INDONESIAN EFL STUDENTS' ANXIETY IN SPEECH PRODUCTION: POSSIBLE CAUSES AND REMEDY

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Abstract: This research examined what causes speech-production-related foreign-language anxiety among Indonesian students majoring in English Language Education. Furthermore, it also looks into whether and how self-reflective activities are able to help these students reduce their anxiety. The data were gathered from a qualitative research conducted on a group of Indonesian students taking a Public Speaking course at Sanata Dharma University. The subjects were given two types of questionnaires to explore the possible causes of their anxiety and their reflection on the process of learning the public speaking skills. The research results show three causes of foreign language anxiety: fear, shyness, and discomfort. The results also demonstrate that self-reflections helped the students deal with foreign language anxiety because they helped the students identify their strengths and weaknesses, conduct problem solving, and increase confidence.

Keywords: foreign language anxiety, speaking anxiety, speech production, public speaking, self-reflection

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/1-16

Performing spoken English in front of an audience can be a very difficult task for some students as they may experience anxiety, which hinders them from giving a successful oral performance. When such anxiety is experienced by students majoring in English Language Education, the stakes are higher since they are future teachers. In this profession, they are required to have confidence to demonstrate their skills before an audience: their students. Therefore, anxiety can pose a serious problem for this group of students.

This research embarked from the findings of a preliminary research conducted by the writer on students of the English Language Education study program of Sanata Dharma University. First, it was found that the students, comprising of various social backgrounds, often felt uncomfortable and nervous when they had to perform before their peers despite them having prepared for the performance. Such was indicated in their high reliance on speech texts. They hardly made eye contact to their audience, let alone communicated.

Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) in speaking skill is one element that many English as Foreign Language teachers (EFL teachers) do not focus much on. The idea of teaching the four basic skills of English, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing, was somewhat bound by the effort of transferring the knowledge and disregarding the students' anxieties in using English in the class. The main reason was because anxiety itself is a complex matter since it involved psychological condition of the learners.

Self-reflection, as one of the methods frequently used in literacy (reading and writing) skills, may be one of the effective methods to overcome such anxiety. In the case of the class that the researcher investigating, it was revealed that they were not provided with medium of self reflection after each of their performances. As a result, they were not given a sufficient amount of time to reflect back on what they experienced throughout the performance. In short, they were not equipped with self assessment skills which could be beneficial for their self improvement.

Another possible cause of not being able to find a remedy to reduce FLA was because self-reflections in speaking classes were done spontaneously and orally (in videos/audios and/or in written) and because teacher and peer feedback might be considered more important. This is true to some extent, but knowing one's improvements, progresses, and how, and why the anxiety appears from one's own point of view is equally important. In particular, the major purpose of self reflection in the context of speaking class is to give students an opportunity to evaluate their own speaking performances (Erdogan & Yurdabakan, 2011). There has not been much research done in relation to the use of self-reflection in the speaking classes in the context of learning English in the South East Asia. Therefore, the researcher discussed the function of self-reflections and how these activities can be a possible remedy to reduce FLA.

In a study done by Williams and Andrade (2008), it was found that written reflection can help EFL students to cope with foreign language anxiety. The self-reflection activities of course need a medium, i.e. a recording of the stu-

dents' performances. In speaking class, students needed to have a certain source that could help them evaluate their own performances. Using video recording as a means to help students conduct written self-reflections also provided a fruitful and helpful insight in the students' effort to evaluate their performance (Nguyen, 2012; Christianson, Hoskins, & Watanabe, 2009).

Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009) in their research related to self-reflection and FLA concluded that one of the most important elements to reduce foreign language anxiety in a speaking classroom was "accepting the need for self worth protection" (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009, p. 42). This finding supported the importance of not only knowing the weaknesses, but also the strength because by knowing the strength, students were less anxious and thus foreign language anxiety decreased. Frolikova (2014) discovered that conducting self-reflections in the students' efforts to develop their speaking skills were helpful in that the students had the opportunity to reflect back on what they had experienced and plan their learning strategies.

Therefore, this study attempted to answer two research questions: (1) What causes foreign-language anxiety among Indonesian students majoring in English Language Education? (2) Are self-reflection activities able to help students deal with their foreign language anxiety? If so, how can they be used for that purpose?

METHOD

This research applied Burns' (2010) classroom action research since the main goal of the researcher is to find a possible remedy for the students' problems in the speaking class (Planning, Action, Observe, and Reflect). Since this is a qualitative research, each problem formulation was discussed thoroughly through narration and description to gain an understanding on the phenomena that happened in the Public Speaking classroom. The data were generated by using a number of methods, i.e. reflection sheets and video recording. The research was done throughout the semester, i.e. from August 14 to December 4, 2013. The research was conducted in one Public Speaking class the English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) at Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta.

The subjects were 24 English Language Education Study Program students. From the 24 students, 5 of them were male and 19 were female. Three students were at the age range of 25-34 years old, while the other 21 students

were at the age range of 18-22. However the age difference was not the focus of the research. These students were selected because the researcher discovered that their grades in the speaking classes in the previous semesters were always excellent (98% obtained "A" grade). However, in the preliminary investigation, it was revealed that they did not have any knowledge as to why they could achieve the highest grade and they could never provide a logical explanation as to why they always showed a significant amount of anxiety whenever they were asked to speak in front of their peers.

This research used some instruments to gather the data, i.e. a clarification type of Dornyei's (2003) open-ended questionnaire for the reflections and FLCAS closed-ended questionnaire by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) to obtain the initial information of the students' foreign language anxiety. The data to answer the first question were obtained from the closed-ended questionnaire and the first self-reflection. The data to answer the second question were obtained from the second self-reflection activity.

In the Planning phase, the researcher had already found a significant problem in the students' speaking performance and thus the focus of the activities done throughout the semester was decided: using written self reflections as the chosen possible remedy and video recording. In the Action phase, the researcher divided the activities into two main cycles: (1) cycle 1: lecture on what it takes to be a good public speaker (the elements) – simulation – real time performance – reflection; (2) cycle 2: lecture on academic speech – simulation – video recording – reflection. In the Observation phase, the researcher gathered the data from the reflections, analyzed and interpreted them. The result of the FLCAS questionnaire (distributed on the first meeting) which identified the elements that caused students' high level of anxiety at the beginning of the semester was then calculated to find the mean for each item. The researcher used the result to gain an understanding on what the students felt when they were asked to come forward to speak in front of their peers. The result from the FLCAS questionnaire was then compared with the result of the first reflection (i.e. the first open ended questionnaire, which was conducted on the seventh meeting) in order to find the correlation. The second reflection (the second open ended questionnaire) was analyzed using Burns' (2010) inductive coding. This reflection was conducted on the 11th meeting in the semester after the students watched their recorded speaking performance.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

In order to comprehend the reasons why students had foreign language anxiety, the researcher distributed an adapted form of Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The results were shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Results of Anxiety Level

No.	Statement	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neither (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)
1.	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English in Public Speaking class.	4.2	42	17	25	4.2
2.	I don't worry about making mistakes in speaking in English in Public Speaking class.	0	29	8.3	50	4.2
3.	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on to speak in English.	8.3	46	13	25	0
4.	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	25	42	17	8.3	0
5.	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in Public Speaking class.	25	54	4.2	8.3	0
6.	I worry about the consequences of failing my Public Speaking class.	29	42	4.2	17	0

7.	In Public Speaking class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	21	50	17	4.2	0
8.	I would not be nervous speaking in English with native speakers.	0	42	29	17	4.2
9.	Even if I am well prepared for Public Speaking class, I feel anxious about it.	17	42	25	8.3	0
10.	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in Public Speaking class.	21	58	8.3	4.2	0
11.	I don't feel pressured to prepare very well for Public Speaking class.	4.2	38	21	25	4.2
12.	I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	0	50	25	17	0
13.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in Public Speaking class.	4.2	46	29	13	0
14.	When I'm on my way to Public Speaking class, I feel sure and relaxed.	4.2	42	21	25	0
15.	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the lecturer says.	4.2	42	21	25	0
16.	I get nervous when the lecturer asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	4.2	58	13	17	0

There were originally 33 statements in the FLCAS, but the researcher only used 16 statements which were suitable with the purpose of the research, i.e., statements that focused on speaking in public. Based on the result, it was clear that there was indeed a high level of anxiety among the students, especially in the area of having to speak in English in public because 9 statements out of 16 (more than 50% of the statements) is 50% and over. To connect the anxiety level with the class activities in Public Speaking class, the researcher dug deeper on the issue by distributing the first self-reflection in which it focused on the students' feelings before and after the performance.

In this open-ended self-reflection, each student was encouraged to write their true feelings before and after the performance. The students were not given rigid instructions on how to write the self-reflection in order to give them enough space to express their feelings. The result of the first reflection was categorized using the inductive coding. The results were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Self-Reflection 1 Result

No.	Elements	Percentage
1.	Emotional condition before the performance	
	a. Fear	62.5%
	b. Anxious	83.3%
	c. Insecure	33.3%
	d. Confident	41.7%
2.	Emotional condition after the performance	
	a. Disappointed	37.5%
	b. Okay	41.7%
	c. Dissatisfied	83.3%

The second question dealt with the use of reflection in order to decrease the anxiety level that the students experienced throughout the speaking activities. The questions of the second reflection mostly dealt with the students' opinions on the benefits of self-reflection in the speaking class. The second reflection, which was an open-ended reflection, enabled the students to convey their opinions and feelings about the function of self-reflection in public speaking class. Therefore, the result was formulated in the form of common categories that students mentioned in their reflections. From the second self-reflection, it was found that all of the 24 students had some commonalities of

opinions on the use of self-reflections in Public Speaking class, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Self-Reflection 2 Result

No.	Category
1.	Realizing strengths and weaknesses
2.	Conducting problem solving
3.	Increasing confidence

Discussion

Why does foreign language anxiety arise in Public Speaking?

Cause 1: Fear of not being able to convey the message well

Based on the result of the FLCAS, it was evident that students were already anxious with the fact that they had to speak in front of the class individually. Although they had been classmates since the first semester, they had an anxiety of what was to come in the class. They experienced the same thing, i.e. they would feel anxious whenever they were asked to speak because they felt that they were unprepared and that they were not confident with their English proficiency. Thus it was evident that they experienced foreign language anxiety.

Based on the first self-reflection, grammar knowledge, pronunciation, voice volume, gestures, and speech organization were the major causes in creating foreign language anxiety. These students realized that they should have good mastery in those elements because in this class, students were expected to be able to apply the knowledge through their speech competence. This result was in accordance with MacIntyre's (1995) result in that there was a strong connection between the result of oral speech and foreign language anxiety. He stated that "language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these by creating a divided attention scenario for anxious students" (MacIntyre, 1995, p. 96).

The first major cause that contributed to the fear of not being able to convey the clear message was from the students' perception toward their performance. Some students described that they felt that the speech content was not clear enough. Although they had practiced a number of times before their per-

formance, they still felt unconfident with themselves, fearing that the audience would not comprehend their speeches. Others felt that their prepared speeches were not clearly stated and the organization of ideas was not well structured. Some others felt anxious because they felt that the content did not cover the basics of the elements needed. Therefore they felt anxious whether or not the audience would comprehend their speech content. These conditions heightened the students' foreign anxiety level. This result was the exact result that Horwitz, et al. (1986) found in their initial research on FLA, that is, that one of the causes of FLA was fear of negative feedback from the listeners.

The ability to master the content was also a major cause of anxiety. Many students described their increased level of fear and anxiety because they realized that they did not master the content well, although they wrote the speeches themselves. Some students wrote that they felt so bad about their performances because of the reason, although they had practiced many times. Students worried about the written speech and speech performance, and thus this produced a high level of anxiety. It was evident that the discomfort was one of the reasons for anxiety and fear to appear.

These conditions were also evident not only in this class, but also in other Asian countries. In China, FLA resulted from the lack of vocabulary, not confident with him/herself, and helplessness (Liu, 2007). Another research result revealed that FLA existed among the Indonesian students due to insufficient preparation, not enough confidence, and fear of not passing the class (Marwan, 2008).

Some other students had different experiences. These students were more concerned with their inability to convey the message well to the audience. They felt that although their written speeches were well written, they were not confident with their performance, and thus their fear and anxiety existed. These students feared that their speech would not be satisfying; furthermore, they felt that they would eventually forget the content of the speech in the middle of the performance. The fear of making the audience bored with their speech was also a source of foreign language anxiety.

Besides the speech content, students also felt anxious with their current ability on English grammar, pronunciation, and voice volume. Although they were in the fifth semester, many of them still felt insecure with their English competence. Grammatical mistakes such as deciding whether to use past tense or present tense was a constant source of anxiety. As a result, they were not confident when delivering the speech.

Pronunciation, for the students, was one of the factors that caused foreign language anxiety. These students felt that pronunciation was one of the important keys to ensure the message was conveyed clearly. However, many of the students felt their pronunciation was unclear, i.e. they often mispronounced some sounds that were not evident in their L1 (Indonesian language) such as [ʃ] for words such as *she*, *sheet*, and *shirt*, [ð] for words such as *these*, *thy*, and *those*, and [θ] for words such as *this* and *that*. The students indeed realized this condition, but somehow they did not do a follow up on which phonetic sounds that they needed practice on.

Voice volume was another cause of foreign language anxiety. Some students were not accustomed to using the appropriate voice volume needed in doing public speaking. They realized that they had to speak loud enough for the whole class to hear, but they failed to do so. Although they realized that in public speaking voice volume was one of the most important elements in a successful public speaking, many of them felt that their voice volume was not yet appropriate for such performance. Another aspect that justified this condition was that the students saw how the audience began to lose interest in their speech because of their weak voice.

Cause 2: Shyness

The second common factor that could be obtained was shyness. Shyness/shamefulness in this case was related to the students' discomfort when speaking in front of an audience, although the audience was their classmates. One student described himself as having stage fright because he realized that his speaking performance was not satisfactory, particularly in the aspect of gestures and accent. He realized that whenever he did a speech in front of his friends, he could not control his hand movements. He described that he felt awkward standing in front of his friends because he was not accustomed to speaking in public. Horwitz et al. (1986) distinctively stated that the inability to control stage fright and shyness due to the existence of the audience could create unwanted chaos in the speaking performance.

Cause 3: Discomfort

Discomfort was also one of the factors that create anxiety. While some students were quite comfortable with their own performances, others were not.

These students felt discomfort rather than shyness. They said that they were not shy with their performances, but they were uncomfortable with their bodies. In other words, these students felt somewhat confused in controlling their body movements, facial expressions, and hand gestures. In their opinions, not knowing how to pose in front of the audience and the camera was a source of anxiety. They felt awkward standing in front of the audience and the camera, and thus they could not concentrate well in their speech. Other students had a different opinion about discomfort. They said that discomfort happened because they felt uncomfortable when people were looking back at them when they speak. They also felt discomfort because they felt that their English was not good enough, thus they were uncomfortable of having people listen to their speeches. Furthermore, they felt uncomfortable speaking in front of the audience because they were not accustomed to speaking in public on a daily basis.

It was believed that discomfort may arise due to the students' cultural background. Apparently, according to Cutrone (2009), students' cultural background gave a large influence on their speech production. Japanese EFL students, for example, had quite a high level of foreign language anxiety whenever they were asked to speak in English because, culturally speaking, they were not accustomed to speaking freely in front of an audience. Wang (2010) further found language anxiety could give an effect on the students' oral speech performance.

How does self-reflection help students in minimizing and overcoming the foreign language anxiety?

One of many useful ways of helping foreign language students to overcome their foreign language anxiety was through reflective practice. As had been previously stated, these students have never been exposed to self-reflection in the speaking classes in the previous semesters. A few have tried doing reflective learning, but most have not. Most of the students heavily relied on the lecturers' assessments and comments on their performances. These students were not given many chances to reflect back on what they did in their speech. After being given two chances of conducting written self-reflections based on their real time performance and their video performance, the students realized some important aspects that can be fruitful in their efforts to increase their speaking performance. Based on these results, the researcher found three benefits of using self-reflection in the Public Speaking class to reduce foreign

language anxiety. They were: identifying strengths and weaknesses, conducting problem solving, and increasing confidence.

