

# **TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH IN MULTICULTURAL CONTEXTS (TLEMC)**

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## Journal of Teaching & Learning English in Multicultural Contexts

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### FOREWORD

This December edition becomes second publication for the journal as it is the second edition published. Six articles are presented in this edition, opening with Agis Andriani, Fuad Abdullah, and Yuyus Saputra's contribution on the reflection of pronunciation teaching materials in a new era. Then, the second piece by Elih Sutisna Yanto discusses the implementation of vocabulary self-correction strategy in the EFL classroom in engaging students' communicative classroom. After that, Erwin Rahayu Saputra's contribution on the use of first language from teacher and students perspectives become the third article. Following in fourth is Junjun Muhamad Ramdani, Melisa Sri, Tiffani Dewi, and Resna Suci Nurfalah's discussion on student's responses on story-based reading. The next is Lee Jun Chien's investigation of developing plays as a pedagogy in lower primary classroom becoming the next part. Finally, Martina Mulyani's questioning on the role of knowledge building discourse to enhance students' curiosity in inquiry based classroom 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

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## Journal of Teaching & Learning English in Multicultural Contexts

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### 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 instructors 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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## Journal of Teaching & Learning English in Multicultural Contexts

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1. Submission of a manuscript implies that the work described has not been published before; that it is not under consideration for publication anywhere else.
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3. The **title** of the article should be less than 12 words, capitalized, centered, with font size 14.
4. The **name(s)** of the author(s), e-mail address, and affiliation should exist below the title.
5. **Abstract** should not more than 300 words containing the importance of the topic, objective, method, findings, and conclusion. It should not contain any undefined abbreviations or unspecified references.
6. Below the abstract, about three to five **keywords** should appear together with the main body of the article.
7. For research-based articles, the outline used is: **introduction, method, findings and discussion, conclusion, and references.**
8. The **introduction** consists of the background of the study, research contexts, literary review (can be separated in different section), and research objective. All introduction should be presented in the forms of paragraphs, not pointers, with the proportion of 15-20% of the whole article length.
9. The **method** section consists of description concerning the research design, setting, participants, data sources, data collection, and data analysis with the proportion of 10-15% of the total article length, all presented in the form of paragraphs.
10. The **findings and discussion** section consist of description of the results of the data analysis to answer the research question(s) and their meanings seen from current theories and references of the area addressed. The proportion of this section is 40-60% of the total article length.
11. The **conclusion** section consists of the summary, restatement, comment or evaluation of the main findings.
12. Quotation and **reference** follow APA 6<sup>th</sup> style and the latter should be included at the end of the article (highly recommended to use reference manager apps, e.g. Zotero, Mendeley).
13. Every source cited in the body of the article should appear in the **reference**, and all sources appearing in the reference should be cited in the body of the article.
14. The sources cited should at least 80% come from those published in the last 10 years. The sources cited are primary sources in the forms of journal articles, books, and research reports, including theses and dissertations.
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## THE ROLE OF KNOWLEDGE BUILDING DISCOURSE TO ENHANCE STUDENTS' CURIOSITY IN INQUIRY BASED CLASSROOM

Martina Mulyani

Martinamulyani@yahoo.com

STKIP Pasundan

### Abstract

Curiosity has been identified as driving force in doing an inquiry and one most important spur to educational attainment. As 2013 curriculum emphasizes the implementation of Inquiry Based Learning, teachers as curriculum executors should stimulate their students' curiosity. The study is aimed to investigate if Knowledge Building Discourse (KBD) is able to develop students' curiosity. The study was conducted in one private university in Cimahi. 25 junior students participated in this research. The study can be included into Second/Foreign Language Classroom Research. Classroom Research was employed to reveal the strength of KBD by identifying the students' and teacher's interaction in the classroom discourse. The study utilized rank scale to analyze spoken discourse from Sinclair and Coulthard (1992). In addition, the questionnaires were used to highlight the students' opinion towards KB. The result of the study shows that through KBD, the students are able to search and share information to the class rather than provide information to the class for the sake of answering the teacher's elicitation. It means, the implementation of KBD in classroom can enhance students' curiosity as KBD can produce discourse that allows students' inquiry to take place. Eventually, KB can be applied in 2013 curriculum which highlights Inquiry Based Learning in its teaching learning process.

**Keywords:** Knowledge Building, Knowledge Building Discourse, Inquiry Based Learning.

### INTRODUCTION

Recently, inquiry based teaching (IBT) has become the trend in education. Indonesia applies scientific method instruction which is assumed to be the part of IBT. That is the reason that may underlie the conception stating that curriculum 2013 applies inquiry based Learning. So far, it has been found out that IBL can work well in science, how about in language learning? A research managed by Larsson (2001 p.8) states a teaching method that practices inquiry based learning to language education; would constitute a formidable challenge to whoever might choose to attempt it. The difficulty lies in constructing problem. The formulation of question in inquiry is based on real problem that requires conscious awareness to solve it. In contrast, the problem in language is not obviously real that requires systematically solution to solve it (Larsson, 2001, p. 6). As a consequence, it is rather



difficult to put language in inquiry framework which relies on the existence of real problem. Moreover, Larsson (2001, p. 6) explains that since it is difficult to create pure language problem so, the most possible way would be to combine language teaching with teaching of other subjects. With respect to English language teaching, this means that inquiry based learning is doable when English is used as a media to teach other subjects. Considering that KBD is a teaching framework under IBT, the current study is aimed to find out the role of KBD in language learning to enhance students' curiosity. The research is carried out in reading class in which the teacher teaches content of reading text instead of the language. Further, the study tries to investigate 1) whether KBD as one of teaching strategies under IBT is able to enhance students' curiosity and 2) how KBD is able to enhance students' curiosity.

The following section will discuss IBT, knowledge building discourse (KBD) as one of IBT frameworks, classroom exchange and curiosity.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This part is concerned with the theory of inquiry-based learning model, knowledge building discourse, classroom exchange, and curiosity.

### **Inquiry-based Learning Model**

The idea of infusing 2013 Curriculum in Indonesia was started from the idea of Prof. Alkaf who took the opinion of Dyar, J.H. et.al (2011) innovator of Harvard Business who said that creative thinking can be built through a process of creative skills that are acquired through: Observing, Questioning, Experimenting, Associating, and Networking. There is, unfortunately, a significant constrain in teaching language by using this approach because the language is a tool to learn something-not the subject of a study: meaning that it will be difficult to formulate real questions concerning language. Therefore, the inquiry-based learning in language teaching can be done if the targeted language is used to study other subjects or in the framework of content based teaching (Larson, 2001). To make the students learn the language--by studying other subjects, then the students should be required to use the language skills to understand other subjects. These things can be done by executing KBD. Here is the explanation of Knowledge Building

### **Knowledge Building**

According to Scardamalia & Bereiter (2003, as cited in Devilee, A., 2008) Knowledge Building is a result of an idea that continuously increased in a community. According to Chiarotto, L. (2011), Knowledge Building (KB) is a set of activities in which students gather and ask questions about ideas or theories, and revise their theories or ideas. Furthermore, Scardamalia (2002 as quoted in Devilee, A., 2008) mentioned that knowledge building is applied to instill the students' responsibility for themselves as well as for the group (community). The explanation of KBD seems to be similar to inquiry process proposed by (Coffman, 2013, p. 6) The detailed description of inquiry process can be found in figure 1 below:

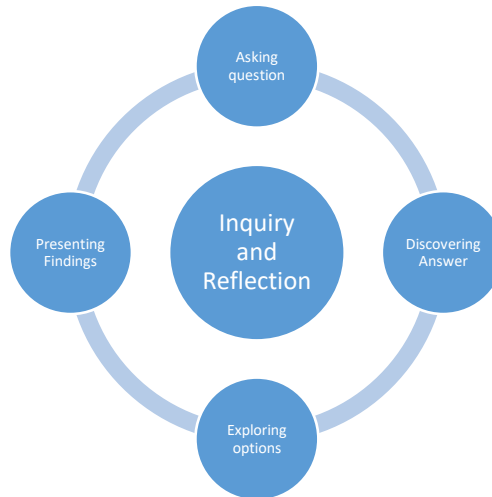


Figure 1. Inquiry Process (Coffman, 2013, p. 6)

Figure 1 illustrates that, all students in inquiry process are involved in the process of asking questions, discovering answer, exploring options and presenting finding. With refer to the meaning of KB above, it can be said that KB exists mostly in activities in which students gather and ask questions about ideas or theories, and discover answer to revise their theories or ideas. When the students are able to revise a particular idea, it means the students have gained new knowledge.

**Knowledge Building Discourse (KBD)**

Discourse in KB can be included in classroom discourse. With this respect, KB classroom provides opportunity to learners to develop not only knowledge- building competencies but also to see themselves and their work as part of civilization- wide effort to advance knowledge frontiers makes use the internet fully (scardamalia & Bereiter, 2006 p. 99). This means, under KBD framework, it can be found the slots in which the teacher administers space and time for students to find information through internet, as the first realistic means for students to connect with civilization, and to discuss the information among them. In this case KBD differs from traditional classroom discussion which focuses on a teacher directed forum for eliciting 'correct' answer (see Chiarotto, 2011, p. 11). The following is the unique role of KBD as a classroom discourse proposed by Chiarotto.

Table 1. The Unique role of KBD in Inquiry Based Learning

Discourse, rather than content delivery, shapes the direction and manner of learning
The teacher does not necessarily know in advance all of the questions and answer that may emerge from student discourse
The teacher nurtures student engagement by asking open- ended questions such as: “ Did anyone notice/ read/ find out something that might help us understand our question?”

Students attempt to reconcile their own theories and ideas in light of new sources of information.
--

Teacher supports them in this process by asking questions such as: "How does that information support your theory? Have you changed or added your theory?"
--

The teacher models and facilitates multi- directional dialogue to help students internalize and practice it themselves: " Does anyone have something to build onto 'Joseph's idea, please pass on to another student.
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It can be seen clearly in table 2 that KBD is unique as teacher is no longer a central of learning to whom students get knowledge instead teacher acts like friends that is the communication flows like conversation. That is the reason why in KBD, they sit together in the circle equally. In KBD, the teacher may start the conversation by facilitating students to actively participate and engage in learning process by asking the students real questions and together with students find answer to the questions by exchanging the information they have got from any sources. The students use a device that they pass from one student to other students and the one who holds the device should express his/ her opinion towards the particular topic they discuss. In order to make sure, that they share the "right" answer or information, they are able to access the internet or browse google. Eventually, KB is a model of teaching that offers classroom discourse displaying students' inquiry on particular idea or problem. To analyze KBD, the research will explore types of exchanges in classroom.

### **Classroom Exchange**

Sinclair and Coulthard (1992 p.21) offer rank scale to analyze spoken discourse. Sinclair and Coulthard propose 21 speech acts that can be categorized into two major classes of exchange; Boundary and Teaching. The function of boundary is to signal the beginning and the end of what the teacher considers to be a stage in the lesson. Meanwhile teaching exchanges consist of eleven categories with specific function and unique structures. The eleven categories are divided into six free exchanges and five are Bound. The function of bound exchanges is simply to reiterate the head of preceding free initiation. On the other hand, the six free exchanges are subcategorized into four groups according to function, and the two of the groups are further subdivided according to whether teacher or pupil initiates, because there are different structural possibilities. The four main functions of exchanges are informing, directing, eliciting and checking.

### **Curiosity**

Curiosity has been identified as driving force in child development and one of the most important spurs to educational attainment (Loewenstein, 1994). To stimulate curiosity, it is worth finding the origin of curiosity. Rawson et. al. (2012) through RSA project proposes 4 theories that stimulate curiosity. The 4 theories include a need to survive, an incongruity, a gap and a tactile or a physical engagement. With regard to KB, the study will find out the enhancement of students' curiosity from the utterances expressed by teacher and students in KBD.

### **METHODOLOGY**

In accordance with the purpose and research questions, the study implemented classroom research. Nunan (1990) explains that classroom research is a research that is

carried out in the language classroom for the purpose of answering important questions about learning and teaching of foreign language. Classroom Research can focus on teachers or on students or on the interaction between teachers and learners. Regarding the methodology, the study is a classroom research that focuses on the interaction between teacher and students during KBD. In this case, the research was undertaken at the English Education Department of a private university in Cimahi, West Java. The research site was chosen as the site represents higher education in general and the researcher has accessed to the site. The participants were 25 junior students. They were chosen randomly. The students attended reading 5 subjects were able to join the research. The junior students were selected as by this time the students have already got more elaborated texts and they are assumed to have already got enough English ability so they were able to conduct discussion and find information in English. Classroom Discourse analysis is used in this study as it is included into one of four traditions in second/ foreign language classroom research (see Chaudron, 1988. As cited in Nunan, 1990)

### Data collection

Choosing discourse analysis as research tradition, the study utilized observation, questionnaires and interview to gain the data about knowledge building and students' curiosity. The observation was carried out to portray the real condition of knowledge Building activity. All teacher and learning utterances during the observation were recorded and analyzed. The classroom discourse was taken from two different stage of setting. In the first stage, **In the first stage**, the teacher still holds dominant role as the central of knowledge. Although the teacher has started to provide opportunity for students to express their response to the questions given. However the types of questions, which usually come from the teacher, are mostly confirming. In the second stage, the teacher acts as facilitator. The teacher similarly guides students with the questions but the questions given are real questions. In this case, the teacher and students together find answer to the questions and discuss their findings. The improvement of students' curiosity were investigated through the gap in KB stage that facilitated the students to raise their curiosity. The gap itself was predicted to be arisen from the questions and information given either by teacher or by the peer students.

### DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The study focuses on analysing discourse in KBD. In data collection section, it has been told that the classroom discourse was conducted in two different stages. The discourse between teacher and students in this first stage can be found in the following table.

#### Exchanges in classroom discourse in stage1

Table 2. The number and types of utterances shared in stage 1

Label	Symbol	Teacher	Students
Starter	S	1	
Elicitation	EI	6	
Check	Ch	1	
Directive	D	1	

Information	I	2	
Clue	Cl	2	
Cue	Cu	1	
Nomination	N	8	
Reply	Rep		8
React	Rea	1	
Accept	Acc	8	
Evaluate	E	4	
Conclusion	Con	1	

The table shows that in the first stage the teacher starts the lesson with starter (1) and during the interaction, the teacher employs elicitation instead of directive, check or nomination. The number of elicitations are 8 times. It goes similar in the number of reply stated by the students (reply =8). The discourse reveals that students give response to the teacher's utterance only in the form of reply (8), nothing else. When the answers are as expected as the teacher's thought, the teacher accepts the answer. Yet if the answer is not similar to the one being predicted, the teacher gave feedback in forms of reacts (1), clue(2), cue (1), evaluation(1), and information. In addition, to get the right answer, the teacher also utters a lot of nomination for giving opportunity to the students to respond the elicitation. The discourse, which is full of elicitation and nomination, is resulted in predictable answer given by students as the response to the elicitation. It means, the first stage did not meet the requirement of KB in which the teacher does not necessarily know in advance the questions and answer that may emerge from students discourse (see Chiarotto, 2011 p. 11). As a result, It is hardly found any new information in the first stage.

