most available and readymade teaching and learning materials in the internet are based on behaviorism. However, teaching and learning activities using the authentic materials from the internet need to be designed and can be designed using cognitivism theory. The cognitivist school believes that learning by doing, and help the students to make their own sense of what they are studying, and enable them to make the use of their learning in real life. Designing a project using several digital media is one example. This kind of activity can be enjoyable create more participation, concentration, persistence, and more cognitive engagement (Cameron, 2001). Similarly in utilizing mobile Apps, teacher can design activities which develop 21$^{st}$ century skills (Creativity & Innovation, Communication, &Collaboration, Research & Information Fluency, Critical Thinking, Problem Solving & Decision Making). The activities should enable the students to demonstrate creative thinking, construct knowledge, and develop innovative products and processes using technology (Wu, 2010).

**CONCLUSION**

Technology has provided richer resource, greater access to resources, greater interactivity and greater opportunities for students to manipulate and use language. When teacher adds sound of voice to text, especially when students can access it outside the physical presence of the teacher can give a personalized touch to students' learning experience.

Smart phones, bot iOS and Android provide rich resources in term of data so that the user can give voice commands and ask questions. The smart phone will provide data as instructed and also answer the questions. In other words, the users can practice listening and speaking skills with their smart phones. Teachers should revisit language learning theories, principles and teaching methodology and design activities using the appropriate technology, not the other way around.

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## Appendix 1

- http://news.bbc.co.uk is an extraordinary resource to watch the World News. It also offers us the written version of the news, so we can both listen and read or use the audio or the written texts with different purposes. For those who just want to have a quick overview of what is happening in the world, they can watch a short summary of the news by clicking on the option “One Minute World News”.
- http://www.voanews.com/specialenglish/index.cfm offers reports on World News and information on American Culture and History which students can either read, listen to it or do both, so as an independent learning tool, this site has ample opportunities for students. Particularly interesting is the program called “Words and Their Stories”, in which a five minute feature about American English words and expressions is broadcasted.
- http://www.lyrics.com , http://www.azlyrics.com , http://www.lyricsworld.com . Any of these three links gives you the lyrics for almost every song, a very useful tool if we want to use music in our listening sessions.

**Audioblogs and Podcasting**

- Text America portal for moblogging
- GoBlogGo site for posting images
- Audioblogger audio blogging service for Blogger software
- Audioblog.com podcast and videoblog publishing service
- Audioblogging in Chinese as a Second Language by Alaric Radosh
- Podcasts in French from podcast.net
- pieCast podcasts from the Partners in Excellence Project (Scotland)
- mgsOnline: Weblog, AudioBlog and Podcasting Development from the creator of the pieCast project
- Hopes for legal music podcasts rise from news.com
- mgsPodcast podcasts for language learning from Musselburgh Grammar School (UK)
- Report: podcast popularity to skyrocket from iPodNN
- Language learning podcasts from the National Centre for Languages (UK)
- ELF Practices from A. P. Campbell, includes ideas on using audioblogs
- Setting up a High-Tech Language School discussion on Slashdot
- The everyday creation of media by everyday people from edugadget
- The concept of making media as a basic life skill from Eric Rice
- Really Learn Spanish podcasts from Johan van Rooyen
- The Promis of Podcasting (PDF) by Susan Manning
- The Bob and Rob Show podcasts for English learners
- RSS Readers software for "synidcated" podcasts
- Third of US iPod owners now podcasting report on a survey from the Pew Internet and American Life Project
- Mozilla says Thunderbird podcasting is on its way from silicon.com
- Podcasting with Your iPod Photo how to sync images in podcasting
- Podsites using iPod's Note Reader with podcasting
- TextPODcasting with iPod Notes how to guide
- Turn Your iPod into an Ebook Reader ideas for using note reader on iPods for education
- Autocasting from wikipedia, on using text-to-speech for podcasting
- Talkr converts text-only blogs for podcasting
- Feedpod text-to-speech newsfeed reader
- Audacity free, cross-platform sound editor

## Appendix 2

- http://www.youtube.com This is undoubtedly the most visited webpage for videos. Students are very familiar with it, so they will know very well how to use it. You can find almost anything here by just typing the topic of your choice on the search box. (Martinez, 2010)

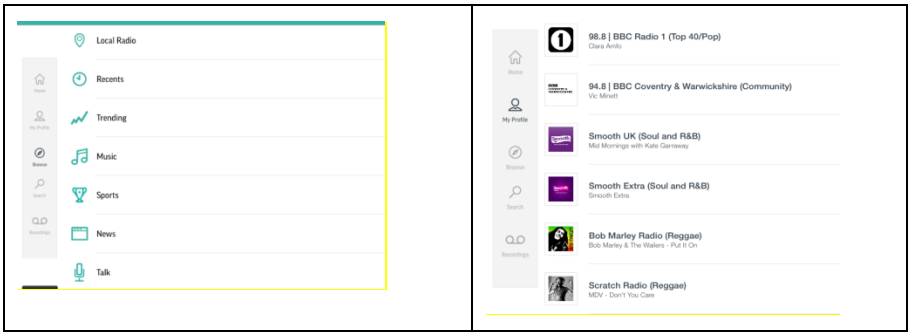
- http://www.script–o–rama.com offers us both full transcripts and scripts from films, a very useful material which provides not only a written version of the audio material, but also excellent sociopragmatic information that we can use in many different ways.

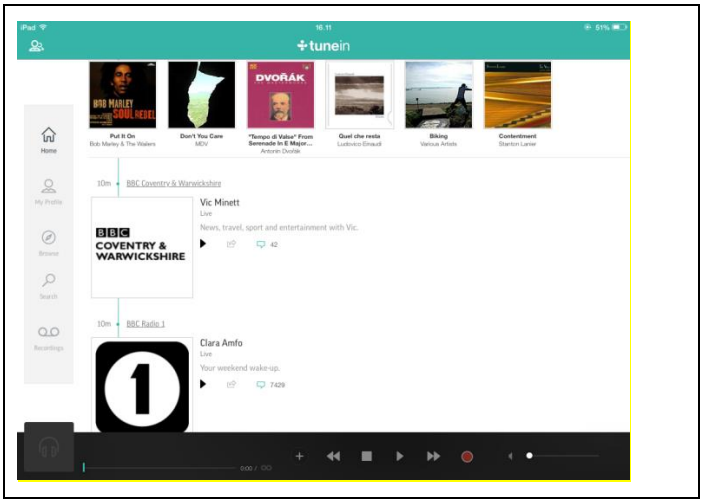
- http://www.movieweb.com/videos provides us with very detailed information about films which can be used for pre– or post–listening activities, such as information about actors, summary of the film, pictures of the characters and different scenes, videos, trailers, the official film web page, the soundtrack of the film, etc.

## Appendix 3

### Online Radio Website or Application

The use of online radio website or application on Android or iOS can be an essential tool in supporting students' oral skill. For receptive skills development, the online radio can provide opportunities for students to listen to a variety of speakers on a variety of topics in a variety of genres – dialogs, news, advertisements, talk show, comedy, interviews, lectures, stories, songs, poems and many more. If the students do not have the gadget or difficult to get internet access, teachers can spend time recording new material for listening, speaking and pronunciation practice and testing. By using apps such as Tune in Radio, Pandora, Stitcher or many other available apps, teachers and students can choose any programs from many different Radio stations all over the world and get exposed to English spoken in the real communication context be it native or non-native speakers.






*Choices and List of Station in Tune In Radio*

**Voice Recorder**

In the EFL Speaking and pronunciation classes, students can record their interviews or their own voices on a regular basis. Voice recorder can be found in Smart Phone, Laptop, and Tablet or even in the not-so-sophisticated cellphone and is still the most convenient means of capturing voices for evaluation and analysis. One of the outcomes of using this technology is that teachers can collect the files of students' recorded voices, spend a fair amount of time listening to them, analyzing students' spoken English and recording and writing down comments and corrections. Teachers can also spend time recording listening and speaking materials for the students. The positive side for students is that they receive individualized instruction and guidance from someone who is a model speaker, so ideally both the message and the medium are valuable and promote the learning.

**Video**

Video is a step up from audio recording. Playing pre-recorded video provides the audio visual information that helps students observe, understand and imitate oral communication, from language expressions, gestures and distance between speakers, not to mention other cultural, behavioral, and sociological aspects of language. Teachers can also utilize video camera to record students' interactions and oral presentations. Again, recent technology can ease the process of video recording as most smartphones and tablets are now equipped with video camera feature. This is worth doing because, if a picture speaks a thousand words, a moving picture speaks a million. Self-recorded video provide speakers with a view of themselves that they do not otherwise have, and it gives them a stronger basis for evaluating their performance and setting goal for future learning.