Realizing strengths and weaknesses

Realizing the strengths was the first benefit that the Public Speaking students experience when using self-reflections. Based on the students' self-reflections, it was evident that realizing the strengths was not a usual process for many of the students in the speaking classes. The main reason was these students were not given chances to conduct structured self-reflections after their speaking performance. Their performances were not recorded; therefore they did not have any videos or sources that can help them see themselves when doing the speeches. Student 5 said, "…with the use of self reflection in Public Speaking class made me to be able to see the weaknesses and excesses of my performance independently". Student 7 also said, "by using self-reflection, I get to know my strengths and weaknesses, especially when I have to speak in front of the camera or other people". Because of the situation of "not knowing" how their performances were, these students had difficulties in their effort to go to the next level of public speaking ability, and thus this condition increased their foreign language anxiety, since they felt unsure of their true ability in speaking.

Other students agreed with the fact that self-reflections provided them the opportunity to realize the importance of conducting self-assessments towards their own performances. Having been given this opportunity, these students were encouraged to be true to themselves. This meant that these students were given the opportunity to be honest with themselves because this step was one of the most important processes in achieving meaningful and successful learning. In her final self-reflection, student number 21 came to the realization that "admitting" her weaknesses had made her more comfortable to try to go to the next level. Student 17 also had a similar realization. Having been given the opportunity to conduct self-assessments on his own speaking performances enabled him to have a good understanding of his real-time level of speaking proficiency. He further noted that based on the self-reflections which contain his personal assessments on himself, he knew which speaking elements that he needed to work on to decrease his anxiety.

Conducting Problem Solving

Besides realizing the strengths and weaknesses, the students felt that self-reflections enabled them to conduct individual problem solving. As has been mentioned previously, these students were not given many chances to conduct structured self-reflections in their speaking classes. All of the students agreed that by having to go through the process of self-reflections, they were given a good opportunity to clearly see their strengths and weaknesses, thus they could focus more on the weaknesses and try to find solutions to overcome those weaknesses.

Student 16 admitted that after she knew her weaknesses, she could do some improvements in her next speaking performances. She realized that before she did the self-reflections, she did not have definite information about her own speaking performances. She has always felt something was wrong with her performance but she could not figure it out. Due to this condition, she always felt unsure of her speaking ability, and in the end, she always felt anxious whenever she had to perform. After conducting self-reflections, she realized that her weaknesses were not only her pronunciation and grammar, but also her hand gestures. After watching her video and conducting self-reflection, she realized that she was doing unnecessary hand gestures that were quite distracting. After some exercises, she was able to minimize her unnecessary hand gestures.

Another student, student number 9, felt that self-reflections enabled her to see her progress or regress in her speaking performances. From the self-reflections, she could identify her weaknesses, which was pronunciation. She has always thought that her pronunciation was clear enough, but she realized that there were some sounds that she could not yet pronounce clearly, such as [ʃ] sound.

Increasing confidence

All of these students realized that after having valuable information on their strengths and weaknesses and conducting problem solving, they were more confident with their performances. The confidence increased not only because they could identify their weaknesses and work hard to overcome them, but also because they realized that they had strengths that they did not realize beforehand.

Realizing the strengths was one major point that these students felt very useful in increasing their confidence. Through the self-reflections, the students were able to have an actual proof of their strengths. For example, student 6 was able to make her own list of strengths, which was an activity that she thought she could not do. After watching herself perform in a video, she made the second reflection based on the given guided questions. Based on the reflection, she realized that she already had some strengths that she should be proud of, such as good and appropriate facial expressions and appropriate rhythm. For her, knowing her strengths helped her to be more confident with herself. She also realized that her anxiety in using foreign language should not have appeared too many times because she already possessed some strengths that a public speaker had.

Some other students had a similar idea. Student 9, student 11, student 15, and student 23 had a similar realization, that is, they felt more confident once they discovered their "hidden" strengths. In their reflections, they stated that by doing self-reflections after watching themselves perform had given them an insight on what they already have. Student 9, for example, felt that self-reflection helped her in knowing herself better. She stated that through this activity, she was able to see for herself what others see in her. She further described that in the past she could only guess and hear from other people what her strengths were, but she did not have the chance to see it for herself. After watching her own performance and making a self-reflection, she discovered her true ability in speaking. She found out that she already had the ability to show her enthusiasm when she conveyed the message; she had the ability to communicate with the audience, an ability that not many of her friends had. Of course, this discovery was a breakthrough for her because she had a new realization of what she already had.

It was, therefore, clear that the reflective practice the students had done was beneficial and fruitful. Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) stated that when individuals experienced the reflective process, it meant that they were given the opportunity to reconnect with their past experiences, connect the knowledge with the current emotions that they felt, and evaluate the whole process in order to achieve a new perspective. Furthermore, Boud et al. (1985) described reflection from the context of learning process as, "…intellectual and affective activities which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciations" (p. 19). Therefore, these Public Speak-

ing students have achieved a new understanding of their own capabilities and incapability, and have gained a new appreciation of what they have achieved.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on the results and discussion, it was evident that foreign language anxiety appeared among the students and that self-reflection activities helped the students to realize their strengths, weaknesses and helped them to do problem solving in order to enhance their public speaking performance and increase their confidence. Self-reflections, for these students, supported their effort to experience a meaningful learning in speaking class. Self-reflection enabled the students to have a good comprehension of themselves as individuals. The researcher could also conclude that based on the self-reflections, the students were able to increase their confidence. They could have a concrete evidence of their achievements which they did not realize beforehand.

Therefore, as foreign language teachers/educators, it is imperative that we give great attention to the fact that foreign language anxiety does exist among English language learners and that we need to train the students to conduct self-reflections every now and then in order to assist them in monitoring their learning process and learning result.

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TYPES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY TERTIARY ENGLISH MAJORS

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Abstract: This study investigated the types of language learning strategies used by 73 English majors from the School of Humanities in Universiti Sains Malaysia. Using questionnaires adopted from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) and focus group interviews, the study also examined the English major students' perceptions of using language learning strategies while learning English. The results revealed that the English majors were generally high users of all six types of language learning strategies. The English majors were reported to use metacognitive strategies the most. The least preferred strategies among the English majors were memory strategies. Some of the students' perceptions were positive as they perceived that language learning strategies developed their language competency and required a conscious and deliberate effort. Conversely, some negative perceptions illustrate that students had low awareness of language learning strategies and they believed that language learning strategies did not develop language competency and the usage did not require conscious effort. Research in this field should not cease from exploration in order to contribute towards the development of self-regulated language learners who have problem solving skills and are able to take control of their learning process.

Keywords: language learning strategies (LLS), Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), student perceptions

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/17-35

The growing acknowledgement about the dominant role of English language in the 21st century has resulted in the interest of English learners to strive for better English language proficiency. The status of English as an international lingua franca has prompted scholars and educators to find out ways or methods to develop successful language learners. Good language learners are believed to take conscious steps or actions to improve and regulate their language learning (Oxford, Griffiths, Longhini, Cohen, Macaro & Harris, 2014). In this regard, the use of language learning strategies promote language learning as a cognitive process whereby learners take full control of their learning process. Learner autonomy is perceived as part of language learning strategies as both involve learners' willingness to take full responsibility of their own learning process (Oxford, Rubin, Chamot, Schramm, Lavine, Gunning & Nel, 2014).

Due to lack of consensus between different scholars, there are still a substantial number of issues to be examined in the field of language learning strategies (Oxford, Griffiths, Longhini, Cohen, Macaro & Harris, 2014). The complexities involving strategy definition, context and research methodology, due to diverse theoretical perspectives, point to the fact that further discussion is still needed. This is because the ultimate objective of research is to foster discussion from different parts of the world in order to aid learners to study strategically and eventually promote successful language learning. Apart from that, Griffith & Oxford (2014) propose that language learning strategy is still a valid area of research because the formation of strong research connection is highly associated with the amount of research contributed to the existing body of literature. Researchers are thus encouraged to continually contribute their studies to build a stronger foundation of usable knowledge in this particular field.

With reference to the Malaysian context, there is a scarcity of research on language learning strategies employed by undergraduates from public universities, particularly among English majors. Majority of research to date in Malaysia has focused on secondary school students (Subramaniam & Palanisamy, 2014; Razak, Ismail, Aziz & Babikkoi, 2012; Razak & Babikkoi 2014, Teh, Embi, Yusoff, & Mahamod, 2009). Local researchers such as Kaur & Embi (2011a & 2011b) carried out two studies to examine Malaysian primary school students' choice of language learning strategies as well as the relationship between gender and language learning strategies. There has been insufficient research that investigates English majors from Malaysian public universities. To date, there is only one study (Naeeini, Maarof, & Selehi, 2011) which documented the language learning strategies of English majors in a public university

in Malaysia (the National University of Malaysia). Most studies targeting pre-university students do not focus on English language majors (Kiram, Sulaiman, Swanto, & Din, 2014; Shafie, 2013).

The perceptions of language learners toward language learning strategies have been underresearched in the Malaysian context. Perceptions towards learning strategies are significant because they reveal the attitudes and beliefs of language learners pertaining to language learning. This claim is further supported by Thornton (2009) who postulates that perceptions, beliefs and knowledge are often linked to each other. In other words, perception as well as belief is strongly correlated with an individual's cognitive ability to evaluate and make sense of knowledge (Thornton, 2009). The review of literature has illustrated that local researchers in Malaysia direct more attention on the relationship between language learning strategies and learners' characteristics such as gender (Razak et al., 2012, Yunus, Sulaiman & Embi, 2013, Subramaniam & Palanisamy, 2014), English language proficiency (Yunus et al., 2013), year of study (Subramaniam & Palanisamy, 2014) and motivation (Teh et al., 2009). Hence, perspectives of learners toward language learning strategies have received insufficient attention and there is a need to bridge this literature gap.

The researchers' preliminary interviews with two senior lecturers from the School of Humanities in USM on 9th and 11th of September 2014 respectively confirmed the importance of conducting a research in this area. The lecturers interviewed stated that students' inadequate language learning repertoire was a major concern in every academic year. They also pointed out that many students were less skilled at note taking, reading and writing and resorted to using low level learning strategies such as memorizing.

This paper thus aims to discuss the types of language learning strategies used by English majors in Universiti Sains Malaysia (the second oldest university in Malaysia). Furthermore, the current research examines the language learning strategies that are frequently used by the English majors as well as the students' perceptions of using language learning strategies.

The extant literature on this topic indicates that it has been an interesting area of research for the past three decades. Despite the wide interest in this area, the term "language learning strategy" is still a fuzzy phrase due to the lack of consensus between many scholars. Cohen (1998) aptly points out that there are too many conflicting views when it comes to defining language learning strategy. Therefore, it is rather difficult to generalise all the definitions provided by different scholars. To begin the discussion, some researchers

acknowledge that language learning strategy is not directly observable as it involves mental processes related to the learning activity. As such, language learning strategies are not only confined to behavioral activity but also promote mental processes that relate to language learning (Ellis, 1996).

Meanwhile, other scholars have provided identical descriptions of language learning strategies by suggesting that it is a technique that improves the retention and retrieval of information in regard to language learning. Rubin (1987, p. 19) perceives language learning strategies as "any set of operations, plan and routines, used by learners to facilitate the obtaining, retrieval, storage and use of information". In a similar vein, Chamot and Kupper (1989, p. 13) also acknowledge that language learning strategies are "techniques which students use to comprehend, store, and remember new information and skills".

Notwithstanding such concerns, there is a fair degree of consensus between scholars with regard to the aspect of goal orientation and action basis in language learning strategies. It is surmised that the deployment of language learning strategies could facilitate language performance because the "concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies which can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques" (Stern, 1992, p. 261). Oxford (1990, p. 8) provides an expanded version of the definition by proposing that language learning strategies are "specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations."

Moreover, some scholars are in agreement in terms of the level of consciousness and intentionality in relation to language learning strategies. For instance, Dornyei (2005, p. 195) proposes that "learning strategies constitute a useful kit for active and conscious learning and these strategies pave the way toward greater proficiency, learner autonomy, and self-regulation". Sharing a similar view, Richards, Platt & Platt (1992) also suggest that learning performance could be enhanced by incorporating intentional behavior and thoughts when language learning takes place. In short, multiple scholars have described language learning strategies in a slightly different way.

The current study adopted the framework developed by Oxford (1990), which is one of the most widely accepted classification scheme that involves a variety of language learning strategies. Her taxonomy of language learning strategies is grouped into direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are strategies that are directly involved in language learning. All the direct strate-

gies are associated with "the mental processing of the language" (Oxford, 1990, p. 37). Direct strategies include memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Memory strategies are known for the arrangement of information for retrieving purposes. Mental linkage of information is vital as it eases the learner to retrieve information particularly in second language learning (Oxford, 2003). Cognitive strategies are crucial for manipulation of language learning (Oxford, 1990). Manipulation here refers to a learner's ability to manage and utilise the language learning behavior in a skillful manner. Meanwhile, compensation strategies are used to enhance comprehension or production when there is limited knowledge of grammar or vocabulary of the target language.

On the other hand, indirect strategies, such as metacognitive, social and affective strategies, do not directly assist learners in language learning. The ultimate purpose of metacognitive strategies is to ensure that learners are capable of coordinating their language learning progress. Therefore, it is significant for learners to identify their own language learning preferences and needs. Affective strategies help learners to regulate their emotion, motivation, attitudes and values through affective related strategies. Social strategies involve learning through communication with other people which can be seen as a form of social behavior that involves asking questions, cooperating with others and empathising with others (Oxford, 1990).

METHOD

The subjects in the current study are students in English Language Studies (ELS) degree programmes in School of the Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia. The School offers two undergraduate English programmes, which are the English Language Studies degree programme (ELS) and the English Language and Literature Studies degree programme (ELLS). The ELS cohort comprises a total of 24 students from Year 2 and Year 3. The students from Year 1 are not included because they do not take English as their major in their first year of study. Meanwhile, the ELLS cohort comprises 49 students from Year 1, Year 2 and Year 3. Therefore, the sampling population from the two degree programmes is 73 students.

The present study employed a mixed methods research design which comprises collecting both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study. This design was selected because the quantitative and qualitative data complement each other as each approach has its limitations and restrictions. The data collec-

tion process adapted the sequential explanatory model suggested by Creswell (2003), which is a type of mixed methods design that places quantitative data collection before qualitative data collection. The present research used questionnaires and interviews to obtain both types of data. The SILL questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990) was adopted in the study because it is one of the most widely accepted assessment tool for language learning strategies around the world and it has been translated into at least 17 languages (Oxford, 1999). The SILL questionnaires were distributed to all 73 students from the two degree programmes. The quantitative data collected from the questionnaires were keyed into Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS), version 21.0 to generate descriptive statistics.

Meanwhile, semi-structured focus group interviews were utilised to capture the perspectives of respondents toward using language learning strategies when learning English. A total number of 16 students volunteered to participate in the focus group interviews. Ethical considerations were adhered to in the process of data collection as student consent was obtained from the participants and actual student names were not used in this study. The qualitative data obtained from focus group interviews were transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis.

A coding system was used for the interview data. The recorded interviews were transcribed and coded into themes and subthemes by following the steps given in thematic analysis. The related data extracts were grouped under a broad theme. Each broad theme was then assigned with a number of subthemes. The respondents in the data extract were given a number to maintain their anonymity. For ease of reference, "I1" refers to "Interview session one" and "R1" refers to "Respondent one". The extracts from the qualitative data presented in the findings were quoted verbatim.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

The following section discusses the findings obtained from the study. Table 1 below illustrates the overall usage of language learning strategies among the English majors:

As shown in Table 1, the English majors used both direct strategies and indirect strategies distinctively in their language learning. However, the find-

ings revealed that they used more indirect strategies than direct strategies. The mean scores of both direct and indirect strategies were 3.61 and 3.70 respectively. This indicates that the English majors were high users of direct and indirect strategies as the mean score was higher than 3.5 respectively.