### Exchanges in Classroom Discourse stage 2

Table 4. The number and types of utterances shared in stage 2

Label	Symbol	Teacher	Students
Starter	S	1	
Elicitation	El	4	
Check	Ch	7	
Directive	D	4	
Information	I		9
Nomination	N	9	
Acknowledge	Ack	2	
Reply	Rep		4
Comment	Com	3	
Accept	Acc		
Evaluate	E		

The table reveals the teacher and students' utterance during classroom interactions. It can be seen here that the teacher reduces the elicitation. In the first discourse, there are about 8 elicitations but in the second stage there are only 4 elicitations. In addition, in the second stage, it can be found more checks (7) and directive (4). It means that the teacher asked students to do something aside from saying. In this case the teacher asked students to find information in pair and later the teacher gave chance for students to present their

findings. In discussion session, the students shared the information (9) they had found and replied the teacher's elicitation and check.

In the second stage, it can be found more directive from teacher - asking students to inquire the information. After inquiring, students can inform and reply the teacher's elicitation. Such situation allows knowledge building to take place because during KBD, teacher was possible to hold inquiry stage in which students searched for information and discussed with their own group before they present their findings to the whole class member. In discussion session with their own group or with whole classmate, the students can gain knowledge and build understanding regarding one particular knowledge. In this respect, it can be concluded that a good KBD should contain teacher directive asking students to inquire and find information, teacher check to make sure that the students can follow and carry out the order and feedback from students in form of student inform even student elicit. Further session will discuss the enhancement of students' curiosity.

### The enhancement of Students' Curiosity

In this study, the enhancement of curiosity will be found out through the percentage of students' utterance showing the existing set of knowledge and the knowledge they desire to find. The following is component of free exchanges from stage one and stage two Table 5. The percentage of students' inquiry

Free Exchange	Stage 1		Stage 2	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Directive	1	10	7	29
Elicit	6	60	4	16.5
Check	1	10	4	16.5
Teacher inform	2	20		
Students inform			9	38
Students elicit				
Total	10	100	24	100

It can be seen from the table that the number of directive is increasing. In the first stage, there is only 10 % directive while, in the second stage the percentage of directive is 29 %. It means the teacher asked students to do something more than in the first stage. In this case, the teacher asked students to inquire the information in group and let them discuss rather than he/ she explain the lesson to students. During that time the students take the initiation to find the information and discuss the finding. Next during and after the discussion the teacher checked the students work. That is the reason why the percentage of check in the second stage is bigger than that of in the first stage. In the second stage the percentage is 16,5% but in the first stage, there is only 10 %. Regarding elicitation, in the first stage, the teacher elicited as much as 60 %. The data reveal that the teacher elicited the students by asking questions that the teacher actually knows the answer to the questions. Consequently, the number of teacher feedback in the form of cue, clue, information, acceptance, as the responds to the student's answers can be found in the first stage. On the other hand, the number of teacher's elicitation the second stage is less than that of in the first stage. The elicitation seems to be replaced by real question. That is why it is hardly found teacher's feedback in the second stage. In reverse, there are a lot of

student's giving information (38%). It means the students share the information they have got from any sources. In addition, to make sure that students do their job, the teacher check the students learning process.

Based on the data presented before, the study concludes that second stage is more likely to resemble KBD than the first stage, meaning that the situation in second stage accommodates students' curiosity more than the first stage.

### The Students' opinion toward KB

In order to investigate the students' opinion toward KB, questionnaires were utilized. The following is the data about students' opinion toward KB in percentage.

Table 3. The percentage of students' opinion towards KB

No	Statement	Ss	S	N	Ts	Sts
1	I am looking for the information about the topic discussed in the class as I am curious	27	59,4	8,1	5,5	
2	In KBD, I get the new information mostly from internet and discussion with my friends and the teacher	8,1	51,3	35,2	5,4	
3	Once I get new information about the related topic, I am eager to find more information about it and share it with other friends	21,6	37,8	35,2	5,4	
4	When the teacher gives us a problem to solve, I am sure my friends will try to find the answer to questions. So, it is not necessary for me to search the information. Therefore I will wait for them to give me the information.	13,5	10,8	43,2	19	13,5

The table reveals the data about students' opinion on KB. The data of the first question show that most students want to find the information because they are curios. From 37 subjects, there are about 86,4% of students who agree that they are curious to find new information. There are only a few students who do not agree (5,5 %) and the rest are undecided (8,1%). These findings support the theory saying that the curiosity is stimulated by human drive (see Rawson et.al. 2012). This means that a person searches the new information because he is curious about something.

Regarding the second research questions, the table shows the percentage of students in KBD who get new information related to the topic discussed in the class from internet and discussion with their peers and the teacher. 59,4 % of the students agree that they get information mostly from the internet and discussion, 35,2% of students are undecided, and 5,4 % of students disagree. This finding supports the unique role of KBD which states that in KB students share their findings through discussion and attempt to create their own theories and ideas in light of new information. (see point 4 & 5 unique role of KB).

With respect to the third question, 59,4 % of students agree that they like to find any information related to the topic being discussed and even agree to share the information with their friends. 35,2 % of students are undecided and 5,4 % of students disagree. This finding provides highlight that in KBD, students are asked to carry out discussion or dialogue

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with their partner in the group or among groups so that the students can internalize the new information and practice to share the ideas.

The fourth question asked students if they prefer to find the answer to the question rather than wait for others to find the information. The result illustrates that 24,3% of students agree that they prefer waiting to searching the information, 43,2 % are undecided, 32,5 % of students are willing to seek the information. The big number of students, who prefer to choose undecided in the table, display the condition of students who are not accustomed to discussing and inquiring the information as they usually get the answer from teacher.

## CONCLUSIONS

This article reports the use of KB in an EFL classroom. The conclusions that can be withdrawn from the research are that when KB is properly conducted:

- The students search and share information to the class rather than provide information to the class for the sake of answering the teacher's elicitation.
- The students search information from any sources; internet, magazine, newspaper and contribute more information. Such situation will stimulate students' curiosity.
- KB will facilitate students to find the information, discuss and attempt to create their own theories and ideas in light of new information.

Overall, the implementation of KB in classroom will produce discourse that allows students' inquiry to take place as it provides students slots to search for information. For further research, it is suggested that the teacher find out the contribution of KBD on the English acquisition: will the students be able to acquire English through KBD?.

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**Appendix**

21 speech acts offered by Sinclair and Coulthard

Label	Symbol	Definition
Marker	M	Realized by a closed class of items – ‘well’, ‘OK’, ‘now’, ‘good’, ‘right’, ‘alright’. When a markers is acting as the head of a framing move it has a falling intonation, [1] or [+1], as well as a silent stress. Its function is to mark boundaries in the discourse
Starter	S	Realized by a statement, question or command. Its function is to provide information about or direct attention to or thought towards an area in order to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.
Elicitation	EI	Realized by a question. Its function is to request a linguistic response.
Check	Ch	Realized by a closed class of polar questions concerned with being ‘finished’ or ‘ready’, having ‘problems’ or ‘difficulties’, being able to ‘see’ or ‘hear’. They are ‘real’ questions, in that for once the teacher doesn’t know the answer. If he does know the answer to, for example, ‘have you finished’, it is a directive, not a check. The function of checks is to enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.
Directive	D	Realized by a command. Its function is to request a non-linguistic response.
Information	I	Realized by a statement. It differs from other uses of statement in that its sole function is to provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention and understanding.
Prompt	P	Realized by a closed class of items – ‘go on’, ‘come on’, ‘hurry up’, ‘quickly’, ‘have a guess’.Its function is elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or even demanding one.
Clue	Cl	Realized by a statement, question, command, or moodless item. It is subordinate to the head additional information which helps the pupil to answer the elicitation or comply with the directive.
Cue	Cu	Realized by a closed class of which we so far have only three exponents, ‘hands up’, ‘don’t call out’, ‘is John the only one’. Its sole function is to evoke an (appropriate) bid.

Bid	B	Realized by a closed class of verbal and non-verbal items – ‘Sir’, ‘Miss’, teacher’s name, raised hand, heavy breathing, finger clicking. Its function is to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse.
Nomination	N	Realized by a closed class consisting of the names of all the pupils, ‘you’ with contrastive stress, ‘anybody’, ‘yes’, and one or two idiosyncratic items such as ‘who hasn’t said anything yet’. The function of the nomination is to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.
Acknowledge	Ack	Realized by ‘yes’, ‘OK’, ‘mm’, ‘wow’, and certain on-verbal gestures and expressions. Its function is simply to show that the initiation has been understood, and, if the head was a directive, that the pupil intends to react.
Reply	Rep	Realized by a statement, question or moodless item and non-verbal surrogates such as nods. Its function is to provide a linguistic response which is appropriate to the elicitation.
React	Rea	Realized by a non-linguistic action. Its function is to provide the appropriate non-linguistic response defined by the preceding directive.
Comment	Com	Realized by a statement or tag question. It is subordinate to the head of the move and its function is to exemplify, expand, justify, provide additional information. On the written page it is difficult to distinguish from an informative because the outsider’s ideas of relevance are not always the same. However, teachers signal paralinguistically, by a pause, when they are beginning a new initiation with an informative as a head; otherwise they see themselves as commenting.
Accept	Acc	Realized by a close class of items – ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘good’, ‘fine’, and repetition of pupil’s reply all with neutral low fall intonation. Its function is to indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the informative, reply or react was appropriate.
Evaluate	E	Realized by statements and tag questions, including words and phrases such as ‘good’, ‘interesting’, ‘team point’, commenting on the quality of the reply, react or initiation, also by ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘good’, ‘fine’, with a high-fall intonation, and

		repetition of the pupil's reply with either high-fall (positive), or a rise of any kind (negative evaluation).
Silent strees	^	Realized by a pause, of the duration of one or more beats, following a marker. It functions to highlight the marker when it is serving as the head of a boundary exchange indicating a transaction boundary.
metastatement	Ms	Realized by a statement which refers to some future time when what is described will occur. Its function is to help the pupils to see the structure of the lesson, to help them understand the purpose of the subsequent exchange, and see where they are going.
Conclusion	Con	Realized by an anaphoric statement, sometimes marked by slowing of speech rate and usually the lexical items 'so' or 'then'. In a way it is the converse of metastatement. Its function is again to help the pupils understand the structure of the lesson buy this time by summarizing what the preceding chunk of discourse is about.
Loop	L	Realized by a closed class of items – 'pardon', 'you what', 'eh', 'again', with rising intonation and a few questions like 'did you say', 'do you mean'. Its function is to return the discourse to the stage it was at before the pupil spoke, from where it can proceed normally.
Aside	Z	Realized by a statement, question, command, moodless, usually marked by lowering the tone of the voice, and not really addressed to the class. As we noted above, this category covers items we have difficulty in dealing with. It is really instances of the teacher talking to himself: 'It's freezing in here', 'Where did I put my chalk?'

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## THE REFLECTION OF PRONUNCIATION TEACHING MATERIALS: AN OLD PARADIGM IN A NEW ERA

Agis Andriani<sup>1</sup>

agisandriani@unsil.ac.id

Fuad Abdullah<sup>2</sup>

fuad.abdullah182@gmail.com

Yuyus Saputra<sup>3</sup>

yuyussaputra@unsil.ac.id

Universitas Siliwangi

### ABSTRACT

Ideally, pronunciation teaching materials should be developed based on the equal proportion of segmental and suprasegmental features and the employment of innovative pronunciation learning task types (e.g. awareness-raising tasks, rhyme and verse, ear training, etc.) (Goodwin, 2013). Unfortunately, such a reasonable breakthrough apparently has not responded by the effective use of pronunciation teaching materials. For these reasons, this study was aimed at exploring the pronunciation teaching materials in Pronunciation Practice module and course syllabus at a university in Tasikmalaya, Indonesia. The data were analysed with Tergujeff's data-driven classification (2010), namely phonetic training, reading aloud, listen and repeat, rhyme and verse, rules and instructions, awareness-raising activities, spelling and dictation and ear training. The findings revealed that the existing pronunciation teaching materials only accentuated on fostering the students' segmental features. Besides, the traditional task types still dominated the tasks in such a module, such as phonetic training, reading aloud, listen and repeat and rules and instructions. This confirms that the creative and dynamic use of current pronunciation teaching materials enable the students not only to undergo accuracy-oriented exercises but also fluency-based activities.

**Keywords:** pronunciation teaching materials; segmental and suprasegmental features; students' English pronunciation; task types of pronunciation

### INTRODUCTION

In the last few decades, pronunciation teaching practices have undergone a significant flux (Jones, 1997). Initially, in the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) era, pronunciation was neglected since the focus of teaching language emphasized on mastering grammatical rules, vocabulary memorization and translation of the texts (Djebbari, 2014). In the late 1800s and 1900s in which Direct Method emerged, teaching pronunciation was dominantly carried out by intuition and imitation (Djebbari, 2014, p.88).

In the late 1960s, pronunciation did not become the priority in English language teaching since the advent of the Cognitive Approach (Celce-Murcia *et. al.* 1996). Based on this view, the native-like pronunciation was presupposed to be unrealistic and unattainable goals of language teaching (Celce-Murcia *et. al.* 1996). Thus, pronunciation was not overtly taught except vocabulary and grammar (Djebbari, 2014).

Different from the previous eras in which pronunciation was neglected in language teaching and learning, teaching pronunciation has been regarded as a crucial aspect in Communicative Approach (1980's) (Celce-Murcia *et. al.* 1996, p.5). To illustrate, the primary goal of this method is to promote the importance of communication in language teaching and learning, including pronunciation (Celce-Murcia *et. al.* 1996).

Currently, the present language methods pay more attention on teaching English pronunciation since the communicative competence and intelligibility have become the primary goals of language teaching (Berns, 1990, p.29). Communicative competence refers to the students' ability to foster their language knowledge and usage in a given community through social interaction (Hymes as cited in Brooks, 1992, p.219). On the other hand, intelligibility is interrelated to pronunciation, including stress and rhythm differences (Berns, 1990:33). Thus, employing language for real communication should be the basis of language pedagogy (Celce-Murcia *et. al.* 1996).

Dealing with pronunciation teaching materials, empirical studies have revealed that a little attention has been devoted to pronunciation textbooks compared to other language skills, such as grammar and writing (Derwing, 2008). Besides, the existing textbooks only accentuate on phonetics and phonology irrespective of considering the pedagogical element which the pronunciation teachers hold. In this case, the prevailing materials are anchored on the intuition of materials developers that contradict to the researchers viewing teaching materials (e.g. textbooks) ought to follow the empirical findings for establishing effective pronunciation teaching and learning process (Derwing and Munro, 2015).