**Voice mail or voice chat**

Voice mail and voice chat are probably wondering, the kind of technology is good for students but not so time-consuming for teachers. To get students do oral assignments than can be heard and assessed but need no direct oral responses, teachers can assign voicemail homework. Listening to instructions on a voice mail system and leaving messages are skills that help students in "real life". In addition, students can record a message, review the message, delete and record the message, again and finally save it and exit the system. The benefit to the students is the get listening and speaking practice and life skill practice as well. The benefit to the teachers is that the length of the message is limited, teachers can access the voice mail box from any location, there is no gadget to carry around and teachers do not need to record oral response. Teachers can listen to each message, jot down notes and scores. Using voice mail assignment can be less time

consuming for the teachers. The corollary is that the students get less corrective feedback – but they have done speaking practice.

Some mobile applications such as Whats App or Blackberry messenger are now equipped with the feature of voice messages. Teachers can set up a special Whats app or BBM group and assign a task in which students are expected to response using the voice message.

***Siri***

Siri is a personal assistant that resides on iPhone 4S. Siri responds to voice (words you speak) rather than requests typed. The user can can talk to iPhone 4S to perform a range of tasks (employing speech-to-text translation), the user also hear Siri's human-like voice talk back at the user (text-to-speech technology). Siri is automatically built into the iPhone 4S, no need to download anything to get going.

Siri can help user perform a number of tasks on iPhone 4S much faster than typed them. Such tasks include things like:

- Sending e-mails and text messages
- Finding specific messages in inbox
- Having texts read
- Having spoken words transcribed into text
- Using the built-in Wolfram|Alpha database to quickly find useful information, such as dictionary definitions, mathematical equations, measurement conversions, or even fast facts and pop culture references
- Searching the web for anything and everything, including info and media (such as photos and videos)
- Posting updates to Facebook and Twitter
- Making and accessing notes
- Getting directions from point A to point B, using the iPhone 4S's GPS radio
- Finding businesses nearby — including directions on getting there — be it gas stations, banks, or restaurants; many businesses are also displayed by rating
- Making phone calls and FaceTime video calls
- Getting real-time information on weather, stock quotes, and much more
- Accessing music and podcasts using voice, including the ability to control audio playback adding and accessing calendar appointments, alarms, timers, and reminders


Give Siri a task, such as a reminder about an important date.

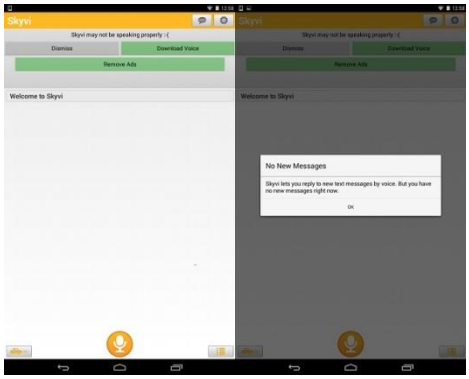
Unlike other speech-to-text technology, including those offered by other smartphones, Siri works on the operating system level and knows which app to open based on request.

Using advanced artificial intelligence (AI), Siri makes connections based on your relationships, uses humor to make you smile, and is eager to learn more about your world and how to make your life easier to manage.

**Android Platform Apps**

There are similar and some even better apps available for Android platform that can also be used for teaching and learning . Below is a list on the Android platform.

Skyvi (Siri like Assistant)

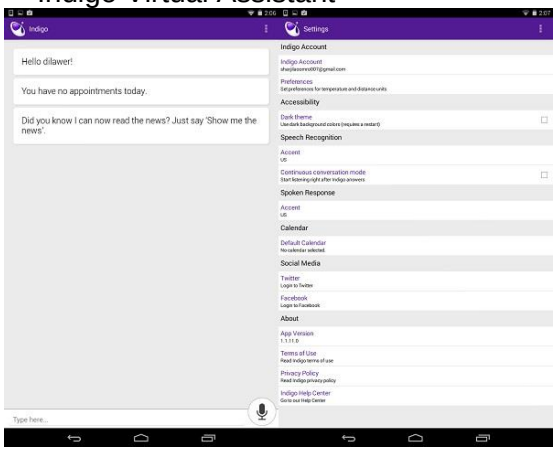



This one literally says “Siri like Assistant” next to its name. It is one of the most simple and easy to use virtual assistants available for android smartphone. This app offers all the features expected from a solid virtual assistant. The best thing about the app is the simple and straightforward user interface that lets newcomers easily navigate the app. User can make calls directly with voice commands, user can reply to texts with voice, and find maps/routes with the help of Skyvi. Finding any contact and calling them with the help of Skyvi is as easy as eating a pie.

EVA Free – Voice Assistant

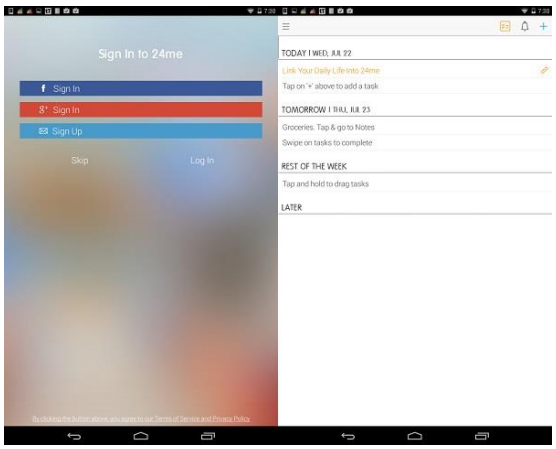

EVA is a solid contender in the virtual assistant market but the interface is a bit confusing for a newbie, however, once user is familiar with the overall user interface of this amazing virtual assistant it will become one of the best assistants for the user. EVA reads back to user quickly so user can get answers as quickly as possible. The app provides user clear and easy to understand instructions so user can easily navigate through the app’s layout. User get to learn everything and every feature EVA has to offer in the tutorial. The free version is actually a fully paid app but it only lasts for 28 days after that user have to buy the full app.

Indigo Virtual Assistant




Indigo Virtual Assistant provides the best user interface out of all the virtual assistant apps available in the Google Play store. User can easily navigate through this app and perform any tasks required. Indigo Virtual Assistant even helps user find the closest train stations, bus stations, and even lets user search for YouTube videos directly from the app within seconds.

24me: To-Do, Task List & Notes

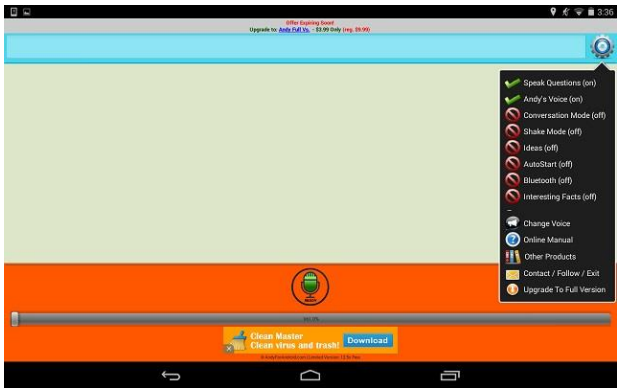



This app is not a virtual assistant per se but it offers good features. 24me is the best personal assistant on android phone and it automates all tasks. It learns everything about user from schedule, calendar and social media apps. After getting to know user, it starts generating personal schedules so user can keep track of daily activities. It reminds user of what tasks that are coming up next and best of all, it even wishes user friends on Facebook automatically on their birthdays. This assistant makes it really easy for user to collaborate with anyone, anywhere in the world.

Jeannie

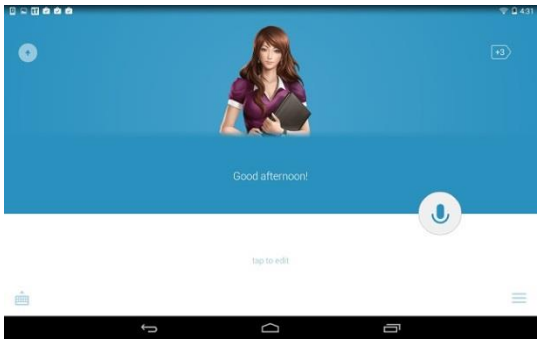

The best thing about Jeannie is the fact that user doen't have to remember any special keywords to activate it, user can just speak naturally smartphone and it will understand everything user says and perform the tasks ordered. It will even translate commands into different languages. The advanced voice recognition system recognizes user's voice commands even if user is not a native English speaker which is a great feature to have in a virtual assistant app.

Andy (Siri like Assistant)



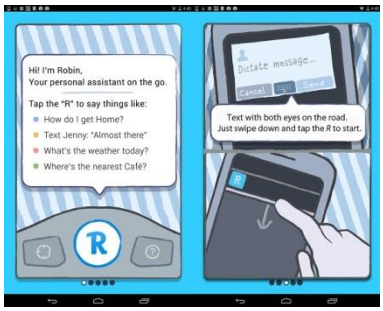

Here we have another app with "Siri like Assistant" next to its name. Well, it sure does perform a lot of stuff as quickly as Siri but the interface looks a bit different from the original iPhone assistant. Andy brings a simple and hassle-free interface for the user so you can quickly perform different tasks with your voice. Best thing about Andy is the fact that it gives you real time directions when you are driving and you can also talk about casual stuff with it as well. Andy tries to answer all your questions no matter how weird or funny they actually are. The paid version of Andy offers even more features that make your whole virtual assistant experience much more smoother. Andy also brings you detailed information from sites like Wikipedia, etc.