Table 1. Overall Usage of Language Learning Strategies of English Majors in USM

Language Learning Strategies	Mean	Rank
Direct Strategies	3.61	
Memory Strategies	3.28	6
Cognitive Strategies	3.78	3
Compensation Strategies	3.76	4
Indirect Strategies	3.70	
Metacognitive Strategies	4.04	1
Affective Strategies	3.19	5
Social Strategies	3.88	2
Overall Mean	3.66	

Moreover, the English majors were reported to use metacognitive strategies the most (the highest mean score of 4.04) followed by social and cognitive strategies. Metacognitive, social and cognitive strategies were ranked as the top three strategies used among the English majors. Apart from that, the compensation and affective strategies were ranked as the fourth and fifth least used strategies by English majors, with mean scores of 3.76 and 3.19 respectively. The least preferred strategies of the English majors were memory strategies, which obtained the lowest mean score of 3.28.

Table 2 below shows the specific learning strategies used by the English majors:

Table 2. Specific Language Learning Strategies Used by English Majors in USM

Statements of language learning strategies	Category
I think of relationships between what I already know	Memory strategy

Statements of language learning strategies	Category
and new things I learn in English.	
I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	Cognitive Strategy
To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	Compensation strategy
I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	Metacognitive strategy
I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	Affective strategy
I ask questions in English.	Social strategy

It is important to mention that every language learning strategy consists of a wide range of specific strategies. The English majors were found to be actively employing a variety of specific strategies across six types of language learning strategies. For instance, the six statements provided in Table 2 above were specific strategies that were ranked as the highest among the six types of language learning strategies respectively. In other words, the English majors frequently utilised a variety of specific strategies which were entailed in the six types of language learning strategies.

The qualitative data acquired from the respondents which indicated the use of a wide range of specific strategies supported the finding and were parallel with the quantitative data. The analysis of the interview data showed that there were several perceptions held by English majors with regards to the use of language learning strategies. In general, there were five main themes successfully identified from the focus group interviews; they are: (1) students had low awareness of LLS; (2) LLS develop language competency; (3) LLS do not always develop language competency; (4) LLS require conscious effort; and (5) LLS do not require conscious effort.

Table 3 below shows data extracts from the students for the first theme (Low Awareness of the usage of LLS)

Table 3. Theme 1 (Low Awareness of the Usage of LLS)

Data Extract	Coded for
I1-R3 Throughout primary school and high school the only thing that they are actually taught us is all about speaking, reading and writing.	LA1: having limited exposure to language learning strategies
I2-R1: But usually the teacher just gives	LA2: having no previous knowledge of

Data Extract	Coded for
us the work and we just follow them. I think just follow the syllabus. Unlike the mathematic class where we are taught with more strategies but English has less I think.	language learning strategies
I2-R1: never heard before	LA2: having no previous knowledge of language learning strategies
I2-R5: Ya we have no clue at all	LA2: having no previous knowledge of language learning strategies
I1-R8: About the strategy, the teacher just say read this read that. I think is more of the passing strategy is not learning strategy.	LA3: having distorted view of language learning

LA = Language Awareness

Table 4 shows data extracts from the students for the second theme (LLS Develop Language Competency):

Table 4. Theme 2 (LLS Develop Language Competency)

Data Extract	Coded for
I1-R2: Language learning strategies usually bring a positive impact I think. Like for myself, I am currently learning Mandarin and I learn with my Chinese roommate and it is effective as I could make sense of the language a little bit haha.	DLC1: Language learning strategies bring positive impact.
I2-R8: Language learning strategy is the method to enhance learning experience because I think we as the students have to keep finding ways to improve day by day especially you know we are major in English.	DLC1: Language learning strategies bring positive impact.
I1-R3: Ya I agree on that. I think it is something that we could apply more and I guess it will improve our language performance.	DLC2: Language learning strategies improve language proficiency.
I 2-R3: Is a way to improve the knowledge and enhance learning.	DLC2: Language learning strategies improve language proficiency.
I2 -R6: Language learning strategy is like specific instruction? Instruction that helps	DLC2: Language learning strategies improve language proficiency.

Data Extract	Coded for
us improves our language.	

DLC= Develop Language Competency

Table 5 presents selected data extracts from the students for the third theme (LLS Do Not Always Develop Language Competency)

Table 5. Theme 3 (LLS Do Not Always Develop Language Competency)

Data Extract	Coded for
I1-R2: It depends on your environment as well. Most people I know they don't speak English at all. So it is kind of hard for them to learn. They have no opportunity for them to use the language at all.	DADLC1: Learner's background influences the language performance.
I1-R4: I think the good and bad is really depend on the strategy like a lot of students are not native speakers, they end up translating the language from their mother tongue. I think it is a bad habit.	DADLC1: Learner's background influences the language performance.
I2-R4: Those students who perform better usually speak in English and not in other languages like Malay and others. So their English is more fluent due to more usage I think.	DADLC1: Learner's background influences the language performance.
I1-R3: It is unacceptable for someone to mock you. Basically everybody should understand that it is your own individual preference, see what you good at, access yourself before you start putting in technical stuff into it. Find something that works with you	DADLC2: Learner's learning preference influences the language performance.
I1-R3: Ya, they told you about the same thing since you are a kid and I don't think it really help anybody. People have different language learning strategies that they prefer.	DADLC2: Learner's learning preference influences the language performance.
I1-R4: I think no matter how good you are, you really have to work hard to really know the language what not if you are not fluent in it instead of just focus on the	DADLC3: Learner's effort influences the language performance.

Data Extract	Coded for
strategy.	
I1-R3: Depend on your level of motivation as well, no matter how many strategies you have, if you don't have the motivation and drive you won't perform. Whether it is intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation, either the motivation comes within yourself or from external sources, it depends on you and what drive you to learn the language.	DADLC4: Learner's motivation level influences the language performance.

DADLC = Do Not Always Develop Language Competency

Table 6 shows data extracts from the students for the fourth theme (LLS Require Conscious Effort)

Table 6. Theme 4 (LLS Require Conscious Effort)

Data Extract	Coded for
I1-R2: I think is a mental leaning skill learning how to use a language.	RCE1: Language learning strategies are cognitive skills.
I1-R3: Ya I agree on that. I think it is something that we could apply more consciously and I guess it will improve our language performance.	RCE2: Language learning strategies require deliberate cognitive effort.
I1-R2: … Both of my parents come from different linguistic background, so it is easy for me to pick it up. But if you apply it to a regular person, yes you have to really put in effort	RCE2: Language learning strategies require deliberate cognitive effort.
I1-R5: Because as mentioned just now, English is such a complicated language, if you are a person who does not really speak English, it is difficult because you are taught certain sets of thing but they are all exception of the thing you have leant. So you have to have certain kind of conscious effort to make sure that they get the language.	RCE2: Language learning strategies require deliberate cognitive effort.

RCE = Require Conscious Effort

Lastly, Table 7 shows data extracts of the students for the fifth theme (LLS Do Not Require Conscious Effort)

Table 7: Theme 5 (LLS Do Not Require Conscious Effort)

Data Extract	Coded for
I1-R2: The English comes naturally to me. I am poor in Chinese although I am a Chinese.	DRCE1: Language learning is natural and base on intuition.
I2-R1: Subconsciously when we watch movie. We absorb the word when we hear it once again we will be able to recall.	DRCE1: Language learning is natural and base on intuition.
I2-R5: Sometimes naturally. I think learning English for me is based on instinct.	DRCE1: Language learning is naturally and base on intuition.
I1-R4: I always think that language is a way to express yourself. There is no specific strategy. I think u can just apply anything to improve your language.	DRCE2: Language learning does not require language learning strategies.
I2-R5: I learn English naturally and it does not take need any specific language learning strategies or instruction.	DRCE2: Language learning does not require language learning strategies.

DRCE = Do Not Require Conscious Effort

Discussion

The findings of the present study revealed that the English majors used a wide range of direct and indirect strategies. However, the quantitative data obtained from the SILL questionnaire revealed that the respondents took a diverse approach in terms of the usage of direct and indirect strategies. The students were more inclined to use indirect strategies as the findings showed that the top two strategies used by the students were metacognitive and social strategies. This finding aligns with the results from a study conducted by Kiram et al. (2014) who investigated LLS among undergraduates from a university in Malaysia. They reported that their respondents were in favor of using indirect strategies rather than direct strategies. In addition, the results of this study support the findings by Shafie (2013) as she indicated that Malaysian undergraduates employed more indirect strategies. However, different results were reported in a study conducted by Subramanian and Palanisamy (2014), which re-

vealed that Malaysian secondary school students were in fact more inclined to use direct strategies.

The descriptive analysis demonstrated that metacogntive strategies had the highest mean score followed by social and cognitive strategies. The students were identified as medium users of affective and memory strategies. The high usage of metacognitive strategies reflected that the respondents acknowledged the importance to coordinate their language learning. The findings of this study were consistent with the study conducted by Kiram et al. (2014) which claimed that Malaysian undergraduates employed metacognitive and social strategies the most in their past language learning experience. Besides, Kiram et al. (2014) also suggested that affective and memory strategies were the least preferred strategies employed by Malaysian undergraduates. In contrast to this, the study by Subramanian and Palanisamy (2014) revealed that cognitive strategies were the most preferred strategies used by Malaysian secondary school students while compensation strategies had the least usage. In a similar vein, Shafie (2013) reported a slightly different result as the respondents in her study (Malaysian undergraduates) used social strategies the most but used affective strategies the least.

The memory related strategy that was frequently used by the students was "*I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English."* This indicates that when the students come across new information in language learning, they will actively associate the new information with the existing information so that they could remember the information with ease. Apart from that, the cognitive related strategies that were frequently used by the English majors were "*I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English*". This suggests that the English majors focused on using a lot of different activities such as watching English television shows to constantly improve their language competency. These strategies are known as practicing naturalistically which tend to occur in informal settings.

In terms of compensation strategies, the statement that scored the highest means was "*to understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses*". This indicates that the students could be learning more efficiently when they guess the meaning of the words or sentences with the help of the linguistic or non linguistic context. The metacognitive strategy that had the highest usage was ""*I pay attention when someone is speaking English*." The available evidence

points out that the English majors are consciously aware and are sensitive about any verbal communication in English

The respondents also reported using the following affective related strategy frequently: "*I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake*". They acknowledged the importance to speak English in daily life as it is the only way to improve their speaking skills in English. As for social strategies, the most frequently used strategy was "*I ask questions in English*" which shows that they are willing to ask for help when facing language difficulties.

Data from the focus group interviews indicated several perspectives held by the English majors. The first theme was the students' low awareness of language learning strategies. A number of the respondents had low awareness in LLS and they were not concerned about the usage of LLS. These students acknowledged that their level of awareness regarding strategy usage when learning English was rather low. The second theme suggested that some respondents strongly believed that language learning strategies impacted positively on their language learning. The students stated that they could observe improvements consistently once they applied certain strategies in language learning. This result corresponded with a study conducted by Yunus et al. (2013) who indicated that the proficient Malaysian secondary schools students were high strategy users.

Conversely, the third theme revealed that there were students who claimed that language learning strategies did not always develop language competency. These students hold a very different perspective as they tend to believe that certain internal as well as external factors play an important role in developing language competency. The fourth theme suggested that some of the respondents clearly acknowledged that language learning strategies are cognitive skills that require conscious effort. The respondents' perceptions reflected that they were in agreement to the idea that learning strategies constitute active and conscious learning. All these beliefs are consistent with findings from other researchers such as Chamot (2004) and Dornyei (2005) who also reinforce the role of conscious thoughts and action in regard to language learning strategies. Therefore, this shows that some English majors have the appropriate beliefs and perceptions when it comes to language learning.

However, the fifth theme, which described that language learning strategies do not require conscious effort is in direct opposition to the previous theme. This can be explained because there were a certain number of respond-

ents who approached language learning in a naturalistic manner. They underscored that language learning should be natural and is based on intuition. This belief and attitude towards language learning is not consistent among researchers such as Cohen (1998) who assert that the storage, retention and application during language learning could be enhanced only when the learner consciously selects the appropriate learning strategy.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The current study reached several conclusions. The first is that the English majors from USM are generally high users of language learning strategies. They use a wide range of language learning strategies and each strategy is used at a different frequency. However, the interview sessions revealed that a number of students are still unaware of the existence of language learning strategies. Moreover, some of the students are still uncertain and skeptical about the positive impact of strategy use. As a result, they appeared reluctant to incorporate learning strategy in their language learning. Hence, there is a need to reinforce language learning strategies in the language education system in Malaysia. The Malaysian education system does not provide adequate exposure about strategy training at school. There is a need to raise awareness about strategy use among school teachers in an effort to enhance students' language learning experiences.

This study recommends that language learning strategies be incorporated into English language textbooks as they are one of the most effective ways to simultaneously develop strategy usage while learning the language. The integration of language learning strategies into the curriculum in schools might help students to improve their strategy use across tasks and skills which provides a great opportunity for learners to be exposed to a rich repertoire of strategies. This in turn may eventually help them to become autonomous and self-directed learners in future. As suggested by Dornyei (2005, p. 14) "learning strategies constitute a useful kit for active and conscious learning and these strategies pave the way toward greater proficiency, learner autonomy, and self-regulation".

Another crucial recommendation is the role of the instructor as a facilitator in language learning. English language instructors in schools and universities should acknowledge the significant impact of language learning strategies in language learning. Instructors themselves have to be equipped with adequate

tools of language learning so that they are able to address their students' language learning needs. Language learning strategies are functional according to the students' needs and specific instructions have to be given to students to enhance their learning performance. The instructor's goal is to develop a student that is able to evaluate and identify the appropriate strategy that could solve the language learning task. Furthermore, the instructor has to make sure that students are able to transfer the strategies that they have mastered to any new learning situation.

The findings of this study show that affective and memory strategies have the least usage among USM English majors. It is plausible to claim that the relatively low usage of these two strategies is due to students' inadequate knowledge about LLS. A number of research studies have reported that successful learners tend to use a high overall usage of the six types of strategies to facilitate language performance (Shi, 2012; Salahshour, Sharifi & Salahshour, 2012). Therefore, it is imperative for university instructors to encourage their students to use language learning strategies by providing them with adequate information about each strategy. Moreover, tertiary language instructors could assess the strategy usage of their students on a regular basis in order to gain a better understanding of students' language learning preferences so that they could individualise the learning content.

The field of language learning strategies will continue to offer procedural and declarative knowledge for students to take control of their language learning (Oxford, Rubin, Chamot, Schramm, Lavine, Gunning, & Nel, 2014). The knowledge that is contributed from this field could develop self regulated language learners who are equipped with problem solving skills and developed into active agents that take control of their learning process.

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WASHBACK OF ENGLISH NATIONAL EXAMINATION IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT

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Abstract: This study examines how teachers teach English to prepare students for high-stakes English national examination in the Indonesian context. Data were collected from two high-achieving and three low-achieving schools with eleven teachers as the subjects of in-depth interviews and non-participatory classroom observations. The findings reveal that bi-directional washback was found in both groups of schools. The schools of low achievers were found to have more intensive negative washback than those of high achievers. The different intensity of negative washback is likely related to the teachers' perspective about their students' level of competence for passing the national examination and about the quality of their schools. The consistently unsatisfactory national examination scores of the low-achieving schools, despite their concerted efforts in the examination preparation program, suggest that the government should focus on supporting such schools with more empirically-based empowerment programs, which would become an indispensable follow-up actions regarding the implementation of the high-stakes national examination.

Keywords: English national examination, washback, high-achieving schools, low-achieving schools, Indonesia

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/36-58

In the Indonesian context, English is one of the subjects in junior and senior high schools, the final achievement of which is partly measured in the national final examination, as officially stated in the Ministry of Education Decree No. 34/2007. The result of the English National Examination (henceforth ENE) is used as one of the bases to determine student graduations from the schools and to consider for selection purposes at the higher levels of education. Such a decisive power of ENE classifies it as a high-stakes test that creates never-ending controversies.

In the local as well as national mass media, people have expressed agreements and disagreements towards that decisive role. The continuing pros and cons, however, have more frequently been based on personal opinions than on the findings resulting from empirical research studies. There have been very few studies on the effect of ENE as a high-stakes test on the teaching and learning process of English in Indonesian classrooms. The arguments also tend to be general as they are rarely directed specifically towards the effects of the national examination of a specific subject like English on the teaching and learning of the subject. Therefore, very little evidence can be used to support suggestions to improve the quality of the teaching and learning process of the subject.