Further, a majority of pronunciation teaching materials still emphasize on the importance of teaching segmental features instead of suprasegmental features (Alghazo, 2015). This presumably leads the students to learn English pronunciation in perceiving and producing individual sounds (Tergujeff, 2010). However, a few studies have been addressed to investigate pronunciation teaching materials, particularly in terms of promoting teaching segmental and suprasegmental features proportionally in pronunciation teaching materials (e.g. Jones, 1997; Tergujeff, 2010; Alghazo, 2015).

To fill this empirical gap, this study aimed at scrutinizing what types of task are represented in pronunciation teaching materials. More specifically, it seeks to discover the following research question; What types of task are represented in pronunciation teaching materials?

Essentially, the main contributions of this study is to provide informative insights on types of task of pronunciation teaching materials and their impacts on pronunciation teaching and learning. Additionally, the findings of this study offer valuable information on how to select, analyse, design and evaluate pronunciation teaching materials not only based on intuition but also from the empirical evidence to meet the needs of actual teaching and learning English pronunciation, notably in Indonesian EFL context.

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## LITERATURE REVIEW

### A Brief Description of Teaching Materials in Language Learning

Generally, language teaching materials constitute various instructional resources deployed in language educational contexts, such as textbooks, software, computers, projects, visual aids and assignment sheets (Alghazo, 2015, p. 318). In a similar vein, Tomlinson (2012) claims that teaching materials applicable materials ought to embrace five features for leading the teachers and students. Those features are informative (informing the students about the target language), instructional (directing the students to perform the language), experiential (supplying language use experience for the students), eliciting (motivating the students to apply the language) and exploratory (facilitating the students to explore the language) (p. 143).

Nevertheless, the existing teaching materials produced do not merit the contexts of the audiences (readers) who most of them are the non-native speakers of English (Alghazo, 2015). This may affect the employment of textbooks as language learning resources in the classrooms. On the one hand, textbooks offer the teachers a working plan delineating the apt use of approaches and a variety of teaching and learning activities (Akbari, 2008). On the other hand, they function as the principal sources of language exposure and interaction, notably in EFL milieu (Richards, 2001). However, Prabhu (1989) insinuates that textbooks will not function effectively if they are not synchronized with the students' current knowledge. In addition, Allwright (1981) perceives that textbooks potentially confiscate the students' negotiation towards the curriculum design process. Therefore, a flexible approach to the application of a textbook and its selection should be taken into account (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 159).

### Teaching Materials in Pronunciation Learning

Pronunciation teaching materials are regarded to have paramount roles to shape and reinforce the quality of pronunciation teaching and learning. Further, Baker and Murphy (2011) contend that there have been burgeoning amounts of classroom textbooks, manuals, classroom-based research reports, teacher-training books, book chapters, journal articles, CD-ROMs, videos, computer software and internet resources provided for the ESL/EFL teachers in the past decades. This phenomenon leads the teachers and the students to be able to select and utilize such pronunciation teaching sources effectively to attain the desired learning objectives, particularly in pronunciation teaching and learning practices. One of the most widely used instructional media as the containers of language teaching materials in the classrooms is textbooks (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1984; Richards, 2001; Zacharias, 2005; Tomlinson, 2012; Mukudan et. al., 2016; Timmis, 2016; Levis & Sonsaat, 2016). In this sense, textbooks have been regarded as a focal element in the classroom activities due to its roles to connect the curriculum, teaching materials and teaching and learning practices (Zacharias, 2005). Nonetheless, Zacharias (2005) acknowledges that selecting the appropriate materials is not an easy endeavor since both the internationally- and locally-published textbooks display their prominence.

In response to the inevitable roles of the textbooks in teaching English pronunciation, the teachers seem to strengthen their dependency on them because of their reluctance, skepticism and insufficient training to teach pronunciation (Burgess & Spencer, 2000; Macdonald, 2002; Derwing & Munro, 2005). These occurred due to a number of factors, such as the dichotomous status of the speakers (e.g. native and non-native), pronunciation

as an elusive spoken language sub-skill compared to grammar or vocabulary and uncertain subject for the language teacher (Levis & Sonsaat, 2016, p. 110). In fact, McDonald (2002) reported that a majority of teachers desire to have assistive and facilitative pronunciation teaching materials. Hence, designing proper, facilitative and applicable pronunciation teaching materials can help the teachers practice pronunciation teaching and learning activities effectively in the classroom.

Given these facts, Levis & Sonsaat (2016) suggest that the design of pronunciation teaching materials should encompass three pivotal principles, namely they should accentuate on intelligibility, they should be integrated with other language skills and they should be able to cater adequate and functional encouragement for the teachers. Specifically, accentuating on intelligibility means that the materials should prioritize the meaningful communication among native speakers (Ns) and non-native speakers (NNs). In the same way, Jenkins (2000) theorizes such a concept as Lingua Franca Core (LFC) for Ns and NNs communication. Besides, setting the materials to merit with the goal (intelligibility) should be based on the proportional portion of segmental and suprasegmental features, especially in ESL contexts (Derwing, et. al. 1998). Hence, intelligibility-based pronunciation teaching materials enable the speakers and the hearers to have acceptable, meaningful and contextual communication.

Another principle is the integration of pronunciation teaching materials with other language skills (Morley, 1991; Levis & Grant, 2003). This principle echoes that pronunciation should not be taught in a decontextualized way since it is a part of other language skills, such as speaking and listening (Levis & Sonsaat, 2016). Additionally, Hinkel (2006) states that teaching pronunciation must be taught contextually and integrated with speaking for the sake of providing communicative purposes and realistic language learning goals. This fact implies that pronunciation teaching materials should be designed based on those aforementioned views (e.g. pronunciation for communicative purposes and realistic oriented goals).

The last principle falls into providing adequate support for teachers. It means that pronunciation teaching materials should be tailored to fulfill the teachers' aspirations and needs in which they possess distinct L1 background, levels of experience, training and confidence (Harwood, 2010). Likewise, Levis & Sonsaat (2016) assert that pronunciation teaching materials should not only offer accurate portrayal and fascinating tasks but also cater the essence of learning pronunciation. As a result, the designed pronunciation teaching materials should afford the explanation of what types of activity the students should undertake instead of furnishing them with the answers of pronunciation exercises (Levis & Sonsaat, 2016).

### **Types of Pronunciation Teaching materials**

Despite a number of investigations have documented pronunciation teaching materials (e.g. Grant, 1995; Gorsuch, 2001; Derwing et. al. 2012; Levis & Sonsaat, 2016), Tergujeff has offered more specific types of pronunciation teaching materials (Tergujeff, 2010). To illustrate, she classifies pronunciation teaching materials into eight types, namely (1) phonetic training, (2) reading aloud, (3) listen and repeat, (4) rules and instructions, (5), rhyme and verse, (6) awareness-raising activities, (7) spelling and dictation and (8) ear training.



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### **Phonetic Training**

First, *phonetic training* is a pronunciation teaching technique applied to enable the students to recognize, understand, practice and internalize the phonetic terminologies. This technique commonly refers to the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) as the primary sounds reference (Tergujeff, 2013). In this context, Rasmussen & Zampini (2010) verbalize that implementing *phonetic training* generates a variety of benefits, such as increasing the non-native speakers' intelligibility, enlightening the technique how to teach language skills (e.g. listening skills), supporting the the integration between phonetics instruction and L2/FL curriculum, facilitating them to foster their language skills promptly into their immersion environment (target language environment) and mitigating their speaking anxiety when using the target language.

### **Reading Aloud (RA)**

Second, *reading aloud* (RA) is regarded to be able to provide a valuable pronunciation practice for the students. Gabrielatos (2002) exploring *reading aloud* as pronunciation practice articulated that

I mentioned above that learners may be able to pronounce words correctly while reading aloud. Some teachers might argue then, that RA provides good pronunciation practice. Before addressing this assumption we need to clarify the term 'pronunciation'. The term is sometimes understood by EFL teachers as referring only to the 'correct' pronunciation of individual sounds and words in isolation (p.3).

Through RA, the students are trained to be able to practice their pronunciation from written to spoken discourse. Conversely, performing pronunciation through RA tends to be misunderstood as the activity to reach accurate pronunciation of individual sounds and isolated words (Gabrielatos, 2002).

### **Listen and Repeat**

Third, *listen and repeat* is probably considered as one of the oldest pronunciation teaching techniques (Jones, 1997). This technique is assumed to establish the habit formation in acquiring L2 phonology. Technically, the habit formation activities incorporate both cognitive and motor functions to enable the students to produce accurate pronunciation. Nonetheless, a few studies have divulged the limitations of such a technique. As an example, the students performing accuracy in controlled rehearsal cannot successfully assign their abilities to the real communication (Cohen, et. al. 1991). In addition, Dickerson (1975) verified that pronunciation accuracy tends to change based on the task types encountered by the students in the classrooms.

### **Rules & Instructions**

Next, *rules and instructions* are inseparable task types in pronunciation teaching materials even though they were absent in L2/foreign language classroom activities because of the classical misconception (e.g. pronunciation cannot be taught) (Silveira, 2002). However, such a misconception has gradually disappeared currently due to pronunciation instruction does not only embrace linguistic competence but also strategic competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence in terms of

underpinning paradigm (Morley as cited in Silveira, 2002). Additionally, Pennington (1994) reported that

The value of pronunciation instruction lies in the fact that it can help learners develop their interlanguage phonology by giving them the perceptual and the productive experience they need to reconceptualize the performance targets while offering motivation to change and social experiences to develop a new value set.” (p. 105)

This proves that pronunciation teaching materials are not only designed to focus on sharpening the students' accuracy but also their fluency.

In relation to rules, Calabrese (2005) affirms that phonological model must not only have rules or constraints although the rule and constraint are regarded as intertranslatable systems. Further, he explains that an ideal phonological theory ought to cover constraints and rules to avert a particular configuration and provide different functions.

### **Rhyme & Verse**

In addition, a *nursery rhyme* (rhyme & verse) constitutes a brief poetry or song for children. Generally, it consists of vastly rhythmic, firmly rhymed and fashionable viewed from the children's perceptions (Temple, et. al. 2011). In relation to pronunciation teaching, Temple et. al. (2011) argue that listening and reciting nursery rhymes enable the students to improve their reading skills and phonemic awareness. In the same way, nursery rhymes can foster the students' English pronunciation, word play and so forth viewed from EFL context.

### **Awareness-Raising Activities**

Subsequently, *awareness-raising activities* are one of the pronunciation teaching techniques emphasizing on generating the ability to accentuate on the sounds of speech showing distinctive meanings (e.g. *intonation, rhythm, certain words rhyme* and *separate sounds*) or phonological awareness. To illustrate, the children playing with a language through repeating its syllables (e.g. an element of rhyme awareness) (Konza, 2011). Additionally, the students can acquire their L2 based on their L1 patterns. Consequently, they need to deduce their L2 sounds as if they produce their L1. This can minimize the students' mispronunciation (Zimmer, et. al. as cited in Alves & Magro, 2011).

### **Spelling and Dictation**

*Spelling and dictation* are still viewed as influential task types currently although pronunciation teaching paradigm has shifted from nativeness to intelligibility (Levis, 2005). Deterding & Mohamad (2016) claim that spelling is still considered to affect pronunciation in the past few decades though people tended to become more literate currently. Furthermore, they explicate that there are four fundamental ways affecting a change of English pronunciation in terms of spelling reflection. Such ways comprise reversion to an original pronunciation; etymologically-based changes; anglicization of borrowed words; and pronunciation of the letter 'o'. On the other hand, Blanche (2004) endeavoured to resist that dictation is a traditional technique to teach pronunciation according to the current paradigm of language teaching approach (2001). Even, he proved that dictation can create a cooperative, interactive and self-directed learning atmosphere, including teaching and learning pronunciation. Also, such a technique offers the students to have a pronunciation

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learning experience based on student-centered or student-controlled approach (Brown, 2001).

### **Ear Training**

Last but not the least, *ear training* is a pronunciation teaching technique utilized to discriminate the individual sounds and familiarize the students with various English accents and other language varieties (Tergujeff, 2013). This notion is advocated by Baars & Gage (2010) noting that the speech perception and production are an inseparable unit. Even, Cauldwell (2003) metaphorically states that listening and speaking are like two sides of the same coin. Conversely, such a technique is presumed to be a time-consuming and costly attempt (Ashby, 2007).

### **METHODS**

This study utilized qualitative research approach and content analysis was selected as the research method. Content analysis enables to examine data as representations of texts, images, observable and interpretable expressions for exploring their meanings to supply the researchers new insights and enhance their comprehension on a certain phenomena or notify practical actions (Krippendorff, 2004). In addition, document analysis is used as the process of employing documents as a tool to scrutinize social phenomena and examine the individual or institutional records (Gibson & Brown, 2009). This involves pronunciation module and course syllabus used in the department to analyze based on the materials development of English pronunciation and Tergujeff's data-driven classification (Tergujeff, 2010) including phonetic training, reading aloud, listen and repeat, rhyme and verse, rules and instructions, awareness-raising activities, spelling and dictation and ear training.

### **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

Pronunciation learning materials within the *Pronunciation Practice 3* module cover 20 units. Typically, there are 17 practices and 3 additional materials in such a module. Although the current notions of pronunciation learning materials have paid more attention on suprasegmental features as well (Ponsonby, Undated; Mortimer, 1985; Dauer, 1993; Cunningham & Bowler, 1999; Hewings, 2004; Gilbert, 2005; Baker, 2007; Hewings, 2007), this module plausibly still puts a heavy emphasis on teaching and learning segmental features. As a matter of fact, 17 of 20 units of the module are dominated by the materials of segmental features, such as practice 1 bilabial plosives /p/ & /b/, practice 2 alveolar plosives /t/ & /d/, practice 3 velar plosives /k/ & /g/, practice 4 palato alveolar /tʃ/ & /dʒ/, practice 5 labio dental fricatives /f/ & /v/, practice 6 dental fricatives /θ/ & /ð/, practice 7 alveolar fricatives /s/ & /z/, practice 8 palato-alveolar /ʃ/ & /ʒ/, practice 9 glottal fricative /h/, practice 10 bilabial nasal /m/, practice 11 alveolar nasal /n/, Practice 12 velar nasal /ŋ/, practice 13 lateral /l/, practice 14 alveolar frictionless continuant /r/, practice 15 unrounded palatal semi vowel /j/, practice 16 labio-velar semi vowel /w/ and/ practice 17 vowels /i:/ & /ɪ/. Indeed, the materials in each unit are dominated by the consonants rather than vowels. This is supported by the evidence that there is only a pair of vowels displayed in the module, namely close vowel /i:/ and /ɪ/. Even though three units of the entire materials are presented differently as the additional materials, only two of them focus on the suprasegmental features elaboration, namely classroom expressions and reading materials. On the other

hand, the last unit of this module emphasizes on teaching phonetic transcription. For these reasons, this module is possibly designed to only concentrate on fostering the students' segmental features rather than suprasegmental features. In general, the findings on pronunciation specific materials in this study are dominated by phonetic training (25 occurrences), reading aloud (25 occurrences), listen and repeat (12 occurrences) and rules and instructions (1 occurrence). These might prove that learning materials in Pronunciation Practice 3 module are considered as traditional teaching and learning activities (Tergujeff, 2010). However, Rasmussen & Zampini (2010) studying the impact of phonetic training on the students' L2 listening comprehension argue that the experimental group in their study displayed a significant improvement on the intelligibility of several phonetic aspects trained. In other words, it could assist the L2 learners in improving their listening comprehension. Although phonetic training is probably deemed as one of the traditional activities in teaching and learning English pronunciation, it is assumed to be able to facilitate the students in improving their pronunciation.