Assistant with talking alarm



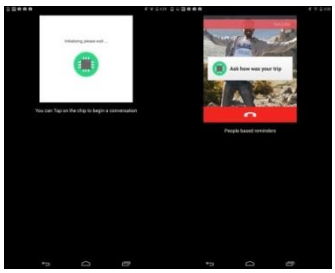

Don't judge this one by its name. The name sounds a little odd and it seems as if this is one alarm clock app instead of a virtual assistant. However, that's not the case because this is one advanced virtual assistant for your android smartphone. The best thing about assistant is that you can choose an avatar or make your own and it will be the appearance for your assistant. You can then talk to it naturally and have a conversation. It will perform different tasks that you want, launch apps, connect to different internet services, and you can speak in plenty of different languages because this assistant understands a large collection of different languages from around the world including but not limited to, English, Spanish, French, Germany, and many more.

Robin – the Siri Challenger




You may have already noticed that this is the only app that uses "The Siri Challenger" instead of "Just like Siri" in its description which means that it's going to give Siri a good run for its money. Robin is the perfect companion for you when you are on the road because it brings you everything you need when behind the wheel without having to look at or touch your phone at all. It gives voice directions, nearby locations of interest, GPS locations, gas station information, weather reports, and even cracks a few jokes to make you laugh while on the go. She keeps learning about you on daily basis and constantly evolves to suit your needs. You need a parking spot in a crowded area? Robin has got you covered.

Jarvis



It’s not the same Jarvis that Ironman uses in the Marvel movies but still it’s one of the coolest virtual assistants you will ever download on your android phone. Jarvis talks to you like a friend and keeps you updated with the latest news. Apart from performing all the basic tasks on your android phone, Jarvis can also control your phone settings and perform simple tasks that would otherwise take you a bit of time. It can turn on your WiFi, Bluetooth, phone’s flash, play songs, and many more functions with just a quick voice command. Jarvis also runs on your Android wear devices if you own one.

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# DIALOGIC READING AS A POTENTIAL ACTIVITY TO FACILITATE THE LEARNING OF LISTENING AND SPEAKING SKILLS

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**ABSTRACT**

This paper will address the potentials of implementing a modified version of a particular shared book reading activity called 'Dialogic Reading' as an alternative activity to facilitate the learning of listening and speaking skills of EFL learners. Dialogic reading itself is defined as a form of shared book reading activity in the form of a dialogue between the readers (usually between or among adults and children, both in a one-on-one or a small group reading setting). To date, the existing studies have indicated that Dialogic Reading is an effective activity for young learners to learn basic reading skills, vocabulary, oral language and narrative skills (Whitehurst, 1992; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2002; Ping, 2014; Ping & Syamdianita, 2015). However, considering the highly interactive, input-rich, multimodal learning environment that Dialogic Reading brings, this activity can also possibly be adapted and modified to facilitate the learning of listening and speaking skills for learners of different age groups and levels. Therefore, in this talk, I will discuss firstly the conceptual framework and then report the recent empirical study on the implementation of Dialogic Reading to improve young adult EFL learners' receptive and productive skills I have been conducting starting early this year.

**Keywords**: dialogic reading, listening, speaking, input, multimodality

## INTRODUCTION

Reading has been long considered as playing a key role in learning.Harmer (2007) states that reading is beneficial not only for careers, study, and pleasure, but also for language acquisition in terms of providing a good model for writing, providing opportunities to study vocabulary, grammar, and punctuation, as well asdemonstrating the way to construct sentences, paragraphs, and whole texts. In a rather similar manner, Mikulecky (2008) also mentions that reading is the basis of instruction in all aspects of language learning: from the use of textbooks for language courses, as a writing model, to being an instrument for developing vocabulary and acquiring grammar.Moreover, while reading is mostly associated with writing due to their similar mode/ form, it is also connected with the development of the other two language skills, namely listening and speaking, as argued by Krashen and Terrel (1983) that reading makes a contribution to overall competence, to all four skills of the language.

A number of studies have been done in order to investigate the connection between reading and listening. The two skills belong to the 'receptive' skill group, which share to some extent a similar process namely 'comprehension' (Brown, 2011). One of the techniques combining these two skills is'Listening-while-Reading' or 'Reading-while-Listening' (RWL), which has been introduced and researched in the current years. Reading-While-Listening (RWL) is defined originally as a practice used to develop fluency in listening by involving reading (McMahon, 1983 in Askildson, 2011). This activity is mostly done by

using prerecorded audio books played in conjunction with silent reading of the written text. The written texts are used to assist listening comprehension by giving learners more access to identify the letter-sound relationship. In addition, learners are introduced to the spoken rate, rhythm, and the natural flow of the language (Chang, 2009). However, the implementation of this technique has suggesteddifferent findings. While it was indeed indicated thatlearners enjoyed Reading-while-Listening activities and there were gains in comprehension (Brown et al, 2008; Chang, 2009, Chung, 2009 and Woodall, 2010), it was also found that there were no significant gains in vocabulary acquisition after learners did the RWL activities (Brown et al, 2008).

Meanwhile, concerning the interconnectedness of reading and speaking skills, it is argued that activities which integratereading and speaking skills will “deepenlearners’ understanding of the reading material, reveals any problem they have understanding a text, and, most importantly, lets them apply the information they have read into authentic speaking practice that improves their fluency (Zhang, 2009). It is further implied by some experts that for spoken English the best reading materials are dramas, plays and dialogues. Moreover, using authentic texts has a positive effect on learning the target language by developing communicative competence as it is real language created by native speakers of the target language in pursuit of communicative outcomes (Little et al, 1989; Lee, 1995, Peacock, 1997 cited in Mart, 2012). In this way, reading has been viewed as input or model for developing the two language elements which are also crucial for speaking skills, namely grammar and vocabulary. Hence, such a reading activity as Extensive Reading is also deemed as potential for supporting speaking skill development (Mart, 2012).

In the Indonesian EFL context, a number of conceptual frameworks and empirical studies have been published regarding reading instructions and reading skills of learners. Yet, to date, there have been only limited number of efforts addressing the use of reading to support the development of other language skills in particular. Among these few are Hadi (2006), Pardede (2011) and Manurung (2014). Hadi (2006) proposed the implementation of reading-based classroom activities to developthe communicative competence in English. He further argued that “reading-focused activities stimulate confidence for Indonesian learners to get involved in listening, speaking, and writing related-activities in ways that are similar to normal daily life communication”. However, he did not specify further yet which technique and procedure to be implemented. Pardede (2010)offered a more specific technique to combine reading and speaking skills; that is by using short stories. He argued that usingshort stories, among other literary genres, seemed to be the most suitable choice because this might help enhance learners’ four skills development more effectively due to the motivational benefit embedded in the stories. Furthermore, in a more recently conducted empirical study, Manurung (2014) applied a particular technique called ‘TIRS’ (*Teaching Integrated Reading- Speaking*) to solve speaking problems of learners in an EFL class using contextual internet-based instructional materials.

Responding to this current limited discussion on reading and its potentials for facilitating the learning of other skills, especially the oral and aural skills (listening and speaking), an alternative activity named ‘Dialogic Reading’ is proposed in this paper. Dialogic reading itself is defined as a form of shared book reading activity which involves a dialogue between the readers. So far, the body of literature has indicated that Dialogic Reading is beneficial especially for young learners to learn basic reading skills, vocabulary, oral language and narrative skills (Whitehurst, 1992; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2002; Ping, 2014; Ping & Syamdianita, 2015). However, considering the highly interactive, input-

rich, multimodal learning environment that Dialogic Reading brings, this activity can also possibly be adapted and modified to facilitate the learning of listening and speaking skills for learners of different age groups and levels. Therefore, in this paper, it will be explained further both the conceptual framework of modifying Dialogic Reading to enhance young adult learners' listening and speaking skills as well as the implementation of the technique in the real instructional context.

## DIALOGIC READING

### History of Dialogic Reading

Dialogic book reading was firstly developed by Whitehurst and his colleagues from the Stony Brook Reading and Language Project in 1988 (cf. Whitehurst, 1992; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003). It took into account the underlying theories which argued that "practices in using language, feedback regarding language and appropriately scaffolded adult- child interaction in the context of picture book reading all facilitate young children's language development" (Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003). Dialogic book reading is formally defined as a reading situation in which adult and child switch roles so that the child learns to become the storyteller with the assistance of the adult who functions as an active listener and questioner (Trivette and Dunst, 2007).

In this specific type of reading activity, adult and child have a conversation about a book (Whitehurst, 1992). The adult's role is to help the child become the teller of the story. In other words, the adult becomes the listener, the questioner and the audience for the child. This is done due to the premise that "children learn most from books when they are actively involved" (Whitehurst, 1992).