Studies on the effects of a high-stakes test such as ENE can be found under the term 'washback' which, in this study, is defined as the effect of the national examination on the teaching and learning process. Several studies on washback reveal that the washback of a high-stakes test can actually be either negative or positive. Several studies on washback have been done abroad, such as in China (Qi, 2005), Hongkong (Andrew, Fullilove, & Wong, 2002), Jordan (Al Jamal & Ghadi, 2008), Taiwan (Chen, 2002), and USA (Stecher, Chun, &Barron, 2004).

The negative washback comes in many ways. The first is the refocus of teaching activities that result in the rearrangement of time allotment. More time is devoted to preparing students to take the test by spending more time for the teaching of the tested subjects (Chen, 2002; Ferman, 2004; Qi, 2005). Spratt's review of five studies on washback (2005) also shows that more curriculum time is spent on exam classes and that there are more students in exam classes than in regular ones. This reallocation of time is done at the expense of non-tested subjects, resulting in the sort of washback labelled as narrowing the curriculum or narrowing the scope and content of teaching and learning (Ferman, 2004; Qi, 2005). Spratt (2005) supports this finding as she also found the same

case from the five studies that she reviewed. Teachers teach the tested subjects, and once the test is over, they will pay attention to non-tested subjects again.

Changes in the content of teaching happen only superficially instead of being directed substantially to meet the achievement standards based on which a high-stakes test is constructed. It is superficial in that teachers only teach the parts that students will meet in a test. For example, as Stecher, Chun, and Barron (2004) point out, teachers focus on teaching students to write short paragraphs for the preparation to take the WASL (Washington Assessment of Student Learning) writing test. Such practices are in line with what Andrew, Fullilove, and Wong (2002) found. They reported that the sort of washback which is most apparent seems to represent a very superficial level of learning outcome, such as familiarization with the exam format and the rote-learning of exam-specific strategies and formulaic phrases. The use of contextually inappropriate phrases by a number of the students seems to indicate memorization rather than meaningful internalization of the tested language functions. Qi (2005) found that in preparing students for the writing section of a high-stakes university entrance test, the National Matriculation English Test in China (NMET), teachers focus more on linguistic accuracy, neglecting the communicative feature of writing a text.

Washback also appears in the teaching materials that teachers use. Spratt's review (2005) suggests that some teachers become textbook and exam slaves. In the former case, teachers rely heavily on textbooks, while in the latter, they rely even more heavily on past exam papers. Other teachers are reported to try innovative activities during exam preparation classes using a variety of self-made materials. Spratt concludes that teachers vary in using exam materials. An important factor related to this seems to be time; as the examination gets closer, the intensity of using past exam papers and commercial exam-related publications increases.

High-stakes tests tend to psychologically influence not only the teachers but also the students as they perceive the consequence of the test in their life. Washback also appears in the form of an increase in the teachers' and students' anxiety level (Ferman, 2004). Most of the teachers investigated admitted that the test aroused feelings of high anxiety and fear of test results. This was because the test results reflected their competence as teachers. Most students also reported that the test aroused in them feelings of anxiety to a quite high extent. The levels of ability tend to determine the levels of anxiety; weaker and aver-

age students are significantly more adversely affected by the potential failure in the test than the higher-level students are.

Besides the negative influences, high-stakes tests also make teachers and parents pay more attention to the students and children especially those with learning problems. Students also increase their intensity in learning. The increased attention seems to be positive; however, because the increased attention and involvement of the teachers, parents, and students do not always lead the teaching learning activities to the attainment of certain competences, such washback is also frequently deemed as negative as indicated by the following studies. Ferman (2004) reveals that teachers spend more time with their students and use the time to coach and drill them more intensively, which sometimes is done on individual basis. Obtaining high test scores is the target of all the teachers' attention. Students' learning interest earns more concern, and interestingly, students with higher level of ability are taught more deeply and broadly, aiming at the students' bigger possibility to reach higher scores from the test (Chen, 2002). It seems that the washback effect in the form of teachers' attention toward students is influenced by their perception towards the students' level of abilities. Ferman (2004) also reports that washback can also be seen in the parents' increased involvement toward their children's learning. Parents urged their children to study more seriously and even sometimes employed tutors to help their children prepare for the test.

Another positive effect of high-stakes tests is when the tests can direct teachers to teach the test to prepare their students; for example, when the format and content of the test are changed from multiple-choice questions to performance-based, teachers tend to teach more contextually. Stecher, Chun, and Barron (2004) who investigated the effect of the implementation of a statewide standard test called EARL (the Essential Academic Learning Requirements) and a writing test called WASL (Washington Assessment of Student Learning) found that teachers report changing their emphasis on some of writing topics, covering more writing behaviors as stated in the standard. Most of the teachers interviewed admitted increasing their emphasis on writing for different audiences, purposes, styles, and format, whereas considerably fewer teachers increased their coverage of writing conventions and writing process. Most of them also stated that the WASL contributed to the changes they made more than the EARL. Another study by Chen (2002) reveals that when a high-stakes test requires students to perform speaking activities, teachers also tend to teach more communicatively, shifting their teaching focus, from grammar-based

teaching to more communication-oriented teaching, promoting the learning of the oral skills and upgrading the oral skills. Additionally, Ferman (2002) reports that teachers also teach in a more integrated way, integrating listening and speaking to prepare students for oral examinations and give more opportunity to them to practice speaking. Similarly, Vogler (2002) also shows that changing multiple-choice questions to some or all constructed response questions encourages teachers to increase notably the use of open-response questions, creative/critical thinking questions, problem-solving activities, use of rubrics or scoring guides, writing assignments, and inquiry/investigation.

The previously cited studies show that high-stakes tests tend to influence the teaching and learning process in the classrooms negatively. However, although the unintended washback seems to be the corollary of high stakes tests, intended or positive washback is also present following the implementation of such tests. The positive washback was reported to happen with the implementation of high-stakes tests with more communicative or performance-based format and content.

In the Indonesian context, ENE is a high-stakes test with a decisive contribution to the total final scores of national examination or *Ujian Nasional* (henceforth *UN)* that determines the students' graduation from secondary schools. ENE has been implemented so far with a multiple-choice format. It has also been implemented with the discrepancy between what is tested with what is stated in the Standards of Competence (*Standar Kompetensi*/*SK*) and Basic Competences (*Kompetensi Dasar/KD*) of the Standards of Content, based on which teachers teach English. The *SKs/KDs*of the English subject require a level of achievements of the minimum communicative competence that covers the receptive and productive skills. On the other hand, *Standar Kompetensi Lulusan or SKL UN* (the table of specification of ENE), stated in the Appendix of Minister of Education's decree number 75/2009, shows that at senior high schools, ENE focuses on the reading and listening skills whereas at junior high schools, ENE focuses on the reading and writing. This *SKL UN* is the basis for the development of ENE items. With ENE as a high-stakes test implemented amid such condition, it is interesting to see how teachers prepare their students for ENE and how the teaching of English is affected by the preparation. Hughes (2003) states that if a test is regarded important, if the stakes are high, preparation for it can come to dominate all teaching and learning activities. This study is thus conducted to investigate what goes on in the Indonesian classrooms while teachers prepare their students for ENE. As the dominant

format of the high-stake tests was multiple-choice, the result of the study could possibly be concordant with the findings of the previous studies. In such case, the result of this research could provide more evidences about negative washback within the context of Indonesia. However, the writers expected some unique findings considering that student admittance to high schools in Indonesia made the schools relatively homogeneous in terms of the students' achievement. This is discussed further in the methodology section.

Prior to the present study, some preliminary observations on how teachers of senior high schools prepare their students for ENE were carried out at a school of high achievers (SHIGH) and a school of low achievers (SLOW). The categorization is based on the average score of junior high school national examination, which is used as the basis for student admission to senior high schools. The results of the observations revealed the changes that teachers made in preparing their students for ENE in terms of the instructional objectives or teaching focus, the materials used, the amount of time allocated, and the main classroom activities. These four aspects serve as the bases for the foci of the investigation that is focused on the twelfth grade, particularly in the second semester when the intensity of the preparation generally increased notably. This study thus aims at investigating how teachers teach English to prepare students for ENE particularly in terms of the focus of the teaching, the materials used, the allocation of time, and the main classrooms activities.

METHOD

This exploratory qualitative study involved multiple settings, three SLOWs – schools of low achievers (coded as Senior High Schools– SMA *Sekolah Menengah Atas*A, D, and E) and two SHIGHs– schools of high achievers (coded as Senior High Schools– SMA *Sekolah Menengah Atas*B and C) located in Malang area, East Java Province, Indonesia. The use of such multiple settings was expected to allow the collection of more comprehensive data from a range of settings and thus led to confirmation of the findings. The number of the settings was determined by data redundancy, whereas the selection of the settings was based on the result of the preliminary observations. A rationale that high-stakes tests influence students of high and low achievers differently appeared as another theoretical basis for involving those differently-achieving schools.

The subjects of this study were eleven twelfth grade English teachers from the five schools involved in this study; they were coded as AK, AH, AR, BR, BS, CM, CB, DN, DB, DR, ES. All of the teachers hold bachelor degree in TEFL, and they are all experienced teachers with teaching experience of more than five years. In terms of their language competence, eight teachers have better language proficiency than the other three teachers, as indicated by their speaking performance during the teaching-learning activities and interviews.

Each teacher was observed at least twice. In the high achieving schools, some teachers were observed more than twice due to their varied teaching activities. The data about the phenomena under study, that is, the instructional objectives or teaching focus, the materials used, the amount of time allocated, and the main classroom activities were collected using non-participatory observations and one-on-one interviews.

The descriptive data collected were classified, and conclusions were drawn from the bottom-up data. The four foci of the investigation served as the preliminary classifications that generate more refined categories. Based on the data of both the settings and the phenomena, causal-logical relationship was established to render the explanation about the discovered phenomena and to suggest relevant propositions.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

The findings show that washback of ENE indeed occurrred in the teaching of English in the five schools under study, but in different degrees of intensity depending on the contexts, particularly in the areas of teaching focus, teaching materials, time allocation, and classroom activities as explained in the following.

Teaching Focus

In preparing their students for ENE, the teachers focused their teaching on listening and reading aligning the teaching with the *SKL UN* (*Standar Kompetensi Lulusan* or the table of specification of ENE) included in the policy of the Ministry of National Education Number 75/1995 on national examinations. The intensity of this focus was classified into intensive and less intensive. The

focus is said to be intensive when the teachers used almost all of the English teaching time for listening and reading drills. Conversely, it is considered less intensive when the teachers taught English as usual in the regular English time or did not change the regular English time into drilling activities. These drilling activities for listening and reading were only a part of their whole teaching and were carried out in the time scheduled for the drills. Generally, both the SLOWs and the SHIGHs gave intensive focus in Semester 2, when ENE is held, and less intensive in Semester 1. However, their detailed practice was different. The intensive focus was more likely to be found at the SLOWs whose input students' average score of junior high school national examination was below seven. The alignment with the *SKL UN* increased intensively in Semester 2 when the teachers at the SLOWs devoted the regular English teaching time and the added extra time to English for drilling classes concentrating on doing the listening and reading multiple-choice questions. The teachers, however, did not specifically design their teaching to teach the particular listening and reading skills included in the *SKL UN*. Instead, they assumed that by using previous ENE materials, those skills in the *SKL UN* were already covered. In the classroom interactions, the teachers did not always explain or discuss how to arrive at the answer to a certain question.

Within the teaching of listening and reading, the teachers teaching the twelfth grades at the SLOWs frequently discussed vocabulary. They generally said that their students had limited vocabulary. In the classroom interactions, both the teachers and the students raised vocabulary questions, but the teachers answered the questions more frequently. Most of the questions from the students were about the meaning of certain words, and the teachers usually directly gave the Indonesian equivalents. After the meaning of a word was given, the class continued discussing the next questions. The following is an excerpt quoted verbatim from a transcript on classroom interactions between a teacher, coded as AH, and her student, coded as S that depicts such a situation. The Indonesian words are basically the teacher's translation of the English words she used. Therefore, in such a case, the English equivalents are not provided. In some other cases, however, when deemed necessary, the English equivalents are provided.

Excerpt 1

AH : *Kemudian*___ next, *ada kata-kata sulit*? Can you find another difficult word? Unaccounted for. *Tak terhitung*. Counted *bisa di _ter_hitung*.

Unaccounted *tak terhitung*. *Dari* paragraph *pertama ada kata-kata sulit*? [Any difficult words in paragraph one?]
S : recognition
AH : recognition
S : recognition
AH : know ____ recognize……. (The teacher was writing the word 'recognize'and the synonym 'know' on the white board).
AH : recognize *mengeta__hui* ____ know
AH : *kemudian* next... paragraph *satu masih ada*? [Any other difficult words in paragraph one?]
S : crowd
AH : crowd *keramaian*.

Unlike the other teachers at the SLOWs, ES from SMA E frequently asked about parts of speech among the vocabulary questions. He frequently reminded his students to memorize synonyms. He gave his students a list of English words, their synonyms, and the Indonesian equivalents. The words were taken from the passages in the previous ENE packages. The following fragment describes classroom interactions between a teacher ES and his students in which ES asked about synonyms, a teaching activity that he frequently did. (Note: Code Ss means more than one student tried to answer ES's question.)

Excerpt 2
ES : Do you know the meaning of encourage?
Ss : ……..(silent)
ES : Tita do you want to say something? Don't be afraid. Say something, come on.
S : *memberi semangat*
ES : Okay. Do you know the synonym? To motivate.
ES : seek. The verb seek. All of you __ seek.
Ss : seek.
ES : Anybody knows the meaning of seek? Okay Bitami, you want to say something? Say something. Don't be afraid. Say something.
S : *mencari*
ES : *men__cari.* What is the synonym of seek?
Ss : look for
ES : look for. Good. You remember them on the final exam.
Ss : *amiiin*.

The increased focus was given only to reading and listening drills, and this indicates the teachers' tendency to teach to the test and narrow the curriculum or the *SKs/KDs* (the standard of competences/basic competences), which actually requires teachers to teach the four language skills. The teachers reported that even though the lesson plans submitted to the principals already covered the teaching of the four skills, the principal told them to focus on giving the listening and reading drills to anticipate ENE. The following excerpt taken from an interview between the researcher and AK, a teacher from SMA A, delineates such a situation.

Excerpt 3

R : What did the school principal tell the subject teachers in preparing the students for ENE?

AK : Usually the headmaster asks us to focus on the *SKL UN*, during ... what's that ... During especially the last two months before ENE. Focusing on that only. Not out of that.

At the SHIGHs, whose input students' average score of junior high school national examination was higher, the teachers also increased the teaching focus on listening and reading, but the alignment was not as intensive as that at the SLOWs. At SMA B, for example, the school provided drilling program in which the teachers drilled the students to do listening and reading questions. However, at the regular English teaching time, the teachers still taught all the four skills of listening, reading, speaking, though less writing. Data from observation and interview also suggest that at the regular English teaching in Semester 2, the students still read non-ENE-like materials, such as reading texts taken from newspapers or magazines and discussed the content in groups so that there were a lot of interactions among them. The students also had the opportunity to practice speaking by having presentation in front of their classmates and working in groups regardless of the effectiveness of the group work. One of the teachers, BS, explained that he frequently implemented contextual teaching and learning (CTL) in his classes.

Similar to SMA B, at SMA C the teachers taught reading and listening through drilling activities only in the scheduled drilling classes. Outside the drilling classes, the teachers taught as usual following the handouts developed by one of the teachers, CB. In CB's class, the students reviewed grammar (e.g., *causative have*) and practiced using it in new contexts, watched films, listened

to songs, and discussed the meaning of the song lyrics relating to their life. In these activities, the students used English in expressing their thoughts and opinions. CB said he taught the four skills in an integrated way. A similar communicative activity was also found in CM's class. Here, the students watched a film and wrote the review using their own words in a worksheet provided by the teacher. The worksheet helped them write a complete review because it contained elements of a review text that the students had to write about, such as the identity of the film, the orientation, and interpretative recount.

Teaching Materials

The findings related to teaching materials cover the kinds, reasons for selection, compression, and development. Each aspect is subsequently discussed in the following sub-headings.