### **Reading Aloud (RA)**

Since the findings reveals that reading aloud has similar amount of occurrences to phonetic training, it means that reading aloud might be regarded as one of the traditional activities offered to the students in the Pronunciation Practice 3 module (Tergujeff, 2010), for it involves the determined genres to be spoken, such as speeches, poems, plays, dialogues etc. (Celce-Murcia et. al. 1996). For examples, miscellaneous word lists & sentence exercises and various reading materials in typical topics are provided within the module to support reading aloud tasks. In contrast to the notion regarding that reading aloud as a traditional activity in teaching and learning pronunciation, reading aloud is assumed to be able to strengthen the students' graphemic-phonemic correspondences.

### **Listen & Repeat**

Another major activity frequently appearing in pronunciation specific materials is listen and repeat. This might indicate that although materials for the pronunciation teaching have changed extensively over the past 50 years from focusing on the accurate isolated sounds production to emphasizing on communicative aspects, such as connected speech (Jones, 1997), listen and repeat popularly known as the traditional activity is still widely used in pronunciation learning materials. In the same way, Tergujeff (2010) claims that listen and repeat is probably regarded as all-time favourites in language teaching.

### **Rules & Instructions**

In the light of rules and instructions, there is merely one occurrence identified as a task type of pronunciation specific material in the module. In particular, it discusses about phonetic transcription and its rules, such as (1) writing the phonetic transcription in between square brackets [ ], (2) using block letters, (3) prohibition of using capital letters, (4) prohibition of using double consonants and (5) prohibition of using the sign of abbreviation ('). Although rules and instructions only obtained the least amount of occurrences compared to the other activities in the module, they may be able to offer indispensable information in terms of pronunciation specific materials.

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### **Rhyme & Verse, Awareness Raising Activities, Spelling & Dictation and Ear Training**

Different from other task types emerging in the module, rhyme and verse, awareness raising activities, spelling and dictation and ear training seemingly do not become the foci of pronunciation teaching. Based on the data obtained, none of these task types appear in the module. For this reason, reviewing the previous findings on these types of task would generate various perspectives of them on pronunciation teaching. In contrast to the findings of this study on rhyme and verse, Sayakhan & Bradley (2014) report that listening to and reciting rhymes could develop reading skills and phonemic awareness which are assumed to be able to predict a child's reading success. In fact, not only young students but also adult ones are believed to be able to gain advantages from applying nursery rhymes. In relation to awareness raising activities, Zhang (2004) discovers that TEFL students plausibly becoming the English teachers in China conveyed their desires to be able to speak English by referring to a native-speaker model. Briefly stated, integrating awareness-raising activities with the pronunciation specific materials in the textbooks would enhance the comprehensibility of EFL students (Venkatagiri & Levis, 2007). At this point, spelling and dictation indicated no occurrence based on the findings. On the one hand, this is relevant to Tergujeff's findings scrutinizing the existence of spelling and dictation in EFL textbooks. For example, she inferred that peer spelling & dictation activities occurred infrequently in Finnish EFL textbooks since they merely reached 3% of the pronunciation-specific materials provided by the chosen course books (Tergujeff, 2010).

Eventhough there is no occurrence identified in ear training, there are multifaceted interactions between heard language and spoken language aimed at fostering the language development since the infancy during language is acquired (Baars & Gage, 2010). Besides, ear training is assumed to facilitate the students in mastering the sounds of International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) (Ashby, 2007). Thus, ear training and the teaching of IPA should be integrated with the coursebooks even though the activities may focus primarily on discriminating segments (Tergujeff, 2010). However, today, there is a variety of current technology equipment and applications used in education. At this point, it should be stressed that the teachers should be motivated to make use of some computer-based pronunciation teaching programs that are available in the market. Moreover, language teachers are to be stimulated to use the Internet so as to improve their pronunciation teaching skills and bring a variety to the language classroom. At this juncture, language teachers may be informed of available pronunciation teaching sites on the Internet through teacher training programs, which can also raise their awareness for the selection of the appropriate pronunciation teaching sites (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010). At last, this supports the goals of pronunciation teaching which often revolve around the concepts of intelligibility and comprehensibility (Atli & Ayfer, 2012; Murphy, 2014).

### **CONCLUSION**

Once the comprehensive analysis was conducted to identify the types of pronunciation teaching materials offered by the Pronunciation Practice course (course syllabus), the findings dismantled that pronunciation course syllabus still traditionally cater the students with the old-fashioned pronunciation teaching materials, such as emphasizing on how to produce accurate English vowels and consonants. Unfortunately, these types of task can only lead the students to produce individual English sounds accurately instead of shaping fluency and integrating pronunciation into authentic communication. This course

syllabus design apparently accentuates to teach segmental features of English only without noticing suprasegmental ones.

A similar viewpoint has been represented in the module as a single source of pronunciation teaching in that department. For instance, the traditional task types still dominated the tasks in Pronunciation Practice module, such as phonetic training, reading aloud, listen and repeat and rules and instructions. These reinforce the assumption that the teacher might still hold an old paradigm of teaching English pronunciation, namely nativeness, teacher-centered and accuracy-oriented exercises. Therefore, to gain the realistic goals of pronunciation teaching, the teachers should shift her paradigm to the current one, namely intelligibility, student-centeredness and fluency-based activities.

Although this study offers valuable findings, the limitations of this study embrace the insufficient data triangulation, time constraints and surface structure analysis. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized. Due to these limitations, the future research should delve the deployment of triangulated data collection techniques (e.g. interview and observation), discourse-oriented studies (e.g. functional approach, critical discourse analysis, sociolinguistic approach or intercultural communication study) and technology-based investigations (e.g. the use of PRAAT).

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## IMPLEMENTING VOCABULARY SELF-COLLECTION STRATEGY IN THE EFL COLLEGE CLASSROOM IN ENGAGING STUDENTS' COMMUNICATIVE CLASSROOM

Elih Sutisna Yanto

elihsutisnayanto@gmail.com

Universitas Singaperbangsa

### ABSTRACT

The application of vocabulary self-collection strategy (VSS) to EFL classroom has been well-published, but little is known about how this strategy is applied to tertiary grades education context. To fill this gap, this small-scale research reports the findings of the implementation of vocabulary Self-Collection-Strategy (VSS) in growing and developing tertiary students' vocabulary in terms of second language research terminologies. Vocabulary self-collection strategy is an interactive-learning instructional strategy that promotes word consciousness, as students are actively involved in identifying important words from their reading through video to share with partners of their class so that communicative classroom is engaging. Qualitative data show that this strategy encouraged independent learning of the students in understanding research terminologies and their responses toward this strategy are positive. Students engaged in their own learning, discover how to recognize unfamiliar or interesting words from their readings, develop their vocabularies, and become word conscious. In addition, Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy can be a catalys for engaging students in post listening tasks such as write a brief summary of the text from the video; explain to students' partner in students' own words that text was about.

**Keywords:** Vocabulary self-collection strategy, second language research terminologies, communicative classroom, independent learning, word conscious.

### INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary can be defined as "the words we must know to communicate effectively. Words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary)" (Neuman & Dwyer, 2009:385). Educators and educational researchers have known for years that vocabulary knowledge plays a pivotal role not only in helping students build and enhance their reading comprehension and writing ability but also in assisting them to construct their communicative ideas in different academic registers. Scott et al (2008) suggest that learning to read, write and communicative ideas in different academic registers is a highly valued skill, because it allows for a compact and precise expression of complex ideas. However, engaging in academic discourse i.e., second language research terminologies requires extensive practice and multiple opportunities to interact with words in meaningful ways. (Castek et.al, 2012).

In addition, a myriad of research of vocabulary confirms that vocabulary knowledge is positively related to a student's ability to comprehend text (Lehr, Osborn, and Hiebert, 2004), and as the difficulty of words in a text increases, understanding of the text decreases.

Vocabulary knowledge is clearly crucial for success in reading and it also plays a

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significant role in overall academic success (Lehr et al. 2004). For instance, notice the importance of understanding words about different types of research:

*There are many approaches to dealing with research. Two of the most common are known as quantitative and qualitative; although this distinction is somewhat simplistic as the relationship is best thought of as a continuum of research types. Quantitative research generally starts with an experimental design in which a hypothesis is followed by the quantification of data and some sort of numerical analysis is carried out (e.g., a study comparing students test results before and after an instructional treatment. Qualitative studies, on the other hand, generally are not set up as experiments; the data cannot be easily quantified (e.g., diary study in which a students keep track of her attitudes during a year-long Japanese language course), and the analysis is interpretive rather than statistical. (Mackey & Gass,2005)*

The text above views some concepts from a variety of perspective in the second language research field. The students with limited vocabularies about second language research concepts are likely to be less efficient in learning the new content than their peers. In other words, students' knowledge of second language research words impacts their achievement in understanding all areas of it because words are necessary for communicating the content. It might be concluded that students have difficulty understanding and expressing the concepts and principles of second language research areas if they do not know the specialized vocabulary such as quantitative, qualitative, experimental design, hypothesis, instructional treatment, interpretative and statistical that represents those concepts and principles. It is nearly impossible for tertiary students to read about, talk about, write about and understanding information about second language research, if they do not know the words mentioned above.

The language demands of academic learning are significant. The richer the students' academic language, the more likely they will experience success with the content. Academic language is defined as "the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills... imparting new information, describing abstract ideas, and developing students' conceptual understanding" (Chamot and O'Malley 2007, as cited in Bailey 2007). Bailey identifies three features of academic language, lexical, grammatical, and discourse. Lexical refers to vocabulary and includes both general academic terms such as analyze, infer, and conclusion, and specialized terms such as hypothesis, statistical and, experiment. Grammatical refers to sentence structures, and discourse refers to larger organizational features of language.

Some EFL/ESL classes are taught in a teacher-centered fashion — interaction is dominated by teacher who, for example, gives lengthy explanations and lectures, drill repetitively, ask the majority of the questions, and makes judgement of the students' answer (Jerry,2009). However, vocabulary self-collection strategy (VSS) provides chances for students to gain communicative classroom in getting them involved in interacting in English.

The vocabulary self-collection strategy, or VSS (proposed by Haggard, now Ruddell, 1982,1986) is a fundamental way of opening students' minds to the wealth of words they encounter in print and the oral language that surrounds them each day in order to raise

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word consciousness, having “an interest in and awareness of words” ( Scott & Nagy,2004,p.202).

A review of the research on vocabulary instruction conducted by Harmon and Hedrick (2005) led them to claim that struggling readers learn vocabulary when teachers “encourage independent learning by allowing students to self-select terms to be studied (p.275). They pointed to VSS as an approach to encourage students to select and study words that they feel are important to learn. Furthermore, research conducted by Calderon et al. (2005) with English language learners demonstrated that, in addition to teaching vocabulary before reading, their discourse around the text after reading leads to students' vocabulary development.

Although the focus of this research is the lexical-level-word, – Vocabulary-self-collection strategy employed in this research share stimulate language interactions that support the acquisition of the grammatical and discourse feature of academic language – second language research terminologies as well.

Such research exist on teaching and learning vocabulary in middle grade education but it is rarely conducted in tertiary grades education. For this reason, this small-scale research reports the findings of the implementation of vocabulary self-collection-strategy (VSS) in growing and developing tertiary students' vocabulary in terms of second language research terminologies.

To fill this gap, the two research questions guided this present study:

1. How is The implementation of Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy in growing and developing tertiary students' vocabulary in terms of second language research terminologies?
2. What is the students' responses towards the four statements and two questions of the implementation Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy in growing and developing their vocabulary mastery?

These research questions aim to capture the encouragement of students to learn about second language research terminologies that they listen and read from the video that they think they are important. Principally, the students create their own vocabulary list to the study; together as a class with the teacher. This present study can contribute to a better understanding of how vocabulary self-collection strategy (VSS) as instructional mediation helps students learn vocabulary in terms of second language research terminologies.

## **PARTICIPANTS AND METHODS**

The research was empirical study that took place at a university in Karawang West Java. The fifty students were the three year college students from English Education department. Students were introduced the strategy by presenting some words in terms of second language research terminologies to the class from the video. Then present the three questions that students should ask themselves about the word. Next step, the researchers put the class into groups of five to six students. These groups will then work together to choose five words to do VSS. Then, Students present the words to the class. A person from each group will present the nominated word and respond to the three questions. (1) Where is the word found in the text? The person reads the passage in which the word is located or describes the context in which the word is used. (2) What do the group members think the word means? The team decides on what the word means in the context in which it is used. They must use information from the surrounding context and may also consult reference resources such glossary, dictionary, and so on. (3) Why did the team think that the class should learn the word? The team must tell the class the reason the word is important to learn. Finally, students recorded all the nominated words in their learning logs or vocabulary notebooks. These lists will be reviewed and studied.

To examines students' responses to the use of VSS, data were collected through questionnaires containing four statements and two questions.

## FINDINGS

### Pre-reading activity

#### *Viewing Video*

This activity is the first step for implementing vocabulary self-collection strategy (VSS). The teacher take a clip from a video containing second language research terminologies. Once the teacher has the video, extract all vocabulary items related to the second language research terminologies that students need to know to comprehend the text and include them in a list that teacher can complete with other relevant words of the second language research terminologies that are not included in the video. Through modeling the process of using the VSS, the teacher demonstrates how to use the strategy.

#### *Teacher scaffolding*

The teacher then projects a copy of the text in the video on LCD and uses a think-aloud as a way of modeling how to select words that are important for understanding the reading. The teacher indicates his interest in a word that may result from his not knowing the word, or finding it difficult or interesting. He shares with the class the need to know something more about the word to understand the text. The teacher, then project a graphic organizer that includes a box for the word, the reason for selecting the word, and the definition of the word as shown in Figure 2.1, Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy Chart. He writes the word in the appropriate box, says the word, and ask the students why they think he chose this word as an important one for learning. He then writes the reason in the appropriate box. Next step, the teacher defines the word, writing the definition in the next box. Finally, the teacher consult the dictionary about the word's definition.