### Dialogic Reading Strategies: PEER and CROWD

The interaction between the participants in a dialogic reading activity includes the sequences in which: 1). The more capable participant prompts the less capable one to say something about the book; 2). evaluates the responses; 3). expands the responses by rephrasing and adding information to it, and 4). repeats the prompt to make sure the less capable participant has learned from the expansion. These strategies are referred to as "PEER", an acronym of the first letters of the four strategies (Whitehurst, 1992).

In addition to 'PEER', there are also some questioning techniques particular to dialogic book reading, namely the 'CROWD' strategies. The CROWD strategies or techniques comprise of different prompts. First, there is a "Completion prompt", in which there are fill-in-the-blank questions. The second one is a "Recall prompt", in which there are questions to recall aspects of the books or the stories being read. The third one is called an "Open- ended prompt", which includes statements that responses to the book in the participants' own words. Then, there is a "Wh- prompt", making use of what, where and why questions. The last one is called a "Distancing prompt", including the questions that require the participants to relate the content of the book to aspects of life (Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003). These techniques of dialogic book reading have been employed and researched in terms of the effectiveness and all findings indicated that dialogic book reading had positive effects on the oral language and emergent literacy skills (Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003).

*Dialogic Reading and Language Learning: Evidences from Existing Empirical Studies*

There have been a number of studies done concerning the effectiveness of dialogic reading. Trivette& Dunst (2007) conducted a meta-analysis study comparing the three types of book reading practices in terms of their effectiveness. They collected relevant studies concerning the three types of book reading practices. There were thirteen studies examined in three syntheses. Out of the thirteen studies, six discussed dialogic book reading, four discussed interactive book reading and three discussed shared book reading. Their findings showed that types of reading interventions that more actively involved learners would likely brought about more positive benefits. Thus, the two interventions that were considered as the most effective were dialogic reading and interactive shared book reading. These two types of book reading made use of various techniques and strategies which stimulated learners to participate by asking questions, prompting descriptions, asking for elaboration and completing part of a story. Furthermore, between these two types, dialogic reading was found to be the more structured procedure (Trivette& Dunst, 2004).

The findings of the study by Trivette & Dunst (2004) confirmed those of previous studies which were conducted by such researchers as Whitehurst (1992); Lonigan & Whitehurst (1998); Hargrave & Sénéchal (2000), and Cutspec, (2006). De Temple & Snow (2003) agreed with this by stating that interactive and dialogic book reading provided richer semantic contexts for novel words which tended to last longer than straight reading.

Previous studies have indicated that book reading activities are related to young learners' vocabulary development and grammar learning. De Temple & Snow (2003) stated that book reading activities can provide a context where rare and complicated words can be introduced and explained to young learners with the support of pictures and texts. In addition, Zevenbergen & Whitehurst (2003) and Ping (2014) argued from their studies that dialogic book reading contributed to young learners' vocabulary gain and learning. This could be found in this study as well, where some examples of potential vocabulary learning were observed. Furthermore, concerning grammar learning, dialogic book reading activity could also bring a potential context. Valdez- Menchaca & Whitehurst (1992) in their study indicated that children involved in dialogic reading programmes excelled in terms of sentence complexity and variety in their use of nouns and verbs. Similarly, Ping (2012) found some similar situations in which grammatical aspects were introduced by the teachers to the young learners during dialogic reading activities that she observed. To sum up, all these studies imply that the strategies and interaction during dialogic reading could provide potential learning contexts for young learners, both for vocabulary and grammar.

## EFL ORAL AND AURAL SKILLS

### Listening Skills and Teaching Listening

Listening or aural skill is one of the earliest language skills acquired by normally developed learners of any languages. According to Richards (2008), listening was firstly viewed as "the mastery of discrete skills or microskills, such as recognizing reduced forms of words, recognizing cohesive devices in texts, and identifying key words in a text" and hence the focus of teaching listening should have been formed based on these skills.

As views on this particular language skill were developed further,some notions related to the field of cognitive psychology suchas the bottom-up and top-down processing as well as the role of prior knowledge and schema in comprehension were taken into consideration.Current views of listening hence emphasize the role of the listener, who is

seen an active participant in listening, employing strategies to facilitate, monitor, and evaluate his or her listening.

In connection with the views on listening as discussed above, Richards (2008) divided the teaching of listening into two perspectives, namely 'listening as comprehension' and 'listening asacquisition'. 'Listening as comprehension' is the classic view of the main function of listening, which is to promote the understanding of spoken discourse. In other words, the role of learning listening is to enable learners to understand things they listen to. While, 'listening as acquisition' takes into account the importance of listening to facilitate the process of language learning itself. As Schmidt (1990) stated that nothing could be learned from the input one hears and understands if one does not notice anything about the input itself. He further differentiated between *input* (what learners hear) and *intake* (the part of input that the learners notice), arguing only the latter contributes as the basis of language development.

Therefore, according to Richards (2008), the teaching of listening should also consider these two standpoints. The teaching of 'listening as comprehension' might require in the first place the understanding of the top-down and bottom-up processing as well as metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Some specific activities that can be implemented in the teaching of listening which focus on developing comprehension are sequencing tasks, true- false comprehension tasks, picture identification tasks, summary tasks etc. Whereas for 'listening as acquisition', learners should be engaged in such activities that enable them to make use of the newly noticed language forms so that those new forms can be integrated in their linguistic repertoire, such as noticing activities and restructuring activities (Richards, 2008).

**Speaking Skills and Teaching Speaking**

As an essential skill to acquire in learning any languages, speaking is formally defined as "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney, 1998). Some notable experts have also tried to designate the functions of speaking; for instance, Brown and Yule (1993), who assigned the functions of speaking into two, namely 'interactional' (talk as interaction) and 'transactional' (talk as transaction). Richards (2008) added another function to these already existing divisions, namely 'talk as performance'. Interactional function or the 'talk-as-interaction' function is mainly what is referred to as a 'conversation', which, quoting Richards (2008) 'serves primarily a social function'. Transactional function or 'talk-as-transaction'is defined as the type of talks inthe situations where the focus is on what is said or done. In other words, the emphasis is made on delivering the message as understandably and accurately as possible rather than interacting socially. Meanwhile, Richards' additional function of speaking i.e. 'talk as performance'refers to public talk, the type of talk which delivers information to the audience e.g. morning talks, public announcements, and speeches (2008).

These three main functions of speakingbring forth some implications for teaching speaking. Richards (2008) argues that there are basically two important issues to considerwhen planning for teaching speaking activities, namely speaking skills to focus on and teaching strategies to use. Richards further mentions some techniques that can be implemented to teach speaking according to each function. For instance, to teach 'talk-as-interaction', activities which involve naturalistic dialogues (dialogues with daily life related themes), the use of conversation starters and personal recounts are encouraged. While

teaching talks as interaction might be deemed as rather difficult due to the complexity of interaction itself, teaching talks for transaction is slightly easier to plan. Richards (2008) suggests some activities which are typically good for this type of talks, which include ranking activities, values clarification activities, brainstorming, and simulations; all of which make use of communicative materials as a source for practicing to use talk for sharing and obtaining information as well as for carrying out real-world transactions. Furthermore, teaching talks as performance might be in forms of providing examples or models of speeches, oral presentations, and stories deliveredthrough video or audio recordings or written examples (Richards, 2008).

## MODIFYING DIALOGIC READING TO ENHANCE EFL LEARNERS' ORAL AND AURAL SKILLS

### Conceptual Framework

As noted earlier in this paper, in the Indonesian EFL context, there have been ample evidences of empirical studies doneconcerning reading instructions and reading skills of learners. However, not so manyhave particularly addressed the use of reading to support the development of other language skills. For this reason, this paper would aim at filling in this gap: trying to contextualize some concepts as well as offering an alternative of potential reading activity named 'Dialogic Reading' to enhance EFL learners' listening and speaking skills.

Dialogic reading, with its particular sets of strategies called the 'PEER' strategies and 'CROWD' strategies, is highly interactive, structured and multimodal as it makes use of dialogues, structured instructions and different modalities (texts, sounds, and pictures). Consequently, it can be used as a model and comprehensible input as well as intake (c.f. Schmidt, 1990 and Richards, 2008) for both teaching EFL listening and speaking. During the reading aloud session, teachers can make use of the reading materials as listening materials to develop learners' acquisition and comprehension. Moreover, texts or reading materials selected and used in the Dialogic Reading activity can be a handy set of resources to be used to teach the three different types of talk functions, i.e. 'talk-as-interaction', 'talk-as-transaction' and 'talk-as-performance'. This conceptual frameworks illustrated by the following figure or path diagram.