Kinds of Materials

The teachers under study used ENE-like materials and non ENE-like materials. The ENE-like materials were those in the form of multiple-choice questions, such as previous ENEs, questions developed by the teachers or downloaded from the internet, and simulation tests from commercial publishers. The non ENE-like materials were in the forms of *BSE/Buku Sekolah Elektronik* (the government-endorsed electronic textbooks), imported textbooks, teacher-made handouts, or authentic reading and listening materials taken from newspapers, magazines, or downloaded from the internet.

The kinds of teaching materials used to prepare students for ENE appeared to concur with the teaching focus. At the SLOWs, in Semester 1, the teachers used *BSE* and ENE-like materials. In Semester 2, especially after the first month, with the shift of focus on listening and reading drills only, almost all of the materials that the teachers used were ENE-like materials. Non ENE-like materials were sometimes used just as variation. For example, at SMA A, only AK, the most senior English teacher at the school, who sometimes varied her teaching materials with reading texts with essay type questions. At SMA E, ES sometimes referred to *BSE* again to remind his students about certain information contained in the book, such as the characteristics of a certain text. However, most of the time, they used previous ENEs or other ENE-like materials.

With input students having higher scores of junior high school national examination, at the regular teaching time, even on the days closer to the D-day of ENE, the teachers at the SHIGHs still used various materials, ENE-like and non-ENE-like materials. At SHIGH, the multiple-choice questions were used only in the drilling classes. Outside the drilling classes, the teachers used non-ENE like materials, that is, reading and listening texts taken from many sources, such as the internet, imported books, magazines, newspapers, and teacher-made handouts. These handouts were in the form of electronic files covering the four language skills with a different language skill as a starting point for each chapter. For the drilling classes, the teachers used the worksheets consisting of multiple-choice questions.

Reasons for Material Selection

Concerning the ENE-like materials, there were reasons for the selection which were common among all the teachers of both groups of schools, and which were common among the teachers of the SLOWs only. The collected data did not reveal any reason common just among the teachers of the SHIGH.

The reason shared by all the teachers was the suitability of the materials with *SKL UN*. In respect to the micro skills or the tested competences in *SKL UN*, such as getting main ideas or detailed information, some teachers explicitly said that they used assumptions to decide whether the materials were congruous with *SKL UN*. This explains why previous ENE papers tended to be the most frequently used teaching materials as the teachers believed in the congruence of previous ENEs with the *SKL UN*. Other teachers said that they examined the suitability with *SKL UN* by reading the questions before deciding to use previous ENEs. They admitted that if the questions they discussed did not correspond to the *SKLUN*, such materials were still worth using because the students could still take the benefit from reading them.

A reason shared by the teachers at the SLOWs only for the material selection was that the level of the difficulty of the teaching materials should not be beyond their students' competence. The source of difficulty frequently mentioned was vocabulary and this confirms their perception about their students' limited vocabulary repertoire. The following excerpt taken from an interview between the researcher (R) and AK shows how level of difficulty mattered in the selection of the teaching materials.

Excerpt 4

R : On what basis do you choose this material and not that material?

AK : In terms of the level of difficulty, suitable with *SKL UN*. Some vocabulary I have to adapt. I change into more simple and easy to understand for my students. At least the concept they have known. For me the concept is more important. For the vocabulary what's that___ difficulties sometimes I give them and let them use dictionary.

The teachers at SLOWs added that the possibility of the questions and texts from previous ENE questions and from publishers' commercial simulation tests to appear in the upcoming ENE was another important criterion for material selection. Two teacher respondents acknowledged that some texts from previous ENEs and the simulation tests published by a certain publisher were indeed used several times in ENEs.

Compression of Teaching Materials

Most of the teachers at the schools involved in this study compressed their one-year teaching materials with different degrees of intensity and finished them sooner than scheduled. At the SLOWs, the compression was more intensive than at the SHIGHs. The common reason for the compression at both groups of schools was the exam-related events like try-out tests from *Diknas* (the local office of the Ministry of National Education and culture), school examination, and the shortened duration of the semester for the national examination. At the SLOWs, the intensity of the compression was the consequence of the intensive focus on listening and reading drills in Semester 2. At these schools, the teachers finished the teaching materials earlier, at the end of Semester 1 or at the beginning of Semester 2, and the following class activities were devoted to the listening and reading drills with ENE-like materials.

There were several ways of finishing the teaching materials ahead of the schedule. Skipping familiar topics, such as narratives, and reducing the discussion time and thus focusing more on reading and listening were the common practices done to compress the one-year teaching materials, especially at the SLOWs. At the SHIGHs the teaching materials were usually finished in Semester 2, but they were done more quickly due to many school examinations in that semester. The compression of the teaching materials was not intensive

because regular classes with non-ENE like materials still continued in Semester 2.

Time Allocation

In preparing the students for ENE, the schools increased the time allocation for all nationally-tested subjects including English. The addition of time allocation for English started in Semester 1 and increased in Semester 2. The amount of time added varied from school to school but, in general, the SLOWs allocated more time than the SHIGHs. The addition of the time ranged from three to five hours per week. Generally the added time was devoted to drilling and reviewing programs focusing on training the students in dealing with typical multiple-choice questions appearing on ENE.

Classroom Activities

The classroom activities were classified into regular teaching and drilling activities. It was called regular teaching activities when in the usual scheduled time for English the teachers and the students did not do or discuss ENE-like materials. In the regular teaching activities, the teachers held teaching learning activities that gave students more opportunities to use their language and interact with their classmates. In contrast, in the drilling activities, the students were only doing the ENE-like multiple-choice questions, including previous ENE questions. In other words, drilling activities were characterized with teacher-centered interactions. The teachers talked more often than the students did, and thus the interactions among the students were minimal.

The SHIGHs held the two types of activities while the SLOWs tended to focus more on one activity, that is, the drilling activities. The SHIGHs in general believed that their students already had good English competence. One of the teachers at the SHIGHs even explained that having good command of English was one of the requirements to be accepted at this school. Therefore, the English teachers did not seem to worry about not devoting their time to many drilling activities. Another teacher said that in her regular teaching she used more difficult passages and problems than those used in ENE questions, so she was sure her students would pass ENE. Students' boredom appeared to be another reason for not giving many drilling activities. At the SHIGHs it was very common that many students attended commercial drilling activities out-

side the school provided by commercial courses. When a question about the students' involvement in commercial drilling activities was given to a class, almost all students raised their hands indicating their participation. The teachers' statement about their students' boredom was also confirmed by few students coming to the drilling activities at the school.

At the SLOWs, where drilling activities appeared dominant, the classroom activities were geared toward only doing multiple-choice questions with some variety in the process from one school to another. There were two stages in doing the multiple-choice questions. The first was doing the questions, and the second was checking the answers together with the class led by the teacher. In the first stage, there were three patterns of activities. In the first pattern, the students read a reading text aloud, read the question (the stem), and then mentioned his/her answer from the options. In the second pattern, the teachers read a text and or the stem of a question aloud, called students in turn to choose the correct answer, and then the pointed student mentioned his/her choice. In the third pattern, the students were given a certain amount of time to read and do the questions individually.

The second stage of the drilling activities was checking time. The focus of this second stage was to check whether the students' choice answers were correct. The students usually mentioned their choices by reading the options (in the forms of sentences, phrases, or single words), or they just mentioned the letters (a, b, c, d) representing their choices. The teachers confirmed correct answers by showing their agreement (such as saying 'next' that means asking another student to continue with the next questions). Alternatively, the teachers directly asked the students to give the reasons for their opinion. The students gave the reasons by quoting relevant words/phrases/sentences from the texts as supporting evidence. When wrong answers were given, the teachers usually asked more students. When the pointed students or the class could not give correct answers, the teachers showed the clues in the texts, asked the students again, and explained the meaning of the sentences. If the students still could not give the correct answer, the teachers showed the correct choice.

In all of those activities, the students answered the questions individually and the classroom interactions were mostly between the teacher and the students. It was a question and answer kind of interaction with the teacher asking a question and students responding to the question by mentioning their choice answers. Most of the students' responses depended on the forms of the available options in the multiple-choice questions because in responding, the students

usually only read the provided options. The variation of their responses, thus, was limited to reading the sentences, phrases, words, or just mentioning the letters (a, b, c, d, e) that represented what was stated in the options.

Discussion

The findings reveal that the teaching of English preparing the students for ENE indicates the occurrence of the washback of ENE. The different modes of carrying out the preparation suggest different intensity of washback of ENE at the SLOWs and at the SHIGHs.

At the SLOWs, the teaching of English, in terms of the focus, materials, time allocation, and activities, was almost totally aligned with the *SKL UN* of ENE. The stronger alignment with ENE at the SLOWs suggests that washback is more intensive at the SLOWs than at the SHIGHs, and it seems that only washback manifested in the increased amount of time allocation for UN subjects is likely to be beneficial as it can potentially support the development of communicative competence as stated in the standards of competences of the English subject.

The evaluation of whether washback is beneficial or harmful is usually based on the perspective of communicative language teaching. As Bailey (1996) argues, much of the concern about the alleged negative washback comes from the professionals' beliefs stating that standardized tests tend to be contrary to the principles and practices of communicative language teaching. In communicative language teaching, people negotiate for meaning in their attempts to understand and to be understood.

At the schools involved in this study, the positive washback was discerned in the more intensive attention given to English class as indicated by the provision of the examination preparation activities, or more particularly the significant increase in time allocation for English compared to the time allocation required by the Ministry of National Education and Culture regulation. At all of the observed schools, the allocation of time for English was higher than that required by the regulation, with the SLOWs allocating more time than the SHIGHs. The increase in time allocation in response to ENE is in line with Qi's (2005), Ferman's (2004), and Chen's (2002) findings. They find that in preparing students for a high stakes test, more time is devoted to the teaching of the tested subjects. In terms of attention, the increase in time allocation indicates the increase of the teachers' attention to students' learning, and this is

positive if none is sacrificed. For the teaching of English, this additional time should also be good news for it provides more time for learning and acquisition, and the development of the language competence required by the subject competence standards.

At the SLOWs, however, the rearrangement of time allocation was done at the expense of the other skills not tested by ENE. Washback on the teaching content was clearly indicated by the fact that the allotted time was merely spent on practicing answering listening and reading multiple-choice questions, disregarding the teaching of the other skills, speaking and writing. The phenomenon of teaching to the test that narrows the teaching content as found in this study confirms the criticism from the opponents of high-stakes testing policy as reported by Natriello (2009). The opponents assert that high-stakes testing policy triggers the occurrence of teaching to the test phenomena in which teachers only teach the parts to be tested. This present study is also in line with other studies revealing that such rearrangement of time allocation is done at the expense of other non-tested parts or subjects resulting in negative washback on teaching content. As previously mentioned, conclusion from studies by Ferman (2004), Qi (2005), Chen (2002), and Stecher, Chun, and Barron (2004) reveal that more time is devoted to preparing students for high-stakes test by spending more time for the teaching of the tested subjects. A research review by Spratt (2005) who examined five studies on washback also concludes that more curriculum time is spent on exam classes. The reallocation of time is done at the expense of other non-tested subjects, resulting in the sort of washback known as narrowing the curriculum or narrowing the scope and content of teaching and learning (Qi, 2005; Ferman, 2004). This situation affirms other research findings revealing that frequent changes in the content of teaching only happen superficially instead of being directed substantially to meet the achievement standards based on which a high stake test is constructed (Stecher, Chun, Barron, 2004; Andrew, Fullilove, Wong, 2002; Qi, 2005; Ferman, 2004).

As a consequence of teaching to the test (ENE) that narrows the teaching scope only to answering listening and reading question activities, washback is also found in the teaching materials, especially at the SLOWs. The results of this study are consistent with the findings of Spratt (2005), Cheng (1997), and Amengual-Pizzaro (2009). In her research review, Spratt (2005) concludes that some teachers become textbook slaves and exam slaves. As textbook and exam slaves, teachers rely heavily on textbooks and on past papers. As the exam gets closer, the intensity of using past papers and commercial exam-related publica-

tions increases. Cheng (1997), in her study on the washback of the Hongkong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) in English in Hongkong secondary schools, reports that washback changes the teaching materials more quickly than the methodology that the teachers employ. With the launch of the more task-based test which required students' more integrated skills, nearly every school in Hongkong whose students would take the test used textbooks that had been revised to target the new examination. Cheng concludes that the teaching content receives the most intensive washback. Another study by Amengual –Pizzaro (2009) reveals a similar result. He reports that teachers use exam-related materials to get students fully prepared for the test, imitate the format of the test when making teaching materials, and use past papers widely. In conclusion, ENE exerted influence on teaching materials.

In addition, in both groups of schools, regardless of the amount of time, in the drilling classes, the teachers in general used similar ways of teaching. This is different from what Read and Hayes (2003) found in their study. Read and Hayes assert that time available affects teachers' choice of methodology. They found that with shorter preparation time period, teachers tended to use teacher-centered strategy while with longer time they allowed more participation from the students. In this study, at both the SHIGHs and the SLOWs, the classes were dominated by the practice of answering multiple-choice questions. The teachers talked more than the students did, and peer-interaction among the students was minimal because of the absence of group work and communication activities. Translating or giving Indonesian equivalents was opted for when the teachers dealt with words considered unfamiliar to the students. The similar teaching ways or methods at both groups of schools tend to be used due to the multiple-choice question format of the teaching materials.

In short, washback is discerned in both groups of schools, but in different degrees of intensity – being more intensive or stronger at the SLOWs than at the SHIGHs. This intensity is determined by the total alignment with ENE at the SLOWs and only partial alignment at the latter schools. The teachers' language competence, as indicated by their speaking performance in their classes and in the interviews, does not seem to be the factor contributing to the degree of the intensity of washback. The respondent teachers with good speaking competence are found at both the SLOWs and at the SHIGHs, and so are the teachers with lower speaking competence. All teachers at the SLOWs substituted their regular teaching almost totally with the drilling classes while the

teachers at the SHIGHs gave drilling classes only as additional classes to their regular teaching.

The length of the teachers' teaching experience does not seem to be another factor either. Senior teachers with longer teaching experience and junior teachers with shorter teaching experience are found at both groups of schools. Regardless of the length of their teaching experience, the teachers at the SLOW used drilling activities dominantly in preparing their students for ENE as opposed to the teachers at the SHIGH. Therefore, it can be concluded that teaching experience does not result in the different intensity of washback.

The factor that probably contributes more to the different intensity as found in the present study is likely to be the teachers' perception. Hughes (1993 in Bailey, 1996) explains that in the basic model of backwash (or washback) that consist of participants, process, and product, the teachers' perceptions (as participant) about the test can influence the teaching and learning task. Practicing the kinds of items predicted to appear in the test is an example of how the participants' perception influences the way they carry out their work or the process that will also affect the learning outcomes as the product of the work.

The teachers in this present study appear to be affected by ENE as a high-stakes test. That consequently affects any action taken by the participants that may contribute to the process of learning. The process includes materials development, teaching methodologies, etc. Bailey (1996) sees washback to teachers as washback to the program. The teachers' perceptions about their teaching responsibility to help the students pass the high-stakes ENE, however, are influenced by their perceptions about their students' level of English competence, which in turn determines the kind of teaching (process) taken to help the students. The kind of teaching is then customized according to the category of the participants. Bailey (1996) states that a test directly influences participants who are engaged in various processes and then results in product specific to each category of participants.

Another thing, not mentioned in the Spratt's review of research (2005), is that teachers do not act individually based on individual perspective or belief about their students' competence. Teachers as a community at a school have common perspective that influences what they do to prepare their students for the examination. At the schools involved in this study, the teachers were involved in the committee established to anticipate the national examination. The drilling activities were carried out not only by the twelfth grade teachers but al-

so by almost all teachers regardless of the grade they taught. Some of the respondent teachers were also assigned to collect or make the materials for the drilling classes.

To sum up, this study suggests that the washback of ENE seems to be more harmful at the SLOWs whose students are perceived by the teachers to have lower competence. To minimize the negative effect of ENE, the government should intervene the teaching of English at the SLOWs. The government should intentionally align ENE with the textbooks, inform this alignment to the teachers, and provide the guidance on how to carry out the intervention program. The implementation should also avoid the cramming fashion that teachers usually do when they prepare their students for ENE. As context-sensitive attitude is required from teachers, the teachers need to be equipped with knowledge and ability to decide the content based on the result of students' need assessment. In this way, though ready-to-use materials such as textbooks are at hand, the teachers will be able to use them judiciously and they will not be blindly dictated by the materials.