Table 1. Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy Chart

No	Word	I found it on page	Reason for Selection	Students' definition	Dictionary's definition
1	Research	Page 1, paragraph 1, line 1	This word dominates in the text.	Collect data to solve the problem	Detailed study of a subject to discover new facts about it.
2	Pedagogical	Page 2, paragraph 3, line 2	This word must be mastered by a teacher	The knowledge related to education	Relating to the practice of teaching and its methods
3	Holistically	Page 3, paragraph 5, line 9	We do not know the meaning of this word and its correlation this word in the sentence	Analyze the whole of research context	Dealing with or treating the whole of something or someone and not just a part.
4	Assumption	Page 3, paragraph 5, line 9	It is one of the key words in the text	Argument or opinion by someone	Something believed to be true without proof.
5	Plagiarism	Page 1, paragraph 1, line 21	It reminds us not to be a plagiarism	Imitate or copy others' opinion and	To use another person's idea or work and

				claim that it is yours.	pretend that it's your own.
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### **During reading activity**

The teachers directs the students to view video containing second language research terminologies. After viewing the video to do the following

1. After viewing the video, revisit the text and select at least five words that they think are important to the their understanding of the readings or that they found interesting or challenging.
2. Complete the VSS student Chart in figure 2.1 that directs them to write the word, they found it at what page , the reason for selecting the word, and a definition of the word if they know it and finally consult dictionary the definition.

### **Post reading activity**

#### ***Forming groups***

Students are divided into small groups that can be formed based on a teacher decision, a student preference, a mixture of genders, a mixture of students proficiency level in language and reading abilities. More critically, a teacher facilitates students to form groups in order to the mutual agreement about composing together can be reached through negotiation between teacher and students or between individual members of each group. The groups will focus their discussions on the words they have selected and their reasons for choosing the words. Through their texts and completed VSS charts, each group is directed to do the following:

1. The group appoints one student to act as leader whose role is to keep the discussion moving as they focus their talk on the words they have selected.
2. Each student submits one word he or she has selected and provides the reason for choosing the word that becomes the focus of the the discussion. The discussion may center on the word's meaning, the importance of the word in understanding the reading, whether the members of the group selected the word, or another reason. The group then decides whether the word should be selected for the group chart.
3. The group leader uses the group chart to record the word, the reason it has been selected by the group, and the word's contextual definition. Each group limits the number of words included on the VSS chart to five.
4. Writing the contextual meaning of each word is the last step of using the VSS. Students then validate the meaning of each word through the use of the dictionary both printed or electronic dictionaries or the glossary that may be found in the text.
5. After the small-group discussion, the teacher brings the groups together for a class discussion. Each group leader reports to the class, providing the list of words selected by the small group. The teacher or student records the words on the VSS class chart, along with reasons for choosing the word and the contextual meanings.
6. The teacher may list additional words overlooked by students that are required for understanding the text. For words with a high-difficulty level that the students do not understand, the teacher provides direct instruction, focusing on the words' contextual meaning.

As a whole, the participating students responded the following:

Table 2. Students' responses

No	Statement/Question	Students' Response
1	Students will be better readers as they understand key words in depth from their readings	All of the students agree with this statement.
2	This strategy (VSS) helps students learn how to understand words in their contexts	All of the students agree with this statement.
3	VSS helps students better understand how they can make text more comprehensible	All of the students agree with this statement.
4	VSS is a strategy that they could apply across curriculum in any content area	All of the students agree with this statement.
5	What is the strong points of VSS?	See below
6	What is the weak points of VSS?	See below

## DISCUSSION

Overall, VSS incorporates two features which differ from traditional instruction: use of student-generated (as opposed to preselected) word lists, and emphasis on student experience and world knowledge (Haggard, 1986).

A recent study examined just how Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy as instructional mediation helps students learn vocabulary in terms of second language research terminologies and the students' responses towards the four statements and two questions of the implementation VSS in growing and developing their second language research vocabulary mastery. To do this, we conducted the following steps. Firstly, teacher explains the strategy. Secondly, he demonstrates the strategy by starting reading the first part of the second language research terminologies from the video then, he chooses a word from the first section and write it down on the board. Teacher told the class where he found it in the passage, which help students to look back at the word and see what context it is being used in. We then gave the students a definition of the word. After that teacher told the students why he thought the word belongs to the vocabulary list. Next step, teacher encouraged the students to work with their partner or group to complete the process that the teacher just demonstrated, all over again. The last step, each group leader reports to the class, providing the list of words selected by the small group. The teacher or student records the words on the VSS class chart, along with reasons for choosing the word and the contextual meanings.

At the end of the activities, students wrote their responses to this strategy. In responding the first statement: "Students will be better readers as they understand key words in depth from their readings". Based on this statement, 100 % of the students agree with this statement. Sample comments are summarized as follows.

- 1) Of course, key word can help students enriching and developing their vocabulary size by using their own words.
- 2) Agree, understanding the words from the passage will facilitate the students comprehending the passage easily.
- 3) By using this strategy, Students can understand the meaning of the passage and enhance their motivation in reading a text.

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Students' reaction to the second statement: "This strategy (VSS) helps students learn how to understand words in their contexts". Again, 100 % of the students agree with this statement. Some students remarked them.

- 1) VSS can be able to encourage students to learn how to guess the meaning of the word before they look up the word meaning from the dictionary.
- 2) VSS helps students in comprehending both a word meaning and a text. Due to the students should read the text comprehensively before they chose a word they want to explore.
- 3) Through VSS, students will be more enthusiastic and active in learning a text.

To respond the third statement: "VSS helps students better understand how they can make text more comprehensible", 100% of the students agree with this statement. Some of them responded as follow.

- 1) VSS helps students better understand to vocabularies and context. So, they can easily understand a text comprehensively.
- 2) VSS helps student understanding texts through nine skills (navigating, viewing, intertextualizing, listening, speaking, reading, writing, lexicogramming and digitalizing).
- 3) Through VSS, students can understand text easily because they have known the meaning and definition of the words through key words they chose.

Students' reaction to the fourth statement: "VSS is a strategy that they could apply across curriculum in any content area". 100 % of the students agree with this statement. Some students remarked them.

- 1) Through VSS , all of the subject matter can be learned easily.
- 2) VSS helps student understanding texts not only in English subject but also in biology, chemistry and so on delivered in English.
- 3) VSS can be applied at all subject matter because I am sure that each subject matter has difficult vocabularies

In responding the first and second question: "What is the strong points of VSS?" and "What is the weak points of VSS?". Based on these questions, students gave their opinions. Sample their opinions are summarized as follows.

The strong points of VSS:

- 1) VSS can include nine skills (navigating, viewing, intertextualizing, listening, speaking, reading, writing, lexicogramming and digitalizing).
- 2) VSS creates collaborative learning.
- 3) VSS can motivate students to guess the word meaning in a text before they look up the word at a dictionary.
- 4) VSS focuses on the vocabularies of a learned text.
- 5) VSS creates well-organized learning process.
- 6) VSS creates an active learning.
- 7) VSS improves students' long term memory.

The weak points of VSS:

- 1) VSS can not be implemented to students who are poor in vocabulary mastery.
- 2) To implement VSS, students need a good background knowledge and guidance from the teachers who are knowledgeable in implementing VSS.
- 3) VSS is time consuming.
- 4) VSS is difficult implemented to young learners students.



## CONCLUSION

From the discussion above, the answer to the first research question (*How is The implementation of Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy in growing and developing tertiary students' vocabulary in terms of second language research terminologies?*) is VSS should be introduced before reading activities and used by students during and after reading activities. VSS in recent study has been used with The fifty students were the three year college students from English Education department. Students select relevant words for study and make use of both contextual information and word definitions in improving students' comprehension in second language research terminologies. In an introductory second language research, students were introduce to the topic of *types of research*. The teacher directed the students to use the VSS to select second language research words from the video that they needed to learn and to collect other words that were especially interesting and challenging. After students listen to and read the text, they reread the passage to find words they thought were important for knowing and understanding the text. Small group discussion yielded the list of word found in figure 1, Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy Chart: types of research.

On question two (*What is the students' responses towards the four statements and two questions of the implementation Vocabulary Self-Collection Strategy in growing and developing their vocabulary mastery?*), Firstly, all of students responded positively that VSS can enhance students' motivation and achievement in learning new words. secondly, students' justification for selecting certain second language research words adds to their understanding of the process for learning them. Lastly, students can build their vocabulary knowledge of second language research through active engagement in word discussions and activities related to word learning.

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## SEEING THE USE OF FIRST LANGUAGE THROUGH THE EYES OF TEACHER AND STUDENTS

Erwin Rahayu Saputra

erwinrsaputra@gmail.com

Universitas Siliwangi – Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia

### ABSTRACT

The use of first language in EFL classroom has long been the subject of much controversy and academic debate in both Second Language Acquisition research literature and educational teaching concerns. Teachers and students have their own reasons and justifications about the use of L1 in the classroom. To that point, this study tries to figure out the reasons of using L1 in EFL classroom from the viewpoint of a teacher and class of students of the study. To gain more insight, this study also captures the students' perspective of their teacher's L1 use. The collected data from observation, interview and questionnaire were analyzed using thematic analysis in relation to the concerns of this study. The findings demonstrate the variations of the reasons of using L1 from the two sides perspective and the attitude toward the teachers use of L1 from student viewpoint which both of them could inform the teachers, educators and other researchers about what and how should be conducted next.

**Keywords:** first language, EFL classroom, reasons, perspectives

### INTRODUCTION

The role of the mother tongue or L1 in EFL classroom and the use of the translation teaching technique have long been the subject of much controversy and academic debate in the field both Second Language Acquisition research literature and educational teaching concerns (see Prodromou, 2000; Gabrielatos, 2001; Ferrer, 2005; Tsehayu, 2017). The use of L1 and translation itself have been much induced by the pedagogical procedure in the earliest described foreign language teaching methodology, the 'Grammar Translation Method' (see Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, since the method was later eliminated by 'Direct Method' which emphasizes the use of L2 in the instruction, the learners' L1 has no longer been used in the classroom. This negative attitude associated with L1 use is certainly true in the current learner-centered climate where instructional attempts to help students develop foreign language skills.

Moreover, L1 use in language teaching has been variously described as the 'skeleton in the closet' (Prodromou, 2000) or as a 'bone of contention' (Gabrielatos, 2001), even learner, the more advanced ones, seems to reject translation or resorting to their L1 explicitly in the language classroom. This is especially true considering the recent rise in popularity of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and the promotion of the acquisition context by means of content-based instruction in a range of subject in the L2 in formal secondary educational context. Additionally, the activity of translation has usually been treated as a text-based discipline in itself rather than as a learning resource at sentential level or for evaluation purposes in order to test translating ability rather than develop linguistic competence.

However, the use of L1 and translation activities in language teaching have enjoyed renewed attention (e.g. Ferrer, 2005; Deller & Rinvoluceri, 2002; Atkinson, 1993, 1987; Auerbach, 1993). L1 is said to be the womb which the second language is born (Deller & Rinvoluceri, 2002). It therefore should be taken into account that L1-based methodological approach could be adopted in order to encourage the students to focus on similarities and differences between their L1 and the target language under study. The use of L1 has also been promoted for certain procedures such as explaining difficult concepts, checking understanding, raising confidence, explaining the rationale of language learning activities, error analysis, or vocabulary clarification (see Prodromou, 2000). So, it becomes additional advantages of using L1.

Studies discussing the use of the mother tongue in general have usually tried to list the pros and cons of using L1 in EFL classroom. Cook (2001) discussed the different arguments that were in favor in using first language in classroom. He argued against the common belief that second language acquisition should be treated like first language acquisition in the sense that no other languages should interfere with the acquisition of this second language. Therefore, the technique the teacher use is different from the techniques they used when learning their first language which might also include applying their first language to help the student learn the second language.

Khati (2011) has shown that the first language used in English medium class helped the students improve both their language acquisition and their comprehension of other subjects and not only English. It is believed that the students should be able to use their first language when they need to, as this could be a facilitator to learning rather than hindrance. Although this study was valuable, it did not contain much information about the reasons behind the different attitudes the students had.

Saito & Ebsworth (2004) have revealed that Japanese students believed that using the first language was beneficial to them. For this reason, most of the EFL students preferred to be taught by Japanese teachers who could speak and understand their first language and would be able to explain the ideas and vocabulary in Japanese. The students were also surprised when English native speaking teachers did not allow them to use Japanese in class.

Huang (2006) has investigated students' attitude towards first language use in a writing class in Taiwan. It was found that the students thought the teachers should use first language to explain grammar for them to better understand. Students also thought that the first language should not exceed 25 percent of class time and that English should be used for most of the class time. They also preferred that their teachers use first language for brainstorming ideas and explaining difficult ideas and concepts. They also felt that if teachers used the first language more often in the classroom, their chances to listen and use English would be fewer.

Then, Levine (2003) conducted a study based on an online questionnaire about attitudes of university students and instructors regarding the use of first and the target language. The study found that teachers and students usually used the first language to discuss class assignments, course policies, and for class management. Also the first language was used to explain grammar in EFL classroom. Another finding of this study also showed that a higher degree of anxiety as the amount of target language used in class was increased. Therefore, the study claimed that the first language has an important role in target language learning, and teachers need to find ways to incorporate the first language and use it effectively in classroom.

Meanwhile, from the teachers' side, De La Campa & Nassaji (2009) conducted a study on German as a foreign language in Canada. They found a number of reasons why the instructors used L1 rather than L2. Translation and vocabulary from L2 to L1 was one of the most common uses for the first language and also to check the meaning of new

words. The first language was also used to compare the two languages. Giving instructions and classroom management was often carried in L1 rather than in L2. Personal comments and interactions between the teachers and the students also took place in L1 rather in L2. The study found that the instructors used words that were connected to the first language culture in the first language than in the second language. When the idea is connected to the students' own culture, they used the first language to talk about rather than the second language.

In similar vein, Al-Buraiki (2008) conducted a study on teacher's attitude towards the used of L1 in EFL classroom. Her results were similar to the previous study in which teachers mainly indicated that they used the first language to give instructions and explain new concepts and vocabulary. Most of the teachers who participated in the study agreed that using first language can facilitate English language learning and enhance students' language proficiency. They claimed that using first language saves valuable class time to explain concepts that can easily be explained through the first language translation.

Al-Hadhrami (2008) investigated the use of Arabic among English teachers and how it affects English learning. The findings were similar also to the aforementioned studies in which the teachers mainly used first language to translate new ideas, concepts, and vocabulary. They also used first language to give instructions and for classroom management.

Kim & Petraki (2009) looked at the teacher's attitude towards the used of first language in Korean school in Vietnam. They found that native English speaking teachers thought that using the first language is sometimes useful while Korean-speaking teachers found it to be often useful. The result supported the view that English-speaking teachers tend to use first language less than non-native English teachers do. Teachers and students in this study agreed that the basic use of the first language in English classes is to explain the meaning of new words and expressions, classroom management and grammar explanation.

Since those studies separately involve teachers and students from different context, this study involves both teacher and teacher in the same context. In addition, to gain more insight into the teacher's and students' use of L1 in EFL classroom, this study tries to examine the reasons for the preference of use of L1 by English teacher and students in the classroom. In detail, this inquiry was guided by the following research questions, as follow.