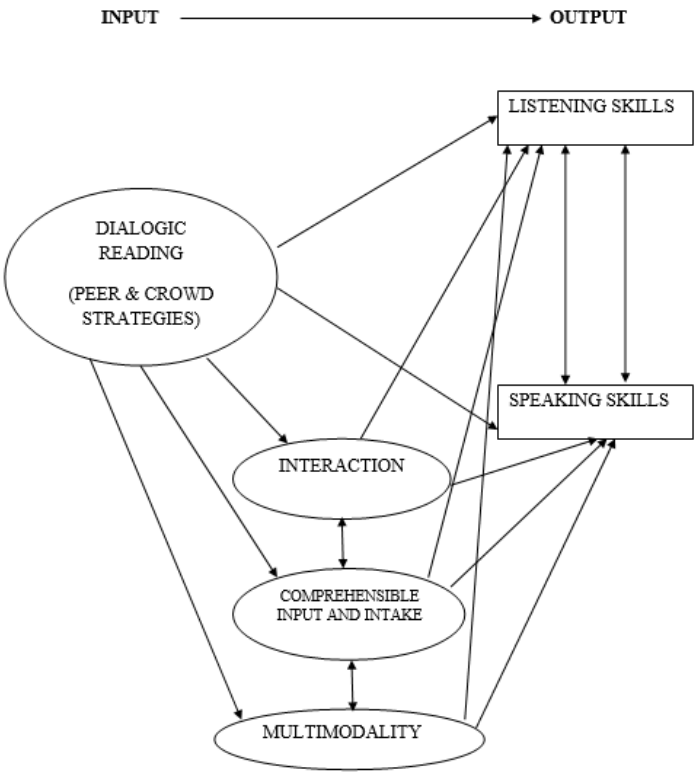


Figure: Modifying Dialogic Reading to Enhance Listening and Speaking Skills Conceptual Framework Model
©Ping (2016)
Notes:

| | |
|---|---|
| ⟶ | One way causality/ covariance relationships |
| ⟷ | Reciprocal relationships |
| PEER Strategies | Prompting, Evaluating, Expanding, Recalling |
| CROWD Strategies | Completion Prompts, Recall Prompts, Open- Ended Prompts, Wh- Prompts, Distancing Prompts |

*Implementation of the Modified Dialogic Reading for Young Adult EFL Learners*

A currently on-going research has been conducted at Mulawarman University to investigate the implementation of the modified Dialogic Reading and its potential benefits for undergraduate EFL learners' language skills development. The study employs an explanatory mixed-method design. It begins quantitatively in the form of a pre-posttest quasi- experiment involving three groups of learners enrolled at Mulawarman University English Departments, in which two groups are being given a treatment by using dialogic reading with a differentiation in the group formation (i.e. assigned by the teacher and formed by the learners themselves) and types of reading materials given (i.e. texts and texts accompanied by audio files) while the other one remains as the control group. Other than two different aspects, the procedures of the reading session are the same.

Each week, the learners in the two experimental groups are assigned to read selected texts at home and then a small group dialogic reading session is performed with the assistance of the teachers. The reading session is videotaped to enrich the understanding of both the reading process and learners' improvement. After six weeks of

treatment, the quantitative part will be concluded and the learners are given a post-test to measure their language skills development. In addition to this, the qualitative part is conducted to investigate the learners' perceived skills development before and after the treatment is given. The qualitative data will be collected from learners' reading journals and focus group interviews.

Moreover, the current videotaped data in this current study have already revealed that the implementation of Dialogic Reading in the young adult learners' context shows a similar pattern with its counterpart of the young learners' context. The instances below illustrate the strategies used by both the teachers and the learners during the implementation of modified Dialogic Reading in this study.

1. Doing a cloze test (the use of 'Completion' prompt strategy)
2. Taking turns spontaneously in telling the stories or texts being read (the use of 'Recall' prompt strategy)
3. Asking and answering Yes/No Questions, e.g.: Was the sun hidden by a yellow blanket? Were Bill and Bob hands are in their pocket? etc. (the use of 'Recall' prompt strategy)
3. Continuing the statement "When the rain comes, I will…" (the use of 'Open ended' prompt strategy)
4. Asking and answering Wh-questions, e.g: Who are the characters in the story? (the use of 'Wh-question' prompt strategy)
5. Discussing some aspects in the texts and relating those aspects with the learners' daily lives/ own experiences (the use of 'Distancing' prompt strategy)

Moreover, the reading sequence itself follows the classic reading sequence, namely '*pre-reading', 'whilst-reading'* and '*post-reading'*, with each sequence filled with interaction in the forms of dialogues about the texts being read.

As after the group dialogic reading session is done, the learners filled in a self-perceived rating scale in which they evaluate their language skills development, some early results have been found. Apparently, based on their self-perceived ratings, most of the EFL learners at Mulawarman University participating in this current study thought that the skills they mostly developed after 'Dialogic Reading' sessions were listening and speaking, followed by reading and writing. However, this finding will be confirmed further later when the post-test results have been collected.

## CONCLUSIONS

As an activity which is remarkably interactive, structured and multimodal, Dialogic Reading is potentially beneficial for promoting aural and oral language skills. Previous studies have noted its positive contribution to young learners' language development while this current study tries to expand the possibility of using the activity for young adult EFL learners. The on-going research has shown some early indications of learners' perceived gain regarding listening and speaking skills development after experiencing Dialogic Reading activities. This implies that the implementation of dialogic reading is possible to be done in a small group context not only for young learners/ children but also for young adult learners and it could be a facilitating context for their learning of language skills other than reading itself.

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# TEACHING LISTENING OR TESTING LISTENING?

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## ABSTRACT

Listening is an important skill for communication and for learning yet it is a literacy area that is least taught in the Singapore classrooms. In order to prepare young learners for the demands of learning and communication, ways to teach listening, and not just test it, should be found. This paper focuses on a small scale study from an elementary school in Singapore where learners reported on their strategy use in diaries after listening to various types of English texts. The paper will report on strategy use by examining young learners' responses. The paper will then discuss implications in terms of teaching listening to young learners of different proficiencies and explore how we can help prepare them for the demands of the real world in which a mastery of English and effective communication skills are perceived to be important assets.

**Keywords**: Listening comprehension, young learners, teach listening, metacognitive knowledge, strategy use, pedagogical recommendation

## INTRODUCTION

Listening is an extremely important skill for young learners and it is believed to take up about 50% of their classroom time (Tompkins, 2002). Although it is an essential language and literacy skill, it remains a somewhat neglected and poorly taught aspect in a number of Singapore's primary school classrooms as many young learners are seldom taught specific methods to deal with it. The idea of listening development in these classrooms tend to be focussed on exposure in the form of more and more listening comprehension practices in the hope that young learners will somehow get better at it. Teaching listening can therefore be said to be almost non-existent usually taking the form of exposure to listening comprehension practices. So even though learners are exposed to more listening activities in their classrooms today, they are left to develop their listening abilities on their own with little direct support from the teacher. This, in essence, is not a pedagogically sound approach and is more so testing rather than teaching listening.

Many teachers, however, attempt such an approach because they are unsure of how to go about teaching listening and perhaps feel that by merely providing exposure to listening, the pupils would somehow pick it up along the way. By focusing on the product of listening, every activity attempted then seems to become a test of the learners' listening ability, rather than a means for understanding, developing and using listening skills (Kaur, 2014). This preference teachers have for testing as opposed to a focus on discussing with learners approaches they could possibly use perhaps stems from the fact that many teachers are themselves unsure of how to teach listening (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). Teachers could possibly be testing rather than teaching due to a lack of knowledge of the receptive skills which in turn leads to them not devoting explicit attention to developing listening, assuming that comprehension will occur on its own (Shrum and Glisan, 1994).

Unfortunately this is how listening is typically taught in our classrooms today, with the tendency to test rather than teach (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012).

Recent research highlights that listening is an active process where listeners select and interpret information in order to define what is going on (Goh, 2008). Listening makes the heaviest processing demands because learners need to store information and at the same time try to comprehend the information coming to them (Kaur, 2014). The notion of listening being an active process emphasizes the role metacognitive knowledge plays as young learners need to be able to draw upon strategies to help them deal with the information coming at them.

Metacognitive discussions in relation to listening tasks and activities are currently neglected in our classrooms perhaps due to the fact that the processes involved in listening are covert and hence not easily observable in young learners; unlike the productive skills of reading and writing where you can actually assess the product the students produce to better understand their abilities in it (Kaur, 2014). Hence, this may be also be another contributing factor that causes teachers to refrain from explicitly teaching listening to young learners.

Although listening success and proficiency cannot be directly linked to metacognition, it can help to explain the processes listeners go through and the strategies they apply as they listen which will help make them more conscious on how they can regulate their listening (Cross, 2010; Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal and Tafaghodtari, 2006). In a review of three decades of listening research, Macaro, Graham, and Vanderplank (2007) concluded that much has yet to be discovered about how listeners cope with the demands of listening in a second language.

Greater attention also has to be paid to young learners who form a considerable proportion of second language learners as the few studies that have been conducted (Goh and Kaur, 2013; Goh and Taib, 2006; Vandergrift, 2002) have showed it to be an area worth looking into. These studies have suggested that young learners are capable of reflecting on and reporting some aspects of their metacognition so valuable information can be obtained directly from them. Moreover, the findings from young learners' metacognition can offer insights into implications for teaching listening which may be different compared to those for adult learners. Implications drawn on the teaching of listening will possibly mean that young learners can be made more conscious of the processes involved as they listen so that they can better understand and monitor their listening abilities in tasks.