If for the time being, for some reasons, the intervention program to empower the schools with disadvantaged students cannot be implemented, it is suggested that the government reconsider the degree of the stakes ascribed to ENE. The reconsideration is important to guarantee more fairness to the students who are not ready for ENE because of the absence of an effective program at schools that can help them attain the level of competence sufficient to face ENE. The government should let the schools decide the degree of stakes that they want to take by considering their students' readiness.

To develop the students' readiness, the schools need to obtain data about what students need in terms of their competence. The government should encourage the schools to launch need assessment because so far the teachers rely solely on their perceptions about their students' competence. To confirm the teachers' perception about their students' current level of competence, a planned and systematic need assessment and follow-up action should be implemented. Such planned measure can promise more fruitful results than an instant solution taken only at the end of the students' academic life at senior high schools. A syllabus tailored to suit the students' distinct characteristics revealed by the need assessment needs to be developed to be the basis for the teaching of English preparing the students not only to succeed in the ENE but also, more substantially, to achieve the four language skills stated in the competence standards. The government can use the existence of need assessment and the

follow-up program as one of the criteria for the schools to get high grade in school accreditation to motivate the school to implement need assessment and the follow-up program.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In respect of the intensity of washback under study, that is, in terms of teaching focus, materials, time allocation, and classroom activities, this study reveals that teachers' perception about students' competence influences the degree of intensity. If teachers perceive that their students already possess the required competence to do ENE, washback appears less intensive. In other words, the more confident teachers are with their students' competence the less the degree of the washback.

However, the teachers' confidence or positive perception about their students can only form if their students indicate the level competence needed to pass ENE. This actually requires the teachers to look back at their three-year teaching that puts the twelfth grade students at the current competence *vis-a-vis* national examination. Whatever complaints the teachers have, such as the low level of the students' vocabulary size, which is the primary factor in verbal comprehension, the solutions cannot be done by cramming teaching in three or four months of examination preparation teaching. Cramming is ineffective because listening and reading skills (and other language skills) and vocabulary mastery develop incrementally.

Another noteworthy fact is that the intensity of washback is also related to the quality of the schools. Washback is less intensive at higher quality schools and more intensive at lower quality schools. As this study did not particularly investigate the quality of the schools involved in this study, this conclusion, however, needs further investigation particularly on how the daily teaching and learning process at both groups of schools is conducted to render a more valid conclusion.

At the schools with consistently unsatisfactory results, the government is suggested to do some intervention to help the teachers design and execute teaching programs that are theoretically more accountable in helping the students achieve the required competence. If the students can achieve the competence, passing ENE satisfactorily will not be a big problem. The students need all help to arrive at the ideal situation. In fact, one of the purposes of the im-

plementation of national examination is for the government to get data based on which the government can issue contextually appropriate policies.

Research also needs to be done at the schools whose result of ENE is consistently low. It is important to investigate how the daily teaching of English is held to find out the quality of the teaching process and the possible causes of unsuccessful teaching indicated by the consistently lower scores. This study only investigated the teaching of English in the second semester of the twelfth grade. A study with more complete coverage that includes the daily teaching and learning process in the tenth and eleventh grades will yield more complete data about the sources of the problems that hamper the students from achieving satisfactory ENE scores. This is particularly important at the schools that allocate much more hours than the national requirement. The problem to pursue can be how the allocated time is utilized to teach English and whether the teaching of English at the schools already meets the principles of the teaching of English as a foreign language.

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TRANSLATING ECONOMICS TEXTBOOKS: A CASE STUDY OF EPISTEMICIDE[1]

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Abstract: As part of discourse in the social sciences, economics textbooks written in English in which knowledge has been transferred to other languages through translation have brought a certain impact on both the target language and the target culture. In terms of ideology, this article argues about the hegemonic status of the dominant language or culture that creates so-called *epistemicide* or the erosion of knowledge, partly due to translation strategies adopted by the translator. Investigation is done using the corpus-based approach, theories of translation strategies and the comparative model. The study reveals that the translator in the macro-level text adopts the ideology of foreignising strategy rather than domesticating strategy when translating an economics textbook from English into Indonesian. This is supported by the use of the number of the source language-orientated translation techniques leading to two translation methods (i.e. literal translation and faithful translation) adopted in the micro-level text. This research strongly supports another relevant study pertaining to the globalisation of knowledge through translation and also the translation theories of equivalence (i.e. *overt* and *covert* translation). The research findings also have some pedagogical implications on teaching English for Specific Purposes in higher education.

Keywords: economics text, epistemicide, ideology in translation, knowledge, translation strategies

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/59-84

[1] An abbreviated version of this paper was presented in Panel 14: Epistemicide – Translation and the Globalization of Knowledge at 4th IATIS International Conference at Queen's University Belfast, Northern Ireland, 24–27 July 2012.

Translation as an industry has attracted relevant stakeholders to reproduce science textbooks written in English as the source text (ST) in other target languages (TLs). Local publishers compete with each other in obtaining exclusive publishing and distribution rights to the translated versions of scientific texts from overseas owners to meet the local market demand. As commissioners, the local publishers assign translation jobs to a translator or a team of translators. Usually, they request the translator to do tasks based on personal interest, which could be in economics, commerce or business, politics or social studies, among others. In other words, from the commissioner and/or translator's perspective, ideology often comes into play in the translation. This can be based on the strategies adopted, either *overt* translation or *covert* translation (House, 1997).

As far as translating economics discourse is concerned (Backhouse, 1994; Brown, 1994), the transfer of knowledge embodied in economics textbooks from the dominant language/culture to the less dominant language/culture often creates a 'war on knowledge' or the erosion of knowledge in the sense that the hegemonic status of the dominant language/culture might, to some extent, impede the discourse conventions practised in the target language/culture (Bennet, 2007). To put it simply, the so-called epistemicide takes the form of globalisation of knowledge coming from the dominant language/culture through translation. Such translation phenomena do occur in the case of English-Indonesian translation based on a parallel corpus that consists of the ST subcorpus taken from English economics textbooks and the target text (TT) subcorpus (i.e. the Indonesian translated text).

Translation is partly regarded as a product (Hatim & Mason, 1990). As a product, translation or the translated text can be investigated as an output of the translation process involving the source language (SL) and TL (Catford, 1965). Thus, the role of the translator in this respect is crucial. In performing his task, the translator often encounters various problems and difficulties in translating economics discourse. However, all he needs are several strategies for tackling such problems (Lörscher, 1991; Chesterman, 1997).

As for the epistemicide, this paper examines translation phenomena in association with the ideology in translation at the macro-level text along with the translation methods and translation techniques in the micro-level text; all are considered as part of translation strategies. This is a case study that is based on the experience of the Third World, or Developing Countries (DCs), represented by Indonesia in this respect. In short, discussion in this paper will be focused

much on how epistemicide does actually take place within the context of English-Indonesian translation using scientific textbooks, especially economics textbooks.[2]

Translating science textbooks, including economics textbooks, from English into other languages and vice versa, to some degree, has an impact on epistemology both in the SL and the TL. Research in Translation Studies conducted so far has some empirical evidence on this phenomenon (Bennett, 2007; Cronin, 2010; House, 2006; Munday, 2009). The effort to globalise knowledge that derives from the dominant epistemology/culture/language has been internationally made through translation activities. The two binary ideologies in translation (i.e. foreignisation and domestication), as put forward by Venuti (1995), are commonly involved and of course relevant in this respect. To begin with, House (2002, 2006) once addressed the notion of 'cultural filter' or localisation in translation practice. The concept was actually meant to accommodate sociocultural differences between two communities in terms of linguistic and cultural aspects. At discourse level, English discourse patterns, for instance, are frequently calqued onto the TL. The same technique is also used by translators when dealing with translation at the lower level of translation units such as clauses and phrases, not to mention at the word level. In other words, House's localisation-orientated concept is actually more domestication-based since it considers the TL culture whereas Venuti (1993) labelled this phenomenon as 'domestication regimes', which is regarded as a counter argument.

Bennett (2007, 2008), within the context of Portuguese-English translation, also conducted relevant research on the translation phenomenon involving traditional Portuguese academic discourse in the humanities as the data in which two different ideologies/worldviews came together leading to their political and social impact both on the source and the target readers/culture. She found that the notion epistemicide (i.e. 'war on knowledge') in texts translated in English from Portuguese did take place. The same translation phenomenon also takes place within the context of English-Portuguese translation in which calque as a translation technique has been adopted by the translator when rendering English hard sciences into Portuguese. This mainly applies to texts at

[2] This paper also aims to explore some advantages of the corpus-based approach in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that can also be applied when developing other subject-matter-related ESP learning materials such as English for Business, English for Law, etc.

discourse level as ideology as part of translation strategy normally operates at this level of text.

Munday (2009), on the other hand, focused more on how ideology plays a role in the English translation of Latin American writing. By adopting an interdisciplinary approach, he investigated the style of different translators from the literary, cultural and ideological perspectives. The style or voice of translators in the translated text (i.e. stylistic analysis) is based on linguistic choices/patterns made by the translators in accordance with their cultural and ideological framework.

Cronin (2010) seemed to give more emphasis on how TL-orientated within the context of other languages translated into English could lead to language change and have unfavourable influence on the SL discourse conventions. TT, according to Cronin, becomes the so-called "mirror-images of the dominant language" (p. 251) accordingly. In brief, epistemicide is basically a 'declaration of war on knowledge', and could then erode the existing knowledge in the target culture.

Translation theories play a crucial role in translation activities. Translators frequently encounter linguistic-pragmatics-cultural-related problems during the process of translating a given text from the SL into the TL (Ivir, 1987; Katan, 2004). In brief, they need a theory (i.e. translation theory) that they can turn to so that their problems can be solved immediately. Hence, translation strategies are required to successfully render the economics text from the SL into the TL, as suggested by Venuti (1993).

This research study attempts to synthesise a couple of translation strategies as suggested by a number of translation theorists (Larson, 1984; Lörscher, 1991, 2005; Newmark, 1981; Toury, 1995). The definition of translation strategy adopted in this research is as posited by Lörscher (2005), namely "translation strategies are procedures for solving translation problems. They range from the realization of translational problems to its solution or the realization of its insolutibility by a subject at a given moment" (p. 600). The application of translation strategy starts from identifying translation problems by the translator, who then decides the best solution for the problems (Lörscher, 1991). As a result, it is possible for the translator to use various existing translation strategies based on the purpose (*skopos*) of the translation, as put forward by (Vermeer, 1989), namely "[the skopos rules] can expand the possibilities of translation, increase the range of possible translation strategies, and release the translator from the corset of an enforced − and hence often

meaningless − literalness" (p. 186). In other words, translation strategies make translation tasks easier for the translator to complete.

The term 'translation technique' is specifically used to translate those lexical items, a combination of words or phrases, clauses and sentences in the ST into the TL. The classification of translation techniques used in this research refers to the category suggested by Molina and Albir (2002), namely *adaptation*, *amplification*, *borrowing*: *pure borrowing* & *naturalised borrowing*, *calque*, *compensation*, *description*, *discursive creation*, *established equivalent*, *generalisation*, *linguistic amplification*, *linguistic compression*, *modulation*, *particularisation*, *reduction*, *substitution* − *linguistic, paralinguistic*, *transposition*, and *variation*.

Translation methods are basically principles on which translators base the process of translating the ST into the TL. *Audience design* and *purpose analysis* are the two important factors that would determine the types or forms of translation (Hatim & Mason, 1997; Hoed, 2006). Below is Newmark's V-Diagram (Newmark, 1988), which shows eight translation methods that can be adopted by a translator.

SL Emphasis	**TL Emphasis**
Word-for-word translation	Adaptation
Literal translation	Free translation
Faithful translation	Idiomatic translation
Semantic translation	Communicative translation

As seen in the diagram, in order to address the concept of audience design and target readers' needs, the translator may put more emphasis on one of the two different points, either on the SL or on the TL. Newmark's translation methods are, therefore, relevant to this research as they are part of translation strategies (apart from ideology of translation, translation procedures and translation techniques) applied by the translator in dealing with translation problems of economics texts.

The term *ideology* in this research refers to the definition given by Hatim and Mason (1997), namely "a body of assumptions, which reflects the belief and interest of an individual, a group of individuals, a social institution, etc. and which ultimately find expression in language" (p. 218) and also by Tymoczko (2003), namely "the ideology of a translation resides not simply in the text translated, but in the voicing and stance of the translator, and in its rel-

evance to the receiving audience" (p. 183). As far as Translation Studies is concerned, according to Penrod (1993), there are two translation strategies commonly adopted by translators: (1) domesticating strategies of translation/domestication focusing on the source language and source culture; (2) foreignising strategies of translation/foreignisation, which is target-language and target-culture orientated.

In addition, Hoed (2003) also stressed the ways in which we should treat the two ideologies (i.e. domestication and foreignisation), particularly within the context of English–Indonesian translation, being open to the two ideologies since they do not only have to do with the target readers' needs but also have their own impact on the target readers, either positive or negative. Moreover, Bennet (2007) pointed out that epistemicide normally operates on various forms. In terms of epistemicide, knowledge with all its conventions coming from different ideological backgrounds (i.e. the dominant one with hegemonic power versus the less dominant ones) has so far been 'at war'. Even though the less dominant culture has been trying to put a lot of effort into balancing the hegemonic status, the dominant culture is always the winner in 'the epistemological battle'.

One of the reasons why English economics textbooks as part of ESP related to subject matter (Flowerdew, 1990; Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991; Roberts, 2012) and their Indonesian translations are compiled as the corpus (i.e. the ST and the TT subcorpus) in this study has to do with the fact that university lecturers at faculties of Economics and Business across Indonesia, in particular, those who teach economics, tend to recommend that their students read economics textbooks imported from overseas, apart from other economics textbooks written in Indonesian. In fact, some of those books have been translated into Indonesian by translators hired by local publishers due to market forces even though there have been considerable debate over the quality of the Indonesian-translated books through which the knowledge on economics from English as the dominant language has been transferred into the Indonesian language and culture. In other words, the translation in practice involving the economics textbooks coming from the dominant language and culture (i.e. English) has a great influence on the way in which the existing Indonesian-specific economic concepts like *ekonomi kerakyatan* (*people's economy*) are understood and perceived by university students of economics as they have so far been exposed to at least two sources of knowledge on economics written both in English and Indonesian.

Additionally, much research in Translation Studies reveals that technical texts like economics texts often use specialised terminology both at the word level (e.g. *poverty*, *inflation*, *growth*, *price*) and also at the phrasal level (i.e. above word level), which linguistically reflects the register of economics texts (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The use of such technical terms in a specific text plays a crucial role that makes it different from other kinds of specific texts such as Biology, Aviation and Computer Science texts. Statistically, around 10% of a specific text like the economics text is technical-orientated, which tends to have higher keyness indexes as suggested by the corpus-based approach. This approach within the ESP areas can be applied to teaching specialised terminology and language patterns used in a specific context, particularly at the higher level of education (Roberts, 2012).

As far as teaching English to students of economics is concerned, developing learning materials is regarded as one of the essential components of curriculum development (Harsono, 2007). Such materials, particularly technical terms in economics texts, need to be selected for teaching purposes on the basis on their frequency of occurrence in a given economics text or corpus.

METHOD

To achieve the objectives of the study, the methodology consisting of three components (i.e. method, data and data processing) was applied. As for the first component, a qualitative method that took the form of textual analysis was adopted (Travers, 2001; William & Chesterman, 2002). In addition, a theoretical model of translation, referred to as the *comparative model*, was also used. The model concerned has the following formula: ST ≈ TT or TT ≈ ST (Williams & Chesterman, 2002). It was assumed that the ST was more or less the same as the TT and vice versa. According to the model, the process or behaviour of the translation is regarded as a product. In practice, units of translation in the TL are identified before parallelising them with the SL forms. In other words, examples of key words in the economics text as a representation of language in use are compared with their equivalents in the TT. The theory of equivalence is relevant in this respect in that it is widely used to explain the features and relationship between the ST and TT or other smaller units of languages (Baker, 1992; Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997).