- a) What reasons does an English teacher have for using L1 in the classroom?
- b) What reasons do the students have for using L1 in the classroom?
- c) What do the students think of their teacher's use of L1 in the classroom?

The result of this study is expected to give the students a better idea and explanation of their attitude toward language learning. Ultimately, the teachers and educators are expected to understand how their students perceive the use of L1 in EFL classroom. Therefore they will be better informed about which materials and methods that may help their students use English effectively in the classroom so that it eventually may lead to the improvement of the students' English language skills.

## **METHODS**

As has been discussed earlier that this study tries to understand the use of L1 in EFL classroom from both teacher's and students' perspective. It will enrich the discussion of the use of L1 in EFL classroom since most of the studies employ either teacher's (e.g. Al-Buraiki, 2008; Al-Hadhrami, 2008; Kim & Petraki, 2009) or students' perspective (e.g. Khati, 2011; Levine, 2003; Huang, 2006; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004). To that point, this study involved an English teacher who was selected based on her frequent use of L1 and translation activity in English teaching and learning although her use of English was very

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good and a class of students from the same context as the participants of the study which came from a secondary school in Cimahi, West Java. Since the site of the study was in West Java, the L1 used by the participants of the study covered Sundanese and Indonesian language.

Since this study involves a unique case containing an English teacher and a class of the students as the participants, this study was guided by qualitative case study design because the researcher focused on particular individual or group (see Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2003; Creswell, 2007, 2009, 2012) conducting particular educational practice (Freebody, 2003). Therefore, the instrument in this study was the researcher himself who employed several activity of data collection.

To collect the data, three data collection techniques covering non-participant observation, mixed questionnaire, and semi structured interview were employed. The observation was conducted for six sessions in the classroom to see the teacher's use of L1 in relation to the understanding of the students. This enabled the researcher to understand the occasion and pattern that might become the reason why the teacher and students use L1 in the classroom. Following the observation, the interview was conducted to gain a better idea of the reason of using English from teacher's side. Then, questionnaire was delivered to all of the students in the class in order to find out their responses to the use of L1 in the classroom. Following to the questionnaire, three students were involved in the interview session to find out their perspective in deep. The questions in the questionnaire and interview was adapted from several theories and findings dealing with the use of L1 in L2 classroom from Polio & Duff (1994), Nazary (2008), Cook (2001), Levine (2003), Lin (2005), Krieger (2005), Al-Buraiki (2008), Al-Hadhrami (2008), De La Campa & Nassaji (2009), Khati (2011), and Mahmoudi & Amirkhiz (2011).

To analyze the data, thematic analysis was employed to follow Parker (2005), Braun & Clarke (2006), Clark & Braun (2013a, 2013b), Howitt (2010), and Willig (2013). The accumulated valid and reliable data were systematically transcribed, organized, coded, thematically categorized, synthesized, and interpreted to answer the research question of this study (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Silverman, 2005; Alwasilah, 2009; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). The process of analyzing the data was conducted both through and after data collecting process. The ongoing data analysis process was conducted for the data elicited from questionnaire. Meanwhile, those that came from interview and observation were analyzed after the data had been completely obtained and transcribed.

## **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

The findings and discussion of this study are organized based on the research questions. Those have been validated and verified through the member checking process and the use of triangulated data.

### **Reason for Using L1 in EFL Classroom from Teacher's Perspective**

There are some reasons why the teacher used L1 in her classroom. They cover (a) student-related reason, (b) developing rapport, (c) making joke, (d) instructing, (e) checking understanding, (f) making student understand. The followings are the detail.

#### ***Student-Related Reason***

The first reason the teacher had for using L1 in her instruction was about the student-related reason. This dealt with the proficiency level of the students she taught. The teacher would use high frequency of L1 in a class in which the students' proficiency level was relatively low. This also happened for the class which the researcher observed. The teacher claimed that the class belonged to low medium level of proficiency. This could be reflected from the data obtained from interview as follow.

T : The students' proficiency for this class is still low ... so I need to adjust my teaching. I can't force the students to use full English at class ... oh ya, just for information, in the better proficiency class, I use English with high frequency, different from this class [the low proficiency class]. (translated)

Those data demonstrate how important the students' proficiency level to be taken into consideration of using L1 in the instruction. Therefore, the teacher should be able to determine that point in order to facilitate the meaningful student learning. This will end in a good result since meaningful learning could have positive impact for the students (see Brown, 2001).

### ***Developing Rapport***

The second reason of using L1 in the classroom according to the teacher in this study was developing rapport. This supports the idea of why teachers use L1 according to Moon (2000). This reason emerges from the data obtained from interview as follow.

T : It's hard to develop a chemistry with the students using foreign language ... you know, the job of the teacher is not only to teach but also to develop a good relationship with the students. (translated)

This was also supported by the instances of activity in the classroom captured through observation as follow.

T : *Ganteng* [writing the word on whiteboard]. Eh *cowo ganteng itu suka banyak tinkahnya tau ga? Cowo ganteng itu cenderung playboy ... right, kata cowo biasa untung muka ak biasa biasa aja... right?*

Ss : *hahaha ... uhhh.*

These findings seems to be relevant to the result found by Primary (2012). She found the English teachers in her study created a good relationship with the students by the use of L1. This suggests that in order to develop a good rapport with the students in the classroom, the teacher can use L1. However, this is just an option, not as an obligation (see Harmer, 2007).

### ***Making Joke***

The third reason the teacher had for using L1 in her instruction was making a joke. This reason could support the previous reason, developing rapport. This seems to be true since teacher and students are more comfortable about making a joke using L1. It was also stated by the teacher in the study during the interview session as follow.

T : ... to create a joke at class is better to use the language we understand. (translated)

The feeling of comfort in making joking using L1 was reflected through the some of the data obtained from observation as follow.

T : The sixth round? *Siapa yang ngasih suara? Geje geje geje gitu kan?*  
The sixth round? Government?

Ss : *Ga ada bu, ga ada, sampai lima bu.*

T : *Lima yah? hehe [smile] ... yeyey lalala, ...*

The idea of making a joke using L1 was also in line with the reason proposed by Moon (2000). It was said that if teacher and students want to make a joke, they prefer to use L1 as the medium. This seems to be true since the students do not need to think the concept in target language (see De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005), so that they will directly know about the joke and then laugh.

### **Instructing**

The fourth reason of using L1 from the teacher in the study was instructing. This is the most common thing most of the teachers said and conducted when they use L1 in the classroom. This also happened to the teacher in this study. In the sense of the use of L1 as managerial purpose, Harmer (2007) has proposed it as one of the function of L1 in EFL classroom. This is also relevant to the reason of using L1 mentioned by Moon (2000).

The fact that teacher use L1 as managerial purpose can be seen from the following excerpts obtained from several observation.

- T : That's all guys, I want you to switch your book with your friend next to you, please *tukar bukunya*.
- T : *Semuanya berdiri* yah, now put your hand on your hip, *tangannya di pinggang semuanya ... yah* right, are you ready?
- T : Now, write down on your paper, *tuliskan pendapat kalian* in a piece of paper, I'm going to give you fifteen minutes, *lima belas menit dari sekarang*.
- T : Ya listen, you're the judges, *kalian kan jurinya*, you should have full attention to your friends, *kalian perhatiannya harus total ya*, all out, *jurinya jangan ngobrol sendiri dong* [looking at the students who talked at the back], right ... who is the boxer [talking with the groups in front of the class], you ... ok set, go!

This finding of using L1 as managerial purpose was in line with the findings from the previous research conducted by Levine (2003), Kim & Petraki (2009), Primary (2012). Therefore, this function or reason become the most common one since most of the studies reveal the same result.

### **Checking Understanding**

The fifth reason the teacher in the study had for using L1 in the classroom was checking understanding. This reason means that teacher assess the students' understandings by the use of L1. However, it is for some cases the teacher checked them by using L1. Most of the data demonstrate that the teacher checked the vocabulary mastery of the students using L1. This can be seen from the following data emerged from observations in which the teacher use L1 word to ask about English word.

- T : *Mau diputer berapa kali? Dua kali cukup?*
- Ss : Three.
- T : Three times?
- Ss : Yes.
- T : Three times or trice, *kalau satu kali dalam bahasa Inggrisnya apa?*
- Ss : One time ... once.
- T : *Kalau dua kali?*
- Ss : Two ... second.
- T : Twice ... *kalu tiga kali?*
- Ss : Trice.

This piece of findings generally supports some of the findings from several previous studies (e.g. Levine, 2003; Saito & Ebsworth, 2004; De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Primary, 2012) in the sense that teacher use L1 to check the students' understanding to a new concept including the new vocabularies. Therefore, since some studies found similar finding, this function of L1 use become the common reason the teacher had.



### ***Making Understanding***

The last reason the teacher in this study had for using L1 in her instruction was making the understanding in the side of the students. It is of course relevant to the first reason in which the teacher considered the students' proficiency level as the reason of using L1. It could be assumed that the proficiency level affects the level of understanding of the students.

For the case of the teacher in this study, she explicitly mentioned her reason dealing with the understanding of the students via interview which had been transcribed as follow.

T : ... full English is good, but sometimes, the students were confused ... we need to facilitate the students learning by for example using the language they understand to achieve the learning goal. (translated)

Those data demonstrate that the teacher prefer to use L1 for some cases due to the understanding of the students. She wanted to make sure the students understand the material in order to achieve the learning goal.

The instance of making student understand was asserted by her in which she combined the English words with L1 words. Then for some cases, she made a code switching in explaining something to the students. The data about that can be seen in the following excerpt emerged from observations.

T : I usually explain something using English, then I combine with Bahasa. This is done to make the students understand the meaning, so that they can catch up the material at that time. So mixing language or code switching by using English first and then Bahasa. (translated)

The real practices of that statement can be seen from several observations. The followings are the instances in which each section emerged from different observation session.

T : [talking with the groups in front of the class] [(\*\*\*)] ... so listen, if you would like to disagree, *kalau mau bilang saya kurang setuju, bisa juga bilang dengan, jangan bilang* I don't think so, I don't think so, right? These are other expressions [pointin written expression on the board] 'I have different opinion, in my opinion, or I disagree

T : *Belum jelas tugasnya? OK ibu ulangi lagi ya*, so you have to present the video about the current issue, *tentang isu isu yang sedang hangat terjadi saat ini, kemudian grupnya mempresentasikan apa pendapat kalian tentang video itu, yang lain boleh nanya, what is your opinion, nanya lagi pendapatnya ...*[(\*\*\*)]

T : Jadi I wish I could fly, kenapa ga can bu? Kan pengandaian, ga boleh pake can, now we're going to work in a team, kita akan bentuk tim ...

T : Listen students, to get you know well, when you have to present your video things that you have to concern are fluency *palafalannya, kelancarannya*, pronunciation, *pengucapannya*, grammar, *tata bahasanya seperti apa, dinilai ya*, vocabulary *berarti kosa katanya*, and clarity ideas, *apakah ide yang disampaikan jelas atau tidak, jadi kalian harus tekankan itu yah*, do you understand?

This reason of using L1 to make the students understand was also found by the previous studies (e.g. Huang, 2006; Al-Buraiki, 2008; Al-Hadhrami, 2008; Kim & Petraki, 2009; Primary, 2012). However, those studies did not declare that as the reason of using L1, rather as the function of using L1. This fact again reminds the idea about the interconnectedness about the function and the reason of using L1.

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### **Reason for Using L1 in EFL Classroom from Students' Perspective**

The previous section explained about the reason for using L1 from the viewpoint of teacher. This section elaborates the idea of using L1 emerged from student side. From the data obtained through questionnaire, it revealed that majority of the students often used L1 in EFL classroom for communicating with both teacher and their peers. The reasons for using L1 varied from the simplest to the complex ones. They cover (a) explaining something to the teacher and peers, (b) talking out of lesson thing, (c) asking for explanation, (d) checking the meaning, (e) feeling difficult to express something in English, (f) being provoked by interlocutor, (g) fastening the activity.

#### ***Explaining Something***

Most of the students asserted that L1 was often sometimes used in the classroom to explain something about the lesson to the teacher and their peers. It seems to be reasonable since the students in this study belonged to the low intermediate level of proficiency, so that they sometimes preferred to use L1 rather than English. However, the students still knew the importance of English to be used in the classroom since the class was EFL classroom. This can be seen from the instance of data from one of the students obtained through interview as follow.

S1 : Because it's English class, we need to use English in order to be fluent ... actually I prefer English, but when I can't say it in English, I use Bahasa.  
(translated)

This piece of findings of using L1 to explain something is relevant to the result found by Polio & Duff (1994) and Cook (2001). Therefore it can be concluded that students explained something in L1 both to teacher and to other students.

#### ***Talking out of Lesson***

The second reason emerges from this study was that the students used L1 to talk about something out of the topic of the lesson. This seems to be relevant to the result found by Polio & Duff (1994). In detail, the majority of the students asserted that they tend to be frequent in using L1 to talk about something out of the lesson. This seems to be understandable since the topic was not about English.

#### ***Asking Explanation***

The third reason the students had for using L1 in the classroom was asking explanation which is relevant to the result found by Polio & Duff (1994). The majority of the students often asked to their teacher about something in the classroom in order to get the clear explanation. This is relevant to the reason mentioned by the teacher in this study which was about making the students understand. For some cases, both of teacher and students used L1 in explaining. The idea of this reason can be seen from the two interviewed students who contended that they use L1 for asking explanation. The data are as follow.

S1 : I use Bahasa to substitute the English words when I ask the teacher.  
(translated)

S3 : When I have no idea about the materials, I use Bahasa ... I also use it to ask the teacher when I can't use English. (translated)

Therefore, it can be said that the students used L1 to ask for more explanation about something dealing with the lesson.

#### ***Checking Meaning***

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The fourth reason the students had for using L1 in the classroom was checking the meaning. In detail, the majority of the students always used L1 to check the meaning of the vocabularies or concept they had. This seems to follow the idea found by Cook (2001) in which the students check the meaning using L1. This piece of findings from questionnaire was supported by the data obtained from interview in which some students contends similar idea.

S1 : When I want to know the meaning about something the teacher explain, I use Bahasa. I also ask the teacher to explain use Bahasa when I don't understand English. (translated)

S2 : I use Bahasa and Sundanese when I want to know the meaning of something in English, so I translate into Bahasa. (translated)

Therefore it can be stated that the students used L1 for checking the meaning of something. This seems to be relevant to the reasons stated by the teacher in which she used L1 for making student understand.

### ***Feeling Difficult***

Feeling difficult in this sense is that the students felt difficult to find a correct expression in English, so that they used their L1. This becomes the fifth reason emerged from this study. In detail, the majority of the students sometimes used L1 when they were hard to find the English words for translating their concept. This seems to be true since the teacher classified this class of the students as a low intermediate proficiency level. Therefore they tended to be difficult to find the correct words in English to express their idea.