**Metacognition and Metacognitive Knowledge**

Researchers generally agree that metacognition is an individual's ability to stop and think about their own cognitive abilities particularly their ability to monitor, evaluate, and make plans for their learning (Tobias and Everson, 2009). The term "metacognitive knowledge" was first defined by Flavell (1979, p. 906) as "that segment of your (a child's, an adult's) stored world knowledge that has to do with people as cognitive creatures and with their diverse cognitive tasks, goals, actions and experiences". It basically refers to one thinking about one's own cognitive processes. Flavell (1979) identifies 3 categories of metacognitive knowledge in his framework encompassing person, task, and strategic knowledge. In the area of listening comprehension, Flavell's (1979) framework has also been applied to reveal the role metacognitive knowledge plays in a learner's ability to

regulate and deploy appropriate strategies when engaged in listening processes (Goh, 1997; Goh and Taib 2006; Vandergrift, 2002). Flavell's (1979) three dimensions of knowledge are applied to listening by Goh (2008) as shown in Figure 1 below:

***Figure 1. Metacognitive Knowledge about Listening based on Goh (2008, p.198)***

| |
|---|
| **Person knowledge**<br>• Develops better knowledge of self as an L2 listener:<br>• Examines personal beliefs about self-efficacy and self-concepts with regard to listening in a second language |
| **Task knowledge**<br>• Understands the nature of L2 listening and the demands of the task of learning to listen:<br>• Differentiates different types of listening skill (e.g. listening for details, listening for gist, listening to infer information)<br>• Analyses factors that influence listening performance (e.g. speaker, text, interlocutor, strategy) |
| **Strategy knowledge**<br>• Understands the role of different kinds of strategies for listening:<br>• Identifies strategies that are appropriate for specific types of listening task and problem.<br>• Demonstrates the use of strategies.<br>• Identifies strategies that may not be appropriate for their learning style or culture. |

The framework above was used in the present study to reveal the metacognitive knowledge young learners had in the three areas identified above. Metacognitive knowledge as a framework was felt to be the ideal approach as an emphasis on person, task, and strategic knowledge development will enable young learners to appraise themselves and to select appropriate approaches for improving their listening performance so as to become more self-directed learners (Cross, 2011; Goh and Taib, 2006). Some studies have reported on the positive effects attained through enhancing metacognitive knowledge in their subjects (Goh, 1997; Goh and Taib, 2006; Vandergrift, 2002). Thus even though listening success cannot be attributed directly to metacognition, it can help explain in part how proficient listeners are more successful in their process of learning to listen which leads to implications drawn on the teaching of listening (Goh and Kaur, 2013).

## THE STUDY

As mentioned earlier, this paper focuses on a small scale study from an elementary school in Singapore where learners reported on their metacognitive knowledge in strategy use after listening to various types of English texts. The study was conducted over a period of six weeks with a group of 12 young language learners aged 10 to 11 from a government funded elementary school in Singapore where English was the medium of instruction. The children were predominantly from non- English speaking homes where vernacular ethnic languages or a non-standard variety of English, or both, were spoken. Being in a bilingual education context meant that these young learners made use of English mostly in the school environment for inter and intra communicative contexts. The participants were first

identified from an intact class of 42 based on their results in a listening test administered by their school before the study. They were randomly selected from the top 30% and bottom 30% of the class listening scores. The study aimed to reveal the types of metacognitive knowledge they exhibited.

**METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION**

Delayed retrospective analysis through diary reflections was used to collect data as it has been regarded as a good method to elicit from learners what they think they do in a particular context (Cross, 2009) and listening diaries have been used in a study involving young learners prior to this one (Goh and Taib, 2006). In the current study, learners attempted their typical school-based listening tasks and subsequently wrote down in their diaries what they tried to do as they listened. Their school based listening tasks typically involved listening to four to five audio recordings of monologues or conversations between a pair or group of individuals based on genres they were taught in school (information reports, expositions, recounts). The topics in the audio recording would involve matters such as individuals asking for directions, a newscaster reading a news report and other such activities. These learners would listen to the audio clip and select answers to questions that were found on their activity sheets based on what they listened to. Thus their listening activity was listening comprehension based as it would require them to select an answer from a choice of options provided for each question asked. After attempting the listening activity, listeners then reflected in their listening diaries on how they tried to listen and get at the answers. Guiding prompts were provided to these young learners to probe into consciousness their metacognitive knowledge based on the three areas above, namely, person, task and strategic knowledge. Listening diaries were thus used as a way of helping learners to reflect on their listening experiences with guiding questions provided which was used to direct their attention to specific aspects of their person, task and strategy knowledge (Goh, 2010). Although listening diaries are typically used over an extended period of learning, they can also be short reflection pieces as was used in this study to capture the children's thoughts on strategy use and perceptions of challenge (Kaur, 2014). The prompts given to help the learners think of their experience included: What were you thinking when you did the listening activity? What are some of the problems you had? How did you try to solve these problems?

Reflections gathered were coded and analyzed for evidence of metacognitive knowledge in the three areas highlighted in the conceptual framework. The study thus aimed to gain further insights into young learners' listening abilities by eliciting their metacognitive knowledge and strategy use by answering the following questions:

1. What metacognitive knowledge (person, task or strategy knowledge) do young language learners report using when listening to English texts?
2. What types of metacognitive knowledge do these young listeners predominantly have?

This paper will present only some of the key findings on these young learners' strategy use and this will be followed by examining some of the young learners' responses mainly with the intent to identify implications and discuss pedagogical approaches that can be taken for the teaching of listening.

## DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

The young learners' introspections revealed that they had metacognitive knowledge but this was mostly in the area revolving around the listening tasks that they were dealing with and how to cope with the challenges of those specific listening tasks.

Based on the conceptual framework on metacognitive knowledge used, the following were some of the key findings (as reported in Kaur, 2014):

### Person Knowledge

The learners in the study exhibited a limited degree of person knowledge suggesting that these young learners were not aware of themselves as listeners or had little metacognitive knowledge of themselves when it came to listening. What limited person knowledge they did exhibit revolved around their self-knowledge in relation to tasks they were attempting. Learners reported on the importance of listening carefully and for listening attentively, possibly reflecting the typical utterances that would be repeated to them by their teachers in reflection to answers that they may have gotten wrong in previous listening tasks. The teachers' typical post task solution to listening difficulties learners encountered to "listen carefully" seemed to have unwittingly appeared in their self-concepts of themselves as learners. Learners' reflections on person knowledge also included ineffective strategies such as not using any method in getting the correct answer suggesting a possible lack of person knowledge.

### Task Knowledge

These young learners generally exhibited a high degree of task knowledge. However the task knowledge displayed mostly involved knowledge learners had on question and answer techniques or knowledge on methods of deriving the correct answer. Basically the young learners reflected on quite a high degree of task knowledge but mainly in answering techniques they used which was aimed at getting the correct answers. This could possibly be attributed to an instructional emphasis by their teacher on test taking procedures to arrive at answers or a focus on instructional tasks as part of their usual classroom listening approach.

### Strategy Knowledge

Strategy knowledge the young learners displayed was mainly based on planning for the listening tasks or for reading questions first in order to listen out for the answer, again suggesting that strategy use was driven predominantly by a task emphasis. This was found to be similar to the study by Goh & Taib (2006) which highlighted a limited range of strategy use being reported although the young learners knew quite a great deal of test-taking strategies.

In summary, the young learners in this study were found to have very little person knowledge. The person knowledge they had was mostly their knowledge of self in dealing with listening tasks. The young learners had quite an extensive amount of task knowledge but this was limited in range as it was based on the listening tasks they were exposed to and mainly involved test taking knowledge. Strategy knowledge was also limited to the listening tasks encountered. The findings generally suggest that learners are aware of their metacognitive knowledge but it revolves largely around the listening tasks they

attempted or the methods they employed at deriving answers. The absence of varied forms of metacognitive knowledge could suggest a possible lack of explicit teaching of listening processes and person, task and strategy factors; hence learners are largely met cognitively unaware of themselves as learners.

It has been found that although metacognition is a crucial aspect of learning to listen, it does not have a significant and explicit role in many language classrooms (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). It can also be said that although listening has gained prominence in language teaching, listening lessons have largely remained text oriented or communication oriented rather than learner oriented (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). There is hence a need to move learners away from knowledge based solely on listening tasks as young learners need to become more aware of their metacognitive knowledge where listening is concerned (Kaur, 2014).

Based on the findings and the discussion above, this paper suggests taking on a learner oriented approach to teach listening (Goh, 1997, 2008; Vandergrift, 2004, 2007; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012), with an emphasis on metacognitive instruction (Goh and Taib, 2006; Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). An emphasis on metacognitive instruction is felt to be ideal because it is an approach to teaching listening that elicits and enhances learner understanding in learning to listen and at the same time raises their awareness about managing comprehension and overall listening development (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). The following section will discuss pedagogical implications based on the findings.