The previous method was also supported by a quantitative method, especially frequency of occurrence of some *keywords* used in the ST subcorpus (Scott, 2008), including the translation techniques adopted by the translator.

The second component of the methodology concerned was a parallel corpus (i.e. the ST subcorpus and the TT subcorpus), which was designed on the basis of representativeness, size, sampling and text types and functions (Baker, 1995, 1996; Bowker & Pearson, 2002; Olohan, 2004; Zanettin, 2000). The ST subcorpus having around 356,000 tokens was taken from an economics textbook entitled *Principles of Economics, 3rd edition* (Mankiw, 2003). It was translated into Indonesian by Sungkono (2006) and published locally with the two new titles, *Pengantar Ekonomi Mikro, Edisi 3* and *Pengantar Ekonomi Makro, Edisi 3* [*An Introduction to Microeconomics, 3rd Edition*] and [*An Introduction to Macroeconomics, 3rd Edition*] having 293,000 tokens approximately.

The electronic data (i.e. the parallel corpus) was processed using a concordance programme, called WordSmith Tools version 5.0 (Scott, 2001, 2008). It is used for extracting samples of keywords in context in the ST (the study corpus) and their equivalents in the TT. The British National Corpus (BNC) is also employed as a referent corpus in order to obtain a list of keywords in the ST subcorpus. Shuttleworth & Cowie (1997) argue over the use of parallel corpora, namely "[...] they provide information not on the native patterns of a target language, but on those of specific target texts, and so give insight into the particular translation practices and procedures which have been used by the translator" (p. 120).

As regards comparative analyses involving the ST and the TT, this research limited its translation units to the sentence-level as the context for some keywords widely used in the ST subcorpus.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Keywords in Economics Textbooks

Having run the WordSmith Tools version 5 involving the economics texts as the study corpus and BNC as the referent corpus, around 500 keywords were extracted by using the computer software; some of which are presented in Ta-

ble 1 (Scott, 2008, 2011; Karnedi, 2011a, 2011b). Keyness indexes in the right column indicate the importance of those keywords in the economics textbook.

Table 1. Examples of Economics Keywords and Keyness

N	Keyword	Freq.	%	RC. Freq.	RC. %	Keyness
1	PRICE	3041	0.29851	1096	0.021992916	6417.473633
2	DEVELOPMENT	2658	0.26092	969	0.019444466	5583.378906
3	GROWTH	2198	0.21576	509	0.010213863	5372.667969
4	INCOME	2260	0.22185	643	0.012902778	5189.268066
5	LABOUR	1396	0.13704	6		4878.215332
6	DEMAND	2067	0.2029	592	0.011879385	4735.506348
7	SUPPLY	1770	0.17375	367		4457.139648
8	MANAGER	1416	0.139	311		3511.325928
9	GOODS	1368	0.13429	263		3510.791748
10	ECONOMY	1516	0.14881	553	0.01109679	3182.547607
11	MARKET	2247	0.22057	2052	0.041176517	2785.672852
12	EMPLOYEE	1113	0.10926	252		2736.822754
13	COST	1631	0.1601	1029	0.020648457	2619.715576
14	POPULATION	1242	0.12192	457		2598.172607
15	CAPITAL	1318	0.12938	560	0.011237256	2596.024658
16	TAX	1411	0.13851	923	0.018521406	2216.775391
17	EQUILIBRIUM	652	0.064	15		2175.161133
18	POVERTY	767	0.07529	144		1979.457031
19	TRADE	1419	0.13929	1113	0.022334047	1975.567505

As seen in Table 1, the keyword PRICE has the highest keyness index (i.e. 6417.473633) in the study corpus, followed by other keywords, such as DEVELOPMENT (i.e. 5583.378906) in the second place and GROWTH (i.e. 5372.667969) in the third place. In other words, the higher the keyness value, and the more statistically significant the different of the keyword across the two corpora (i.e. study corpus and the referent corpus) is. ESP practitioners and teachers should therefore give top priority to these keywords as they are regarded as an indicator of the keywords' importance in a text as content descriptor (Biber et al., 2007; Scott, 2011).

Translation Strategies

As far as the translation theories are concerned, translation strategies consist of translation techniques, translation methods, and ideology in translation adopted by the translator (Larson, 1984; Lörscher, 1991, 2005; Newmark, 1981; Toury, 1995; Venuti, 1993; Vermeer, 1989). To identify such strategies, a number of detailed comparative analyses involving the ST and the TT, both at macro- and micro level of the text, were conducted (Nord, 1991; Hatim, 1997; Schäffner, 2003; Bennet, 2007). To begin with, let us look at the following comparative analysis involving the ST (1a) and its Indonesian TT (1b), including its Back Translation (BT).

> ST (1a)
> Price equals marginal cost under perfect competition, but price is above marginal cost under monopolistic competition. (Mankiw, 2003)
>
> TT (1b)
> *Dalam pasar kompetitif, harga sama dengan biaya marginal. Dalam pasar termonopoli, harga melebihi biaya marginal.* (Sungkono, 2006)
>
> BT
> In competitive markets, prices are the same as marginal costs. In monopolistic markets, prices are above marginal costs.

When rendering the ST (1a) into Indonesian (TT, 1b), the translator applies at least three translation techniques (Karnedi, 2011a). The first technique is literal translation whose application can be seen in the following equivalents: *price* :: *harga* (literally: price) and *marginal cost* :: *biaya marginal* (literally: *marginal cost*); both the words PRICE and COST are the key words in the ST. Such a translation phenomenon indicates that the translator wishes to maintain the semantic components of the ST (1a) in the TT (1b). Moreover, *calque* is the second technique employed by the translator as can also be seen in the following equivalent: *monopolistic competition* :: *persaingan monopolistik*/*pasar termonopoli* (literally: monopolistic market). In addition, the translator also applies the naturalised borrowing technique as seen in the following equivalents: *marginal* :: *marginal*, *competition* :: *kompetitif* and *monopolistic* :: *termonopoli*. Based on the last two translation techniques used, it is obvious that the trans-

lator applies the faithful translation as a translation method which is basically SL-orientated (Fawcett & Munday, 2009; Hoed, 2003; Munday, 2007). This translation phenomenon reveal that translating economics texts from English into Indonesian does involve the notion of epistemicide (i.e. erosion of knowledge), particularly at the vocabulary and terminology levels; this means that the hegemony of the SL epistemology has been imposed on the TT.

Unlike the previous translation techniques, the following translation technique (i.e. transposition) gives more emphasis to the TL grammatical rules in the TT as indicated by the shift or changes of the ST forms in the TT as seen in the TT (1b). This is done by changing the complex sentence in the ST (1a) into two simple sentences in TT (1b). The translation is no longer restricted by the sentence construction or patterns in the ST. In other words, the effort is made in order to make the TT not to be read as a translation (i.e. readership).

Deleting some lexical items in the ST (1a) also takes place. For instance, the word *perfect* as in the phrase *under perfect competition* is rendered as *dalam pasar kompetitif* (literally: in competitive market) in Indonesian, including the deletion of the conjunction *but* which links the two sentences in the ST (1a). The application of such a technique is called 'deletion' or 'omission'. Even though the first deletion does not really impede communication or comprehension in the TT, the second deletion does create problems in the TT since conjunctions as cohesive markers/devices whose function is to show contrast between sentences play an important role not only in the structure of the ST but also in the TT. The last two translation techniques highlighted above have TL orientation.

The following analysis will focus on the translation of the ST (2a) having the same key word (i.e. PRICE) into Indonesian, but it is more likely to be SL-orientated based on the translation techniques used.

> ST (2a)
> But the price of oil (adjusted for overall inflation) has never returned to the peak reached in 1981. (Mankiw, 2003)

> TT (2b)
> *Akan tetapi harga minyak (disesuaikan dengan inflasi keseluruhan) tidak pernah kembali ke puncaknya yang pernah dicapai pada tahun 1981.* (Sungkono, 2006)

BT
However, oil prices (adjusted for the whole inflation) have never returned to their peak reached in 1981.

To overcome the translation problems in dealing with the ST (2a), the translator applies at least three translation techniques: literal translation, naturalised borrowing and transference. In terms of literal translation, several equivalents have been chosen, as follows: *price of oil* :: *harga minyak* (literally: oil price), *adjusted* :: *disesuaikan* (literally: adjusted), *return* :: *kembali* (literally: be back to) and *peak* :: *puncak* (literally: top). The use of such techniques is intended to preserve the semantic aspects of the ST (2a) in the TT (2b). In addition to this, the application of naturalised borrowing can also be seen in the translation of the word *inflation* into *inflasi* in Indonesian. This again stresses the fact that the translator wishes to maintain the ST features in the TT.

As for the ST syntactical structure, the translator also applies transference as a translation technique as seen in the following equivalent: *but the price of oil (adjusted for overall inflation) has never returned to the peak reached in 1981* (ST) :: *akan tetapi harga minyak* (*disesuaikan dengan inflasi keseluruhan*) *tidak pernah kembali ke puncaknya yang pernah dicapai pada tahun 1981* (TT, 2b), which has faithfully followed the sentence construction of the ST (2a).

Unlike the previous comparative analyses that were based on the key word PRICE, the next translation analysis will give more emphasis on how the ST (3a) has been rendered into Indonesian as seen in the TT (3b) in which the key word DEMAND is used in context.

ST (3a)
The demand curve for money is downward sloping, indicating that when the value of money is low **(**and the price level is high), people demand a larger quantity of it to buy goods and services. (Mankiw, 2003)

TT (3b)
Kurva permintaan uang berbentuk curam ke bawah, menandakan bahwa ketika nilai uang rendah (dan tingkat harga tinggi), masyarakat meminta jumlah uang yang lebih besar untuk membeli barang dan jasa. (Sungkono, 2006)

BT
The demand curve for money is downward sloping, showing that when the value of money is low (and the level of price is high), people demand a larger amount of money to buy goods and services.

The ST (3a) has been translated into Indonesian using at least four translation techniques: literal translation, naturalised borrowing, descriptive and explicitation (Karnedi, 2011a); the first two techniques are clearly SL-orientated whereas the last two techniques have, in fact, the TL orientation. In case point of the literal translation, the following equivalents provide some evidence for this: *value of money* :: *nilai uang* (literally: the value of money), *price level* :: *tingkat harga* (literally: the level of price), *to demand* :: *meminta* (literally: to demand), *to buy* :: *membeli* (literally: to buy), and *goods and services* :: *barang dan jasa* (literally: goods and services). The use of such technical terminology in the ST (3a) and their equivalents in the TT (3b) reflects how semantic components of the ST (3a) are strongly preserved in the TT (3b) on the basis of the TL rules.

Naturalised borrowing is another translation technique applied by the translator. For example, the word *kurva* in the phrase *kurva permintaan* (literally: the curve for demand) as the equivalent for *demand curve* has gone through both spelling and pronunciation adjustment in the TL. Additionally, the application of transference can also be seen in the TT (3b) since it follows the ST construction, even in the use of punctuation such as comma and brackets. In other words, the translator is faithful to the intention of the ST writer by structurally following the construction of the ST in the TT produced (Molina & Albir, 2002; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958/1995).

Unlike the last three translation techniques which are in favour of the SL, the next two translation techniques (i.e. descriptive and explicitation) have been adopted in order to solve the translation problems. By selecting the alternative equivalent *berbentuk curam ke bawah* (literally: take the form of downsloping) in the TT (3b), the translator tries to describe the phrase *downward sloping* using a few words in Indonesian. Additionally, apart from the descriptive technique, the translator also tries to express the pronoun *it* in the phrase *a larger quantity of it* more transparent in the TT (3b) by adding the word *uang* (literally: *money*) as in *jumlah uang yang lebih besar* (literally: a larger amount of money), which makes the pronoun more explicit in the TT (3b). In this in-

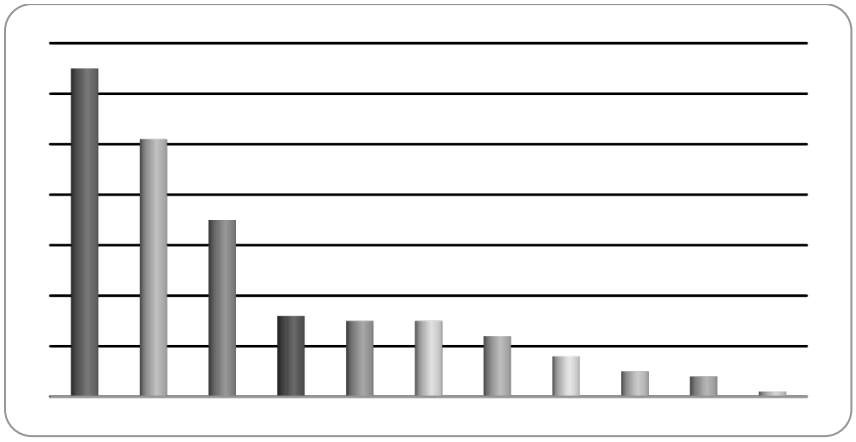
stance, something implicit in the ST has been made more explicit in the TT (Baker & Olohan, 2000; Blum-Kulka, 1986; Séguinot, 1988; Vanderauwera, 1985; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958). From the perspective of translation strategies, this is an effort made by the translator in order to be as close as possible to the TL. Hence, this can also increase the level of readership of the TT. However, from the SL point of view, the BT clearly reveals that the use of the word *money* twice in the translated text (TT, 3b) is regarded as something that is redundant and should therefore be avoided. In brief, epistemicide could actually occur in both directions of translation, either from the SL to the TL or vice versa. The previous translation phenomenon adopts the domesticating strategy of translation as it is TL-orientated, while the latter adopts the foreignising strategy of translation as it is SL-based.

Translation Techniques and Translation Methods

As far as translation techniques operating at the micro-text level are concerned, this research revealed that there were 11 techniques used by the translators in translating Economics texts (ST-subcorpus) into Indonesian (Baker, 1992; Hoed, 2006; Molina & Albir, 2002; Newmark, 1988; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958/1995), as seen in Figure 1. The first two techniques (i.e. literal translation with 28.63% frequency of occurrence and naturalised borrowing with 22.47% frequency of occurrence) together with transference with 7.05% frequency of occurrence), calque with 6.61% frequency of occurrence, and pure borrowing with 1.76% frequency of occurrence reflect the fact that the translator prefers to maintain semantic aspects, including the grammatical structure/syntax, of the ST in the TT. Therefore, they are more SL-orientated in nature, having roughly 66.52% frequency of occurrence in total; this figure outweighs the figure for those translation techniques having the TL orientation (i.e. transposition, modulation, deletion, explicitation, addition and descriptive), with only 33.48% frequency of occurrence. This translation phenomenon is congruous with the notion of *overt* translation and *covert* translation, as pointed out by House (1997).

This tendency again supported the previous conclusions that the translator was in favour of both literal and faithful translation methods, including perhaps semantic translation, as the main principle in translating the ST into the TL (Hoed, 2006; Newmark, 1988), as also found in other relevant research projects (Izwaini, 2004; Silalahi, 2009). Moreover, this translation phenomenon was also closely linked to the concept of "cultural filter", as suggested by House

(2006, p. 349). Knowledge in this instance was dominated by the dominant culture/language, which is English. In other words, the so-called evaluation of epistemicide or hegemony was valid in the sense that knowledge coming from the dominant culture was globalised through translation using the ideology of foreignisation in which translation in the target culture/language was simply providing mirror-images of English, the dominant language.



n = 227

Figure 1. Translation Techniques Adopted

Ideology in Translation

As mentioned earlier, the application of the SL-orientated techniques for translating economics texts reached 66.52% whereas the figure for the TL-based translation techniques was 33.48 %. In terms of ideology in translation, on the basis of the two figures, it can be concluded that the translator adopted the foreignising strategy of translation (*foreignisation*) rather than domestication when rendering the economics text from English into Indonesian (Munday, 2008; Venuti, 1995). This finding is seen in Figure 2, which shows a continuum that covers the three major components of translation strategies adapted from some of the translation scholars mentioned earlier (Karnedi, 2011a, 2011b).