### ***Being Provoked***

The sixth reason the students in this study had for using L1 in the EFL classroom was because being provoked by their interlocutor. This piece of findings seems to be relevant to the idea mentioned by Cook (2001) in which the students tend to use L1 because their classmates start talking in L1. However, in this study, not only the students but also the teacher become the provocator who talked in L1. This is understandable since the teacher in this study had a high frequent use of L1 due to several reasons discussed earlier.

In detail, the result in this study demonstrated that the majority of the students often used L1 because their interlocutor used L1 first. This becomes another consideration for teachers in determining their act in the classroom so that meaningful and success learning could happen.

### ***Fastening Activity***

The last reasons the students in this study had for using L1 in their classroom activity was fastening the activity. In detail, the result of this study demonstrated that the majority of the students sometimes used L1 for making the activity in the classroom fast. It is quite understandable since they directly used L1 and did not have to translate the concept as well as the words in English. Therefore, this made the classroom activity ran fast.

### **Students' Opinion of Teacher's Use of L1 in EFL Classroom**

In the previous discussion, the result dealing with the reasons from teacher and students about the use of L1 had been presented. In this section, the last research question about students' opinion of their teacher's use of L1 in EFL classroom will be elaborated. The findings about this concern demonstrate that the students had positive attitude toward the use of L1 by their teacher.

From the questionnaire, the majority of the students asserted that the use of L1 by their teacher could help them in learning English. This again seems to be understandable since this class of the students belonged to the low intermediate level English proficiency.

Therefore the use of L1 by their teacher is helpful. This piece of findings was also supported by the idea expressed through interview as follow.

- R : So, tell me whether the use of L1 in English classroom can support or hamper your learning?  
 S2 : For me it's helpful.  
 S3 : It doesn't hamper my learning.  
 (translated)

However, there was something to note that the teacher's use of L1 in this classroom was not seen as a help for some cases. One of the interviewed students had different opinion as captured through the following excerpt.

- S1 : For me, it's better not to use Bahasa frequently in the classroom. Use Bahasa for explaining the English words that is still hard to understand by the students. (translated)  
 S1 : *The use of Bahasa sometime support and hamper my learning because when I try to look for the meaning of the English words, the teacher directly translate it into Bahasa, it seems like spoon-feeding.*

The above data becomes the interesting findings since the students felt that particular activity should not be conducted through the medium of L1. This becomes a good consideration for teacher in order to give a comprehensible input as suggested by Krashen (2009).

The next thing to discuss is that the students felt comfortable with the teacher who often speaks in L1 for teaching English. However, this piece of findings was not so significant since few students asserted that. For the sake of this study, it is thought to be important findings to add more ideas in this study. This piece of findings seems to be relevant to the previous discussion about the proficiency level of the students who belonged to low intermediate. Therefore it is assumed to be responsible for this case.

The next thing to discuss is that the students wanted their teacher use L1 for explaining complex thing in the lesson. This cover the difficult concept and vocabularies. This is demonstrated by the data obtained from the three interviewed students. This is assumed to represent the students in that class since the three students were selected representatively. The data about that are as follow.

- S1 : To explain the difficult words it's better to use first language.  
 S2 : To understand the vocabularies.  
 S3 : To explain the difficult material.  
 (translated)

The aforementioned findings about students' opinion toward their teacher's use of L1 could possibly add the idea of teaching and learning for the teacher. This again reminds the reader about the significances of this study.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

After analyzing and presenting the data, the three major conclusions dealing with the research question of this study can be made. First, the teacher in this study used L1 in EFL classroom because she wanted to (a) consider the students' proficiency level, (b) develop rapport, (c) make a joke, (d) instruct, (e) check understanding, (f) make student understand. Second, the students used L1 in EFL classroom for they intended to (a) explain something to the teacher and peers, (b) talk something out of lesson, (c) ask for explanation, (d) check the meaning, (e) express something difficult, (f) respond interlocutor, (g) fasten the activity. Third, most of the students of this study express positive attitude toward their teacher's use

of L1 in EFL classroom. However, they assert that the teacher should be able to use L1 for particular time and particular occasion such as explaining difficult words and concept.

With respect to the findings, several recommendations can be proposed. First, every English teacher should be able consider the needs of the students in using L1 in the classroom. This will help to maintain the achievement of learning objective and meaningful learning. Besides, it will help to determine the materials and methods that may help the students use English effectively in the classroom, so that eventual improvement of the students' English language skills could possibly gained. Second, the future work dealing with this topic should be expanded due to a lot of limitation in this study. Therefore that will add the discussion in the area of second language acquisition and pedagogical concern.

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## STORY-BASED READING: AN EXPLORATIVE CASE STUDY OF STUDENTS' ORAL RESPONDING IN THE EFL CLASSROOM

Junjun Muhamad Ramdani<sup>1</sup>, Melisa Sri, Tiffani Dewi, Resna Suci Nurfalah

<sup>1</sup>junjunmuhamad@unsil.ac.id

Universitas Siliwangi

### ABSTRACT

This study discusses how students' story and story-based reading can stimulate their oral responding to students of non-English Department. Exchanging life experience was used as a task that stimulated the students to share ideas based on the story they read. This activity was intended to encourage them to speak and explore their management skill. The action done would affect their oral responding, specifically fluency. Employing qualitative method, this study involves eleven out of forty first-year students of non-English Department at Siliwangi University. The authors illustrate how the activities were employed in the class and the students' impressions taken from written responses. This study is a reflection developing teachers' innovation and creativity in the EFL Context.

**Keywords:** teaching through story, oral responding, reflection in critical qualitative research

### INTRODUCTION

It has been a general assumption that the most essential language skill to possess is speaking. Commonly, individuals think that by having speaking skill, they can show their language skills, particularly in public contexts. However, this notion should be criticize as everyone can utter some words even talk about ideas because of knowledge owned. The knowledge is absolutely reconstructed through many ways of input, for instance, reading, listening, observing, and many more. Reading as one of the factors constructing the knowledge should be experienced well by students in order to build the other language skills. Therefore, the practice of reading in the target language (TL) is crucial. Several studies suggest that learners of a second language should read intensively in the TL in order to acquire adequate vocabulary thought to be the key element of L2 learning (Abdelilah-Bauer 2006; Nation 2006). Thus, it is clear that reading adds the vocabulary and by acquiring the vocabulary, the core element in learning, they can improve their language competence.

The proved benefits of stories motivated us to use them in the class. Stories, which represent a series of events, have been considered a mode of thought (Bruner, 1991), a communication strategy, and a form of expression. There is also strong evidence suggesting that story is an important tool for learning (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; McLellan, 1996). As a psychologist and an interactive designer, Donald Norman (1993, p. 129) asserts that stories have the uncanny ability to "encapsulate into one compact package, information, knowledge, context, and emotion". To actualize this package,



students produced stories based on the reading topic they have read. Thus, students are engaged well in the learning process. Engagement is needed to make the students actively involved so that they could get positive outcomes (Trowler & Trowler, 2010). The students' ability to speak well proves that critical thinking can be promoted through content familiarity and schemata (prior knowledge) because these aspects shape the range and depth of argumentation (Stapleton, 2001 as cited in Widodo, 2013). For those reasons, the authors get the students involved in the story reading since it has been suggested as a tool in learning not only to get knowledge but also to connect the context with their feeling that will engage them in responding the reading orally.

The story of personal experiences usually grabs students' attention. They become interested in not only what the story is about, but how it relates to them personally. It may give them a better opportunity to connect to a more personal kind of learning; it can be a fundamental way of making discussions more meaningful; and it may aid in helping students feel more confident in their understanding of the subject matter (Buffo, 2015). Hence, it is expected that after the students read the stories of personal experiences, they are stimulated to respond to the text orally, share related life experience, and discuss it. Through all the activities mentioned, their fluency and confidence in responding orally are improved gradually.

This study explores story-based reading as a means to cultivate students' oral responding which is not instantly obtained from an effortless process. It needs a method that encourages students to think openly but critically. This learning method is known as think aloud. Think aloud helps to enhance students' thinking process and to understand what they comprehend; it allows readers to connect meanings and understanding with the text (Ortlieb & Norris, 2012). Thus, think aloud is involved to make the students respond orally.

## **METHOD**

This is an exploratory case study which identifies and explains the use of personal experience readings to the oral responding fluency and confidence. A case study helps to explain both the process and outcome of a phenomenon through complete observation, reconstruction and analysis of the cases under investigation (Tellis, 1997). The study was conducted in one meeting which was 100 minutes (two credit hours). One of the authors of this study was the teacher who applied this study in the class. So, he was an insider, while the other authors were outsiders. The participants were eleven out of forty first-year students of non-English Department, from a University in Indonesia. Their English proficiency is estimated to be at the pre-intermediate level. The activities conducted in the class were: the students got the reading about managing stress and discussed it; they wrote their own experience about stress in their study; the students' writings were exchanged with the writings of other students from other classes; the students who read then responded and gave solutions according to their own point of view toward the written problems orally.

**FINDINGS**

**Learning Process**

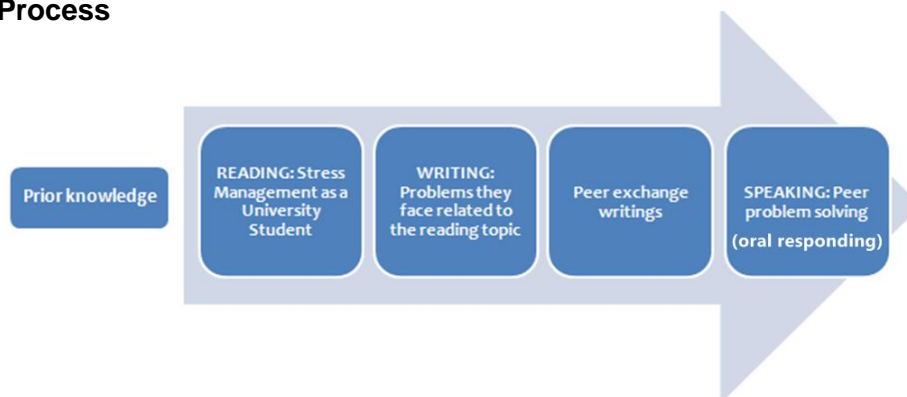


Figure 1. Learning process

The students were asked to read a text about stress management as a university student and discuss it with their friends. The insider author chose this topic both to engage students because this topic relates to their own life experience, and to make them realize that, as management students, they need to manage themselves first before managing others or their business. Then, they were asked to write about the problems they face in their study. At this stage, they engaged more because they lived in the story that they wrote. After that, they exchanged their writing in order to feel their friend's story and to give responses and solutions. This is the last stage of the activity. At this stage, the students tried to reconstruct their prior knowledge to give oral responses about the solutions of their friend's problem.

**Analysing the Data**

The data were collected in the form of audio-taped recording. Then, it was analysed by verbatim analysis. There was a 50 minute audio-taped recording which the authors analysed in this study. Having the transcription of the data, then it was closely observed whether it indicates the fluency or not. The authors used the term of speaking rate as the fluency indicator in this study. As Howes states, the use of 'words per minute' can be used as a measure of speech rate (as cited in Nadeau, 2000; Nation & Newton, 2009). Moreover, Howes adds that the normal speech rate (fluent) ranges from 100 to 175 words per minute (wpm) (as cited in Martins, 1991). Nation and Newton (2009) added that a fluent language involves pauses; they are filled pauses, like um, ah, er and unfilled ones.

Table 1. Speaking rate

Students/Gender	Speaking rate	
	(word per minute/wpm)	(syllable per minute/spm)
A/f	105.543	116.173
B/m	108.775	117.84
C/m	105.409	129.886
D/f	98.499	121.983
E/m	53.044	77.391
F/m	54.286	82.857

<b>G/m</b>	115.879	141.631
<b>H/f</b>	118.181	130.303
<b>I/f</b>	113.208	142.367
<b>J/m</b>	97.783	138.201
<b>K/m</b>	107.988	112.426
<b>Mean</b>	<b>98.054</b>	<b>119.187</b>
<b>SD</b>	<b>22.843</b>	<b>21.8445</b>

In addition, not only from wpm, but fluency can also be the ability to speak up without any hesitation, in coherent, creatively, and imaginatively (Fillmore, 1979, as cited in Brown 1995). Below are the examples of what they have spoken.

#### ***Excerpt 1***

“The problem is he can’t do.. cause he doesn’t eh he can’t **mmm..** manage her daily activity, and for solution, first, maybe Dimas should clarify to his parents and he should ask and discuss it with his family what the causes that make his family doesn’t give any permission again **and...** Dimas has to be brave and don’t forget to pray to Allah. And second, for Dimas’ problem with his friend, he shouldn’t be afraid.... he just tell the reason that he can’t.. he can’t do his promise and Dimas doesn’t need to be afraid to apologize, to apologize. I’m sure Dimas’ friend will understand. And the last, for task problem, Dimas has to finish it when Dimas has time, and tries to make his daily schedule and..and... sets one hour or more time to do his task.”

#### ***Excerpt 2***

“Assalamualaikum Warohmatullohi Wabarokatuh. My name is Robi Maulana Nugraha and I got the problem from Ferina Aulia Suparman. The problem comes from her family. The distance from her home to this campus is very really far. And she has to, **ummm**, have to help her parents to open the snack shop and have to sell out and serve the customer and also her parents quarrel every time. The problem implied to her score, **ummm**, got bad score in the campus. In my opinion about the distance from her home to her campus is not a big problem because everyone maybe has long distance too but they enjoy it so she can enjoy...**uhhh** so that is not a big problem if she can enjoy it and I can suggest her to ask her parents, like....one, say if you can’t help your parents in shop like before. Maybe you can help them, but not like before or maybe you can just help them for three hours. And two, ask your parents to understand you, ask her politely and so you have to understand them. You have to know why they quarrel. And she got a lot of tasks, about her time for rest is disturbed by her task but she can, she have time in weekend to vacation with her parents. That’s the point. You can talk to parents about their problem, so if the parents’ problem is over, you can enjoy the activity in university. So, the point is you just have to enjoy your activity and the activity will be simple.”

## **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

Our findings show that story-based reading to students’ fluency on oral responding impacts on the reduction of speaking anxiety and their speech rates show that most of them (63.64%) are in the fluent category. In line with Levelt’s proposition (1989, as cited in Goh

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2016) that speech production involves three phases: conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. All participants have revealed that they were able to make a simple speech, personal responses as a proposed, regarding the problem their friends faced, in which it was passing three phases as what Levelt's conceptualized. Competent speakers express their ideas clearly and appropriately dealing with the context. They can organize what they have spoken effectively and also articulate the sounds produced while having a spoken activity intelligibly (Goh, 2016).