**Pedagogical Implications**

Findings from the study have been used to draw upon implications for teaching listening to young learners through the development of metacognitive knowledge in the three areas of the framework, namely, person, task and strategic knowledge.

The most pertinent factor for listening success to be achieved in class would be that teacher awareness and knowledge needs to be raised where the teaching of listening is concerned. Teacher knowledge is the key factor in raising listening competency. Language teachers need to have a clear understanding of the processes involved in listening and how these processes can manage comprehension so that they can harness the potential for learning in every student and help them achieve success in developing listening. Teacher competency could possibly be enhanced through professional learning communities within the school or teacher professional development courses at both pre-service and in-service levels. In professional learning communities, teachers could come together to discuss how best to teach listening and what to focus on so that they are aware of the metacognitive knowledge and listening processes that can be applied to enhance listening development in young learners. Greater emphasis could also be given in pre-service teacher training courses on how to explicitly teach listening to learners. In-service teachers should also consider attending professional development courses that deal with how listening can be taught explicitly and how metacognitive knowledge of listening can be developed. This leads to implications for training institutions on the need to provide for such professional development avenues.

Such enhancements will allow teachers to be adept in the area of listening instruction and could possibly mean that they will be better informed on how to go about enhancing metacognitive knowledge and teaching listening. Addressing teacher competency will allow for growth in person, task and strategic knowledge as the teacher herself

understands the processes of listening and the role of metacognitive knowledge (Kaur, 2014). Acquiring the depth of knowledge associated with the regulation of listen will mean that teachers can better help their young learners rather than just telling the learners to "Listen carefully" or "Listen harder" (Kaur, 2014).

In considering the possible approaches we can take in teaching listening, this paper will leverage on the objectives for developing metacognitive knowledge emphasized in Vandergrift and Goh (2012) and expand on this in terms of the ways in which pedagogical competence in listening can be raised for person, task and strategic knowledge. **Figure 2** below has only included the objectives deemed to be applicable to the young learners in this study. An expanded category called pedagogical activities has been included to suggest how the categories of metacognitive knowledge from Vandergrift and Goh (2012) can be linked to specific teaching activities. The pedagogical activities reflected here were taken from Kaur 2014.

***Figure 2. Pedagogical activities for the teaching of listening based on Kaur (2014, p.238)***

| |
|---|
| **Person knowledge**<br>Objectives: Identify listening problems, causes, and possible solutions.<br><br><u>Pedagogical activity:</u><br>Teachers can help person knowledge development through post listening discussions. They can discuss with young learners the difficulties they had in the listening tasks just completed and offer possible solutions to these difficulties. More proficient listeners can share successful approaches with the less proficient learners in these discussions too. |
| **Task Knowledge**<br>Objectives: Differentiate different types of listening skill (e.g. listening for details, listening for global understanding, listening to infer information).<br><br><u>Pedagogical activity:</u><br>Teachers can help task knowledge development in young learners by providing exposure to varied types of listening tasks that emphasize different listening skills (listening for details, listening to infer information). They can also have discussions on the nature of these listening tasks in the pre-listening activities too. |
| **Strategy Knowledge** |

Objectives: Demonstrate use of strategies.

Pedagogical activity:

Teachers can help the development of strategy knowledge in young learners by having focused pre-listening and during listening activities that demonstrate, model and scaffold specific types of strategy use so that young learners are more conscious and aware of it.

## CONCLUSION

This paper provides a description of metacognitive knowledge a group of young learners perceive using as they listen. Knowing what metacognitive knowledge young learners display will perhaps help teacher practitioners to understand the listening process better which may in turn help us improve the way listening is taught. This paper also sheds light on some possible ways in which metacognitive knowledge development for person, task and strategy knowledge can be developed or enhanced through approaches that can be included as part of classroom listening lessons. These include suggestions for pedagogical activities that teachers can incorporate into their classrooms to allow for metacognitive knowledge of person, task and strategy to take place. The main pedagogical recommendation of the paper is for teachers to consider more productive and active ways of teaching listening to young learners as opposed to merely testing it.

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# DO GOOD WRITERS SPEAK BETTER? INVESTIGATION OF INDONESIAN EFL STUDENTS' SPEAKING ABILITY AND WRITING PROFICIENCY ACROSS COMPETENCE LEVELS

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**ABSTRACT**

This study examined the correlations between Indonesian EFL students' speaking ability and their writing proficiency at two levels: individually and across competence levels. It involved 74 undergraduate students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT). They were taking Essay Writing course in the English Department of Universitas Negeri Malang (State University of Malang), East Java. The students were taught to write essays of five types: examplification, comparison/contrast, classification, process analysis, and cause/effect analysis. However, in this study the students' writing proficiency was measured from the scores of their cause/effect analysis essays in particular. In the teaching and learning process, the students were made aware that they had to complete two tasks: writing a cause/ effect analysis essay on ELT topics and presenting their essays orally by using power point slides in front of the class. The students' essays and their presentation performances were rated by two raters after some practices to reach agreement in scoring. The results showed that there were positive correlations between Indonesian EFL students' speaking ability and their writing proficiency both individually or across competence levels. The findings suggest that the higher the students' writing proficiency scores, the higher their speaking ability scores; and the students' scores in speaking ability and writing proficiency were consistent across competence levels, meaning that the students who are at the top level remain to be at the top in the two productive skills.

**Keywords:** Indonesian EFL students, speaking ability, writing proficiency

## INTRODUCTION

In order to use English for communication, students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) are required to master the four language skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. Based on the mode of communication, listening and speaking skills are needed for oral communication, while reading and writing skills are needed for written communication. While the four language skills are naturally used in an integrated way, the teaching of the four language skills are likely to be conducted discretely. This is especially the case in the English departments where the four language skills are taught as separate courses. For example, in the English Department of Universitas Negeri Malang, one of the prominent teacher training institutions in Indonesia, writing is taught in a series of three courses: *Paragraph Writing*, *Essay Writing*, and *Argumentative Writing*. Meanwhile, speaking is also taught in a series of three courses: *Speaking for Formal Interactions*, *Speaking for Informal Interaction*, and *Speaking for Academic Purposes* (Catalogue of the Department of English, 2015). As a result, classroom tasks and activities are likely to be

designed and taught exclusively for each of the four language skills.

The discrete teaching of the four language skills attracted the attention of EFL teachers and practitioners to design tasks and classroom activities which integrate the language skills. This is because research studies have shown the relation between the ability in one language skill to another. For example, Fatemi (2008) reported that reading and writing are two skills which are mutually reinforcing, meaning that if the students are good at reading, they are also proficient in writing. This is understandable because reading which is a receptive skill serves as a means to gain content and language input that can be used in writing, which is a productive skill. In fact the relation of languages skills was not only found between a receptive skill and a productive skill. HemmatNezhad, Jahandar and Khodabandehlou (2014) and Huy (2015) found that frequent practices in writing influence students' ability in speaking. More specifically, HemmatNezhad et al. revealed that writing helped students organize their thoughts to communicate effectively, while Huy (2015) suggested that students' good ability in writing enabled them to speak more effectively.

However, since writing and speaking are productive skills, little is known regarding the relationship of those two skills, especially in the context of EFL teaching in Indonesia. Normally the difficulty in speaking is attributed to a number of factors. For example, Gan (2012) stated that input-poor environment contributed to students' difficulty in speaking English. Spielberger (1983) mentioned that autonomic nervous system, a personality factor, was one of the major causes of students' inconvenience in oral performance. Other personality factors such as feeling tension, apprehension, nervousness, and excessive worry affected the students' speaking achievement especially during exam (Bashir, Azeem, & Dogar). Unlike the previous studies which have examined environmental and personality factors, this study focuses on the relationship between writing and speaking skills,

Based on the gaps of research in the relationship between EFL students' speaking ability and writing proficiency and whether their speaking ability and writing proficiency were consistently related across performance levels, the research questions are stated as follows:

(1) Is there any correlation between the EFL students' speaking ability and their writing proficiency?
(2) Is there any correlation between the EFL students' speaking ability and their writing across competence levels?

## METHOD

This correlational study involved 74 undergraduate students who took *Essay Writing* course in the English Department of Universitas Negeri Malang, one of the leading universities in Indonesia. The students were from three classes: Class A (25 students), Class B (26 students), and Class C (23 students). The Essay Writing course aims to help students write essays of five types of development: examplification, comparison and contrast, classification, process analysis, and cause/effect analysis essays. This research deals with the teaching of how to write cause/effect analysis essays in particular. *Refining Composition Skills: Rhetoric and Grammar* written by Smalley, Ruetten, and Kozirev's (2001) was used as the textbook from which the teaching materials were taken.

The teaching of how to write cause/effect analysis essyas was divided into 2 stages: the writing stage and the speaking stage. First, they had to write a cause/effect analysis essay on topics related to English Language Teaching (ELT) and then they had to present

their essays in the form of power point presentation. Some of the students essays had the following titles: *The causes why ELT students get bored easily in grammar class; the effects of using digital/mobile phone dictionary for students; and the effects of extensive reading on improving students' reading comprehension.*

The students' scores in cause/effect analysis essays and their scores in presentations were used as the data of the study. A colleague and I scored the students' essays. Before scoring was done, we practiced in scoring some essays. Disagreement in the results of scoring were discussed. The students' essays were scored by using Jacobs, Zinkraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) "ESL Composition Profile." The profile can be used to mark the students' essays by considering five components of writing and their weightings: content (30), organization (20), vocabulary (20), language use (25), and mechanics (5). The maximum score possible for students' essays is 100. The instrument used for measuring the speaking performance was adapted from Napa Valley College' (n.d.) sample scoring rubrics for presentations. Unlike the original version of the instrument, in the adapted version, language use component was added because the instrument was at measuring the speaking performances of EFL learners. The instrument has some categories and weightings: content (40), organization (20), language use (20), and presentation style (20).

The students' scores in speaking ability and writing proficiency were correlated by using Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS) program. To find out the correlation of speaking ability and writing proficiency across competence level, the competence levels for courses offered at Universitas Negeri Malang were used. The competence levels of students' scores of speaking ability and writing proficiency are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Competence Levels of the Students' Scores

| No | Scores | Value | Competence Level |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 85 – 100 | A | Advanced |
| 2 | 80 – 84 | A- | Pre-advanced |
| 3 | 75 – 78 | B+ | Post-intermediate |
| 4 | 70 – 74 | B | Intermediate |
| 5 | 65 – 69 | B- | Pre-intermediate |

.

## RESULTS

The presentation of the results begins with the results of the correlation of the students' speaking ability and their writing proficiency. Then students' speaking ability was related to their writing proficiency across competence groups.

### Correlation between Speaking Ability and Writing Proficiency

Linear regression test was applied to know the correlation between speaking ability and writing proficiency. This is because it was believed that writing proficiency would affect speaking ability. Therefore, the distribution of the scores needed to be known before further analysis was conducted. For this purpose, one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was applied to know the score distribution. The result is shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Test of one-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Speaking Ability and Writing Proficiency Scores

| | Speaking Ability | Writing Proficiency |
|---|---|---|
| N | 74 | 74 |
| Normal Parameters[a,b] | 78.9865 | 79.2432 |
| | 6.97254 | 5.20750 |
| Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z | 1.194 | .612 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .116 | .848 |

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

Table 1 shows the scores of speaking ability and writing proficiency of the 74 students. The mean of speaking ability scores is 78.98, while the mean of writing proficiency is 79.24, with the difference .26. The statistical analysis results in Z 1.19 for speaking ability and Z .61 for writing proficiency. The result of *p* for both writing and speaking are more than .05, with speaking ability .12 and writing proficiency .8.4. This means that the scores of the students are distributed normally for the two productive skills. Further analysis was done to know the correlation coefficient of the speaking ability and writing proficiency. The result is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Correlation between Students' Speaking Ability and Writing Proficiency

| Model | *r* | *r* Square | Adjusted r Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | Sig. (*p*) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .658a | .433 | .425 | 5.28874 | .00* |

a. Predictors: (Constant), writing
b. Dependent Variable: speaking
* ($p \leq .05$)

Table 2 depicts that the correlation coefficient (*r*) is .658 with significance level .00. This means that there is a correlation between students' speaking ability and writing proficiency. Correlation coefficient (r) varies from -1 (perfect negative correlation) to 1 (perfect positive correlation). To interpret the coefficient correlation level in the present study, we use the range of *r* = 0-0.2 as no or very weak correlation, *r* = 0.2-0.4 as weak correlation, *r* = 0.4-0.6 as moderate correlation, *r* = 0.6-0.8 as strong correlation, and r = 0.8-1.0 as *very strong* to perfect correlation (Salkind, 2000). Thus, *r* = .658 means that there is strong (positive) correlation between speaking ability and writing proficiency. This suggests that if the students' writing proficiency is high, the students' speaking ability in also high. The coefficient of determination ($R^2$ = .433) shows that 43.3% of the variance of speaking ability scores can be explained by the writing proficiency scores. It implied that 43.3% of the total changes in students' speaking ability scores are determined by their writing proficiency scores.

**Correlation between Speaking Ability and Writing Proficiency across Competence Levels**

To answer the second research question, correlation was made across four competence: advanced, post-intermediate, intermediate, and pre-intermediate.

Accordingly, there were four means for speaking ability (i.e., 85.31; 70.38; 74.47, & 72.50) and four means for writing proficiency (i.e., 86.37; 79.93; 74.14, & 69.75) based on the competence levels, respectively. The result of one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the four groups is shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Test of One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Speaking Ability and Writing Proficiency Scores

| | Speaking Ability | Writing Proficiency |
|---|---|---|
| N | 4 | 4 |
| Normal Parameters[a,b] | 77.9150 | 77.5475 |
| | 5.971613 | 7.20937 |
| Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z | .453 | .364 |
| Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | .986 | .999 |

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Table 4 depics that the means across four proficiency levels for speaking ability (77.92) and writing proficiency (77.55). It also shows that means across proficiency levels are normally distributed. Table 5 shows the result of the computation of correlation coefficient of the speaking ability and writing proficiency across proficiency levels by using Pearson Product Moment.

Table 5. Correlation between Students' Speaking Ability and Writing Proficiency across Proficiency Levels

| Variables | Means | Deviation standard | Correlation coefficient (*r*) | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Speaking ability | 77.92 | 5.7 | .992 | .004* |
| Writing proficiency | 77.55 | 7.2 | | |

* ($p \leq .05$)

It can be seen in Table 5 that the correlation coefficient (*r*) is .992 with significance level .004. Thus, there is a correlation between students' speaking ability and writing proficiency across proficiency levels. The correlation coefficient of .992 is considered to be very strong as it approaches 1, the perfect (positive) correlation (Salkind, 2000). The result shows that there is consistency in the way groups of students excel. Those who are at advanced level in writing proficiency remained to be at advanced levels in speaking ability.

## DISCUSSION

The results of the study shows that there is a positive correlation between Indonesian EFL students speaking ability and their writing proficiency. This means that the ability is speaking in the form of power presentation is correlated with the practice in writing essays. This is relevant to the findings of research conducted by HemmatNezhad et al. (2014). They reported that students' frequent writing practices lead to betterment in their speaking ability. Writing and speaking as productive skills share the same nature of representing ideas and thoughts onto language, be it in the form of written or spoken discourse. Accordingly, writing is apt to make students better thinkers in which they elaborate their thoughts. It could in turn improve their speaking skill (El-Koumy, 1998). In writing which is a process of discovery, the writers are struggling to think, compose and put

their ideas together to meet the readers' expectation (Ismail, 2011). This process also happens in speaking which requires the speakers to formulate speech based on their thoughts to address the interlocutors.

The finding of the study is also relevant to a number of previous studies which examined the effect of writing programs on students' speaking ability or relationship between the two productive skills (e.g. Blake, 2009; Cumming, Kantor, Baba et al., 2005). Blake (2009) reported the result of providing writing exercises involving vocabulary and grammar practice. He then tested the students' speaking ability, Blake's study showed the impact of students' writing proficiency to their speaking ability in which oral fluency improvement is possible through a writing program. In addition, writing helps students develop their ability in using the language with precise vocabulary and accurate grammar use. Cumming et al. (2005) found that better writing proficiency was linked with accurate grammar use, longer responses, and complex syntactic construction. Thus, writing practices lead to students' speaking accuracy and fluency.

Some studies investigating the impact of dialog journal writing on EFL students' speaking also revealed that writing can improve students' oral production, speaking accuracy and fluency and encourage effective oral communication (Bagheri & Pourgharib, 2013; Rokni & Seifi, 2014). Writing which provides longer time to construct the sentences enables students to pay attention to their choices of vocabulary and grammar. Therefore, the students found it easier to speak after writing a draft in the form of their essays. This yielded high correlation between the students' proficiency in writing and their ability in speaking.

It can be stated that the more the students write their ideas in a written form, the easier they put their ideas into the spoken form. In short, the finding of this study examines the idea presentation process in writing as a practice for students in representing their ideas into spoken discourse.

## CONCLUSION

This paper has revealed the relation between Indonesian EFL students' speaking ability and writing proficiency. In general, the result shows that there are strong correlation between Indonesian EFL students' speaking ability and their writing proficiency. This suggests that speaking activities which are preceded by writing activities help students produce speech with better accuracy and fluency for effective communication. The result of the study also shows the relation of speaking ability and writing proficiency not only took place among individual students, but also among students across competence levels. This implies that students of various competence levels who participated in the writing practices of the same materials and teaching and learning activities in the Essay Writing course are likely to improve their speaking ability at their respective competence levels. English teachers are expected to train the students to write well in order to help them speak in a more proficient way. This is especially important for the teaching of the two productive skills in the English department of universities in Indonesia, where writing and speaking courses are taught as separate courses. Additionally, further research might be conducted to investigate whether additional exercises in writing given to students of lower competence levels contribute to the transformation of their speaking ability to the higher competence levels.

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