### **How Students' Fluency is Cultivated**

The non-English Department students were not afraid to speak up. Their fluency was cultivated because they were engaged well in the learning process started from the reading activity. The reading material about managing stress as a university student is a thing they often experience; thus, they understand it more. Learner-centered as learning determines that here students experience the topic of the learning material. It can also be seen that students knew more about the knowledge, and the teacher facilitated them although the teacher actually depended on them. To prevent speaking anxiety like *I'm afraid to speak and I do not know how to start it*, the teacher stimulated them by questioning them related to personal experiences with the aim to make them think critically and clearly. It is a strategy of instruction by teachers to model for students the thinking process (Dunston & Headley, 2002); this in turn can help promote comprehension (Block & Israel, 2004). It also helps to enhance students' abilities of the thinking process and understand what they comprehend, and it allows for the reader to connect meaning and understanding with the text (Ortlieb & Norris, 2012). This effective method is known as think aloud. It makes them enjoy the learning process. They do not feel like it is a formal question-answer as a test; it feels more like a daily conversation. Thus, students have a role as speakers and listeners in order that they are truly engaged. When students can speak up well, it proves that critical thinking can be promoted through content familiarity and schemata (prior knowledge) because these shape the range and depth of argumentation (Stapleton as cited in Widodo, 2013). Therefore, the teacher's task here is building students' experiences (Jacobs, Renandya, & Power, 2016). In addition, this learning process makes students reconstruct their prior knowledge about stress management. They learn not only from their own experience but also from their friends'. There is no 'display question' or for questions to which teachers already know the answers (Jacobs, Renandya, & Power, 2016) in this learning process but share experiences and ideas. Hence, students and teacher have new information. Especially the students, they have the new knowledge.

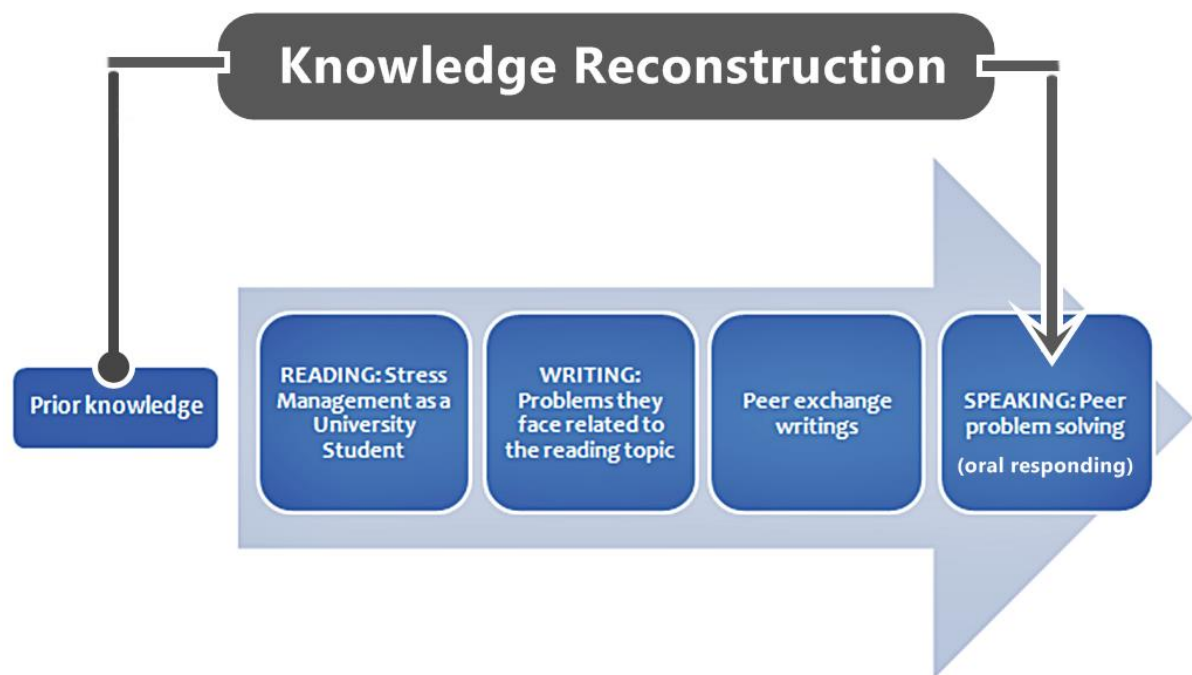


Figure 2. Knowledge reconstruction

Later, it ended up with a fact that the engagement in learning process involves such as cognitive, behavioral, and relational engagement can make students understand more that they are into it (Davis, Summers, & Miller, 2012). Teacher has a role not as a source of the learning but as a facilitator or a guide. Thus, students have a role as collaborators, not only as listeners but also speakers. Also, the assessment focuses on their performance not through a test evaluation.

As a suggestion to enrich the research data, students' responses as reflective writing or in the form of a questionnaire are required to reveal their feeling after the learning process. They can give their opinion about the learning process and any suggestion to improve the learning method. As the data are rich, we can also investigate the phenomenon which happened in this teaching-learning process.

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## **DEVELOPING PLAY AS PEDAGOGY IN LOWER PRIMARY CLASSROOM**

Lee Jun Chien

leejunchien@yahoo.com

NIE Singapore

### **Abstract**

In recent years, there is extensive evidence on learning through play, however, there has been less evidence in teaching through play. This paper will begin by examining play elements in the Strategies for English Language Learning and Reading (STELLAR) Programme in Singapore. It will then proceed to discuss on developing a pedagogy of play for lower primary classroom. To link play and pedagogy, understanding on the unique purposes and nature of play in education settings as well as the role of adults in planning and involving in various activities are essential. This paper will address three themes: the influence of STELLAR curriculum in Singapore, critical issues on play in theory and in practice, and future directions in research. STELLAR, as one of the initiatives imparting primary school does influence not only pedagogical and classroom practices, but also the universal concern for examinations. Teachers, on the other hand, having role on providing good quality play, enable students to explore, adventure and engage in fun-filled activities must also try to adapt with the intention to mesh with MOE policies. Hence, it is important to support and equip teachers and with designated and professional knowledge and expertise in play as pedagogy.

**Keywords:** Play, pedagogy, lower primary classroom, English lessons.

### **INTRODUCTION**

For English-language education at the primary level, the Ministry of Education (MOE) has encouraged specific initiatives including Strategies of English Language Learning and Reading (STELLAR) to boost the standard of English Language and improve the quality of interaction in classrooms. STELLAR was introduced as a pedagogical model for English Language and literacy in 2006 with the goal to develop in pupils a love for reading and give them a strong foundation in the English Language. STELLAR provides a highly structured curriculum with instructional materials and scripted lesson plans, including discussion points and specific prompts for teachers to use. Three major teaching strategies are recommended: Shared Book Approach (SBA), Modified English Experience Approach (MLEA) and Learning Centres.

Play elements were embedded in every unit of STELLAR Guidelines. Based on the play types classified by Hughes (2006), the dominant play types communication and creative play. Communication play uses gestures, nuances and words in miming, singing and reciting poetry to learn the target language. Creative play allows a new response, the transformation of information, awareness of new connections, with an element of surprise,

for instance playing musical box game while teaching pupils to identify the differences of singular and plural nouns.

### **Developing a pedagogy of play for lower primary classroom**

Developing a pedagogy of play is not about simply adding in a bit of play or play corner and play dough at the commencement of a year as pupils are settling in the classroom. Nor is it a play time where we hope that pupils will learn something and enjoy themselves without having planning and objectives specifically set for the class. Pedagogy is often referred to as the practice of teaching (Siraj-B.I. et al, 2002). It is with direction, planning and goals. In fact, objectives for learning and development are the starting point for planning. Besides that, it aims to promote knowledge, understandings and skills through activities and play in which children are engaged. Creativity and open-ended tasks are encouraged. Of course, it places pupils' interests as an integral part of planning but not following the sequence of topics or units that are predetermined by teachers.

### **Purposes and nature of play in education settings as well as the role of teachers in planning and involving in various activities**

The role of teachers in play includes:

- Planning and resourcing challenging learning environments;
- Supporting pupils' learning through planned and spontaneous play activities;
- Extending and developing pupils' language can communication in their play;
- Observing and assessing pupils' learning through play;
- Ensuring continuity and progression (Wood, 2008).

Good quality play, according to Wood (2008), is linked to positive learning outcomes in the cognitive, emotional, social and psychomotor domains, and in the six areas of learning including reading, writing, speaking, listening. Walker (2007) also mentioned that one of the teacher roles is to provide a rich range of opportunities for pupils to explore, investigate, involve and engage in purposeful and meaningful experiences, so that a number of different types of play, thinking, reasoning and understanding can occur. Besides that, it is pupils initiated with teacher suggesting, prompting, guiding and scaffolding in particular directions. It is suggested to be a combination of teacher-directed and pupils-initiated activities (Wood, 2008). Besides that, for a pedagogy to be indicated as effective, it has to include opportunities for co-construction between pupils and teachers, including 'sustained shared thinking', joint involvement in pupil- and teacher-initiated activities and informed interactions in pupils' self-initiated and free play activities (Wood, 2008). The teacher's role is conceptualized as pro-active in creating play/ learning environments, as well as responsive to pupils' choices, interests and patterns of learning (Wood, 2008) so that they are able to engage in the purposeful work that is truly interest to them.



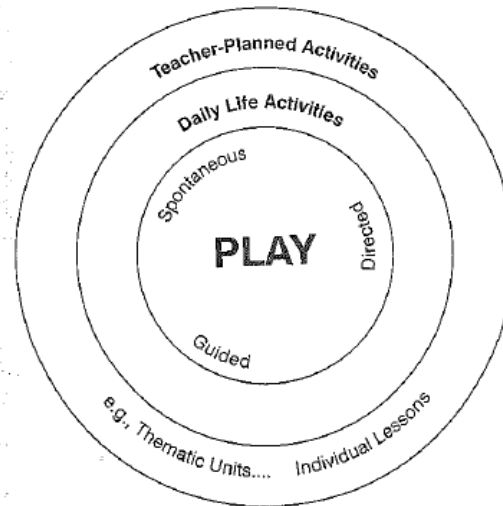


Figure 1: Play at the Centre of the Curriculum by J. V. Hoorn et al (1999)

Based on Walker (2007), play in the classroom setting should focus on the process and not just an end product. The work or creation of the pupil may not necessarily always have to result in an end product. Worksheets and cloned expectation should be avoided. During play, the process itself may be providing the practice of skills, thinking, creating, imagining, or simply engaging in an experience that is purposeful. Play promotes the most natural and meaningful process by which pupils can construct knowledge and understandings, practice skills, immerse themselves naturally in a broad range of literacy and numeracy and engage in productive and intrinsically motivating learning environments. Their interests provide a great 'leaping off point' for teachers who can use these interests to introduce skills and understandings (Walker, 2007).

Play as pedagogy means the teacher's intended act in mobilizing contextual resources to capture, sustain and extend the pupils' unintended experience through a continuous process that helps them construct and reconstruct new meaning of the world. It is the repertoires that a teacher adopts to interweave the pupils' optimal experience with teaching and learning objectives

### **The Influence of STELLAR curriculum in Singapore, Critical Issues on Play in Theory and in Practice**

Currently, the STELLAR programme has been fully deployed in all schools at all levels. It supports and aligns with the 2009 EL Syllabus. It is believed that the implementation of this programme will move learners towards independence readers using quality children's books and activities that motivate and engage young learners. This will offer a powerful means for framing pupils' learning of English Language.

There are some gaps between play in theory and in practice, including having simple knowledge to inform a complex issue as teachers perceive learning through play as associated with fun and happiness and are unaware of play-based pedagogy. Thus, they were encouraged by the immediate excitement of pupils and heading towards using simple means to realize play without understanding its effect on pupils as well as their own professional development. Hence, more support is needed to guide practice through play as well as well as monitor the implementation of play-based pedagogy.

Besides that, for play, teachers need to allow more time for pupils to develop sustained bouts of play, and to return to their own themes and ongoing interests. They need to have time for play activities, especially role-play, as mentioned by Wood (2008) to develop in complexity and challenge in order to support progression in play as well as enhancing pupils' social and co-operative skills, which is also part of the desired outcome of play.

There is lack of continuity in the overall educational system to support the ideology of play-based practice. Great tension in lower primary education when preparation for the next stage is considered, including Subject-based Banding at the end of primary four as well as Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) towards the end of primary six. As lack of more concrete evidence of a play-based curriculum, primary professionals were not confident to uphold learning through play. Another root cause is difficulties in altering the perception of the professional role of teachers. If we are unable to alter teachers' mentality to dispense with this directional role, a teacher-dominated practice will be perpetuated indefinitely.

Table 1. Components of Literacy Behaviours in the Pupils' Play

<i>Play Activities</i>	<i>Literacy Behaviours</i>
Communicative Play	1. singing to the tune with gestures 2. reciting poems
Creative Play	1. Learning the sentence structures 2. Learning the new vocabulary 3. Transforming information into new knowledge
Dramatic Play	1. developing language through role playing 2. creating stories based on past experiences
Language Rhythm	1. reading the alphabet letter from the chart 2. learning the new vocabulary
Story Writing	1. writing stories 2. learning how to sequence 3. writing picture stories 4. reading their dictated stories
Shared – Book Reading	1. Sharing text and texts with the whole class using big books. Innovating on text in order to study how it worked became a popular strategy.
Learning Centre	1. looking and reading materials like big books that children have heard or studied. 2. creating their own stories 3. listening to books 4. learning sequence in a story

### **Future directions**

A clear, explicit parameter of play-based practice for policy makers, teaching professionals and parents to follow and abide by empower teacher autonomy and parent education on play as pedagogy is needed. Future play scholarship should target in providing empirical understanding of what is considered as play in the classroom settings,

and how different forms of play have implications for developing discipline-based knowledge, skills and understanding as well as in the learning of four skills. Research in the field of play and literacy have been conducted from multiple perspectives, showing strong evidence of links between developing literacies and play activities, as evidenced in Table 1. Detailed studies are needed across the subject disciplines in order to provide an evidence base that can inform policy and practice. Another gap is knowledge about how play progresses, how pupils' learning progresses through play within lower primary level and levels beyond that.

Lastly, one of the key points in developing a pedagogy of play in the classroom is to have the policy makers and teachers to equip with professional knowledge and expertise in play as pedagogy. This is because both of them have a strategic role to play: planning for play, using playful pedagogical approaches in teacher- and pupil- initiated activities, as well as engaging on their terms and with respect for their meaning (Wood, 2005). Such pedagogical strategies create the conditions for combining intended learning outcomes with the possible outcomes that emerge from pupils' interests, engagement and participation. More empirical work is needed on the pedagogical knowledge and expertise that underpins these processes, particularly in relation to influencing policy developments and the design of professional development programmes for 'play' specialists. We should have confidence that we can develop a pedagogy of play with unity between playing, learning and teaching. Finally, lifelong playing needs to be considered as inseparable from lifelong learning. We need to re-value our relationship with play as an important dimension of human activity across life-course, and as a source of possibilities of learning and development.

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