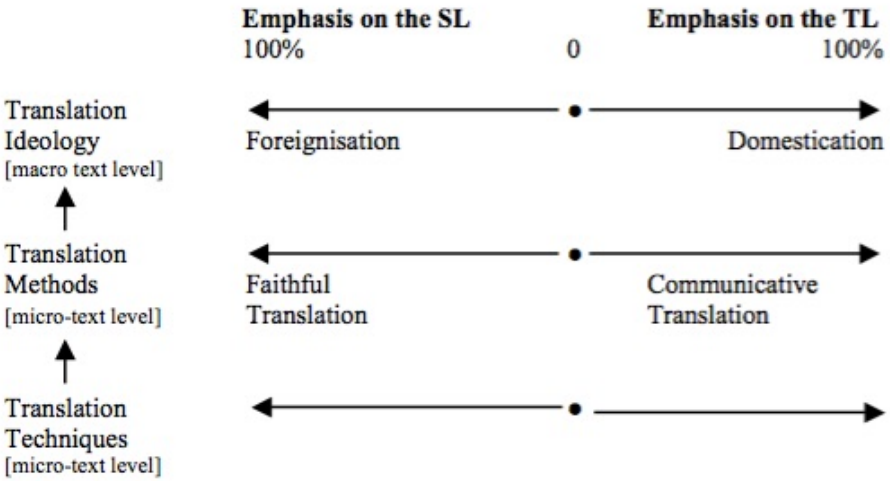


Figure 2. The Relationship among Components of Translation Strategies

Some Pedagogical Implications

The research findings highlighted in the previous section also have some pedagogical implication, especially within the context of teaching ESP (Dudley-Evans, 1998; Strevens, 1988). As part of ESP, English for economics texts, or economics-related teaching and learning materials are specially designed to meet specific needs of adult learners (e.g. university students of economics). The learners need to have the language skills in order to understand those economics concepts and realities explained in economics textbooks and use them in daily communication activities.

As far as the methodology is concerned, teaching English for university students of economics as part of ESP areas (Roberts, 2012) can also use the corpus-based approach adopted in this research (Römer, 2010). As mentioned earlier, the parallel corpus for this research consisted of two subcorpora designed on the basis of some criteria[3] — the source text subcorpus coming from an English economics text and its Indonesian translation as the target subcorpus. In preparing the teaching materials for the students of economics, with a

[3] Such as corpus representativeness, corpus size, corpus balance, sampling, text types

corpus in hand or from the Internet, the concordance programme (e.g. Wordsmith Tools 5.0) can be utilised to elicit keywords and language patterns (collocation) in the ST subcorpus as seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Some Concordance Lines for the Keyword PRICE

EC found it difficult to *maintain a* **high price**. From 1982 to 1985, the
surprising that monopolies *charge* **high prices** for their products.
of oil outside of OPEC *respond to* **high prices** by increasing oil
and *sell* a large quantity at that **high price**. The market demand curve
level of profit they want, because **high prices** *reduce* the amount that
monopolist could *command* quite a **high price**, even if the marginal cost
from buying health insurance *by the* **high price**. adverse selection the
of the owners of the firm, *the* **high price** *makes* monopoly very
is connected to the *monopoly's* **high price**: Consumers'buy fewer.units
, STRONG Demand *leads to* **high prices** and high profits, which
drug addicts are willing *to pay a* **high price** for heroin. Yet we would
and whether Big Brew *sets a* **high price** or a low price: Big Brew
after the insurance is bought. *The* **high price** *of* insurance is why some
and for beef. Explain in words. 8. "**High prices** traditionally *cause*
, eventually *bringing an end to* **high prices** and manufacturers'
has a high marginal product and a **high price**. As a result, when the
problems are *discouraged by the* **high price** from buying health
would happen, but when you *outlaw* **high prices** you create real problems.
only John is willing *to pay* such *a* **high price**. If the price is between
defender of the poor by *declaring* **high prices** illegal," says William J.
is inelastic. At points *with a* **high price** and low quantity, the
either a high price for tickets or *a* **low price**. If one company charges
Sticky-Wage Theory: An unexpectedly **low price** *level raises* the real wage,
Sticky-Price Theory: An unexpectedly **low price** *level leaves* some firms
money. Instead of *charging* such *a* **low price**, the monopoly firm would
are cheap, which she measures by *a* **low price**-*earnings ratio*. How do you
midpoint method. At points *with a* **low price** and high quantity, the
from being able *to buy* heroin *at a* **low price** (even though addicts might
axis on the right is inverted: *A* **low price** *level* is shown near the top
consumers would *benefit from the* **low price**. Moreover, the case for
them rather than *sell* them *at the* **low price** that skeptical buyers are
money. Instead of *charging such a* **low price**, the monopoly firm would
Sticky-Wage Theory.- An unexpectedly **low price** *level raises* the real wage,
also *give* the "high" and "**low" prices** over the past day of

perceptions Theory: An unexpectedly **low price** *level leads* some suppliers
Big Brew *sets* a high price or *a* **low price**: Big Brew High Price Low
consumers would *benefit from the* **low price**. Moreover, the case for

As seen in Table 2, the word *price* (as a *node*) collocates with certain adjectives (apart from certain nouns) such as *high*, *low*, *reasonable*, *attractive*, *fair*, *actual*, *annual*, *average*, *constant*, *current*, *different*, *domestic*, *effective*, *good*, *international*, *new*, *relative*, *rental*, *same*, *sharp*, *single*, *total*, *various*. On the other hand, in an Indonesian monolingual corpus, as seen in Table 3, the word *harga* (*price*) generally collocates with the adjectives *murah* (literally: cheap) and *mahal* (literally: expensive) as in *harga murah* (literally: cheap price) and *harga mahal* (literally: expensive price), including *harga rendah* and *harga tinggi* (literally: low and high price). However, the first two examples (i.e. *harga murah* and *harga mahal*) are specifically bound to Indonesian culture.

In addition to this, teachers or ESP practitioners can also design much more challenging learning activities that are learner-centred (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) by giving students translation tasks at the sentence level where phrases such as *harga rendah* and *harga mahal*, for instance, may be used as in the Indonesian economics text used in this analysis, as seen in Table 3. If the students adopt literal translation as a translation technique, which is SL-orientated, they might come up with English translations like *cheap price* and *expensive price*, which are unacceptable in English as they violate the rules of English collocational patterns (i.e. *low* and *high price*). In other words, based on wider knowledge of these different grammatical rules, specialised terminology and also with continuous language practice, students of economics, in particular, should be able to communicate successfully across languages and cultures.

Table 3. Concordance Lines for the Keyword HARGA

mengapa Bimantara mau *menjual dengan* **harga murah**? Ternyata ini juga
tetangga. "Daripada *mengobralnya dengan* **harga murah**, menjatuhkan
menginginkan kenyamanan selain **harga murah**, Jackson juga ber
BBM lebih banyak orang kaya. *Akibat* **harga murah** itu, kita terlena dan
toko milik kerabatnya. Tentu saja *dengan* **harga** *lebih* **tinggi**. "Ya, kalau di
dikonsumsi ke negara berkembang *dengan* **harga** *lebih* **murah** dari dalam
menjual produk ke negara lain *dengan* **harga** *lebih* **rendah** dari perkiraan

Airlines misalnya, mampu *menawarkan* **harga** *tiket lebih* **murah** dengan bisa *memperoleh* bahan sembako *dengan* **harga** *yang relatif* **murah**," kata sekarang, mereka juga bisa *mendapatkan* **harga** *yang relatif lebih* **murah**.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

As the world economy keeps changing rapidly, translation has turned into a promising industry. Stakeholders in this sector play a very important role in producing translation versions involving many other languages worldwide. Translating science textbooks like economics textbooks from English as the SL into Indonesian as the TL has also become part of this cross-cultural activity (Katan, 2004). However, the erosion of knowledge embodied in the given texts has been unavoidable. As the dominant culture from which the knowledge comes, English features and conventions have been adapted to the less dominant culture through translation. In other words, the TT is regarded as "mirror-images" of the source language and culture (Cronin, 2010, p. 251), and this leads to language change from the view point of the TL. During the process of translation, translating scientific textbooks into Indonesian frequently causes problems (Larson, 1984; Newmark, 1988; Schäffner, 2003). In order to overcome such problems, certain translation strategies are required (Lörscher, 1991, 2005). Translation strategies normally cover several components: translation ideology, translation methods and translation techniques. Translation strategies actually reflect the various efforts made by the translator in dealing with the translation of economics texts from the SL into the TL, starting from the micro-text level up to the macro-text level.

This research shows that at the macro-text level, the translator adopted the foreignising strategy of translation (i.e. foreignisation). The translator wished to maintain the meanings and characteristics of the ST in the TT (i.e. overt translation). However, less attention was given to the characteristics of the TL in the TT (i.e. covert translation). The translator's ideological perspective supported the theory of translation, particularly as to how translating ideologies should be treated (Fawcett & Munday, 2009; Hoed, 2003; House, 2001; Mason, 1992; Van Dijk, 1998; Venuti, 1995).

The ideological preference at the macro-text level could be traced up to the micro-text level by identifying the use of certain translation methods and techniques when there are problems with translating economics texts from the

SL into Indonesian. This research was also in line with the assumption implied by the V-Diagram (Newmark, 1988), which states that in doing his task, the translator is faced with two options, either favouring the SL or the TL (or perhaps a mixture of the two). The final decision as to which option to choose is for the translator himself to make.

This research also provided some evidence that the major causes of translation problems can be divided into three main categories: (1) linguistics-based – structural and system differences between two languages; 2) pragmatics-based – outside contextual factors affecting the success of communication through the translation process; and 3) culture-based – conventions practiced in a community (Ivir, 1987). It is, therefore, necessary to apply various strategies for translating economics textbooks from English into Indonesian in order to achieve the aims or *skopos* of the translation itself (Nord, 1997; Vermeer, 1989). This is because the translator as communicator, together with the TT writer and the target readers, is part of the communication process.

The findings in this research also support a number of alternative translation techniques put forward by translation theorists such as Newmark (1988), Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995), and many others although it should be mentioned that there are similarities among the translation techniques suggested.

As for teaching ESP, the research findings also have some pedagogical implications on teaching English for economics partly through translation, some of which relate to the methodology (i.e. corpus-based approach) that can be adopted by ESP practitioners in the design of learning materials based on corpora which contain authentic texts on economics, and a selection of language focus relating to the register of various categories of economics (i.e. technical terms/terminology, and grammar in terms of regular recurrence of language patterns in economics texts). In brief, having the knowledge and language skills will enable students to participate in economics-related discourse communities (i.e. communicative competence).

One of the weaknesses of this research is that it should have operated at discourse level rather than at sentence level, at which ideology resides, including ideology on translation (Munday, 2007; Tymoczko, 2003). Therefore, further research needs to be done involving not only various discourses but also what happens when there are changes to the direction of translation (i.e. Indonesian-English translation) to see whether or not the phenomenon of epistemicide through translation does occur within the context of Indonesian-English translation.

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LECTURERS' AND STUDENTS' BELIEFS IN CODE-SWITCHING: A MALAYSIAN POLYTECHNIC CONTEXT

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Abstract: This research is to discover whether lecturers' beliefs coincide with their practices in their daily teaching. The focus will be on the belief in the use of code-switching in the classroom. At the same time, it is also worthwhile to indicate whether there are differences in the beliefs between the lecturers and the students. For that purpose three lecturers from an engineering department of a polytechnic in a northern region as well as the students in the classrooms were chosen to participate in this research. The methods designed include classroom observations, questionnaires for both the lecturers and students, and interviews with the lecturers after the classroom observation. The findings showed that the lecturers mostly used reiteration and message qualification functions when code-switching. They believed that it was intended mainly to enhance their students' understanding and to save their time from lengthy explanation whenever the students are in doubt. This was agreeable by most students as they believed that code-switching could help them understand the lessons better. Some recommendations are made based on the findings and analysis of the results, expecting that it would further improve the teaching of Mathematics, Science and technical subjects in the Malaysian polytechnics.

Keywords: code-switching, Malaysian polytechnic, teachers' beliefs, students' beliefs, ETeMS (English in the Teaching of Mathematics and Science)

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/85-96

Teachers' beliefs, practices and attitudes are important in understanding and improving educational processes. They are closely linked to teachers' strategies for coping with challenges in their daily professional life for their general well-being. At the same time, they shape students' learning environment and influence students' motivation and achievement. Undoubtedly, teaching is a complex process which can be conceptualized in a number of different ways as mentioned by Richards and Lockhart (2000).

The teachers' beliefs in using code-switching in the classroom could also be linked to the strategies that they believe will work in their teaching and learning. Code-switching is one of the common communication skills among bilinguals and is known to be a naturalistic occurrence outside the classroom environment (Macaro, 2014). Then and Ting (2009) have identified code-switching as an apparent phenomenon in Science and Mathematics classrooms. It was intended to ensure that the students would understand the contents better and at the same time follow the education policy and reach a compromise for the students' level of proficiency. The result has shown that code-switching complements both teaching and learning process.

Therefore, the aim of this research is to identify the lecturers and students' beliefs in code-switching as well as to confirm whether there are differences in the beliefs.

Teacher's roles can be divided into roles reflecting institutional factors, roles reflecting a teaching approach or method and roles reflecting a personal view on teaching (Richards & Lockhart, 2000). This research focuses on the third role: the roles reflecting a personal view on teaching. Different teachers have different view on what their roles are in the classroom. Their views are basically linked to their own beliefs, the teacher's belief. The source of their beliefs may have been their own experience as language learners, experience of what works best, established practice, personality factors, educationally based or research-based principles or principles derived from an approach or method (Richards & Lockhart, 2000). Individual teachers are actually shaping their belief systems based on the goals, values, and beliefs they hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work, and their roles within it. However, their belief systems are built up gradually over time and might be varied.

One of the beliefs is the use of code-switching as a tool in the teaching and learning in a classroom. Code-switching can be observed from linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatics, psycholinguistic, grammatical, and pedagogical perspec-

tives. It also takes place without a change of topic and can involve various levels of language: phonology, morphology, grammatical structures or lexical items as clarified in Richards (2002). Code-switching is a dynamic phenomenon of language use, and therefore, the definitions of code-switching have changed in time. Macaro mentioned that there are different terms associated with code-switching. For example, as cited in Macaro (2014, p. 11), Kharma & Hajjaj (1989) called it as "the use of the mother tongue" and Levine (2011) called it a "code choice". However, this research uses the term code-switching to refer to the change and switch between the two languages, English and Malay, which is also known as *Bahasa Melayu*.

The MOI (medium of instructions) for the Mathematics, Science and technical subjects in the polytechnics have switched from Malay into English since 2008. These polytechnic lecturers, especially the engineering lecturers, may be proficient in English when it comes to writing, but may be less confident in speaking since they are not used to teaching in English. Therefore, to overcome this problem they tend to code-switch between Malay and English most of the time. Such code-switching practices could also indicate that the person intends to fill a linguistic gap (Valdés Fallis, 1978) or maybe he or she is not competent in the second language (Crystal, 1987). However, code-switching does not necessarily pose negative impacts as it could somehow be used as a part of teaching and learning strategies such as clarification purposes (Mattson & Burenhult, 1999). These lecturers may be competent in English but they might just want to ensure that their students understood what they have taught as these students are also getting used to the current MOI. Thus, this context is valuable to explore in order to find out what the beliefs of both lecturers and students on code-switching are in the subject content classroom.

METHOD

The first method is classroom observations. In this research, three lecturers were observed and the lessons were audio-recorded in order to identify the frequency of code-switching; which part of the lesson normally invites more code-switching and what will the effect be during the lessons on both the lecturers and the students. The frequency of technical lecturers' code-switching was also plotted down and analysed using Then and Ting's (2009) adaptation of Gumperz's (1982) semantic model. The functions are quotation, addressee specification, interjections, reiterations, message qualification, personalization vs.

objectification and situational code-switching. Studies using Gumperz's semantic model find the use of code-switching by students and teachers for a variety of conversational functions.

With the obtained consent from the Head of Department, the researcher asked the three lecturers and students to audio-record the lessons. The three lecturers were aware of the general purpose of this study, which is to investigate their classroom practice. However, they were not informed about the specific study focus in order not to affect their behaviors in the classroom.

Observations can be collected using several ways and in general, a narrative recording had been chosen to identify the verbal and non-verbal behaviors of the teachers and the students in the classroom. This was conducted to observe the real code-switching in action and to identify the frequency as well as the functions of code-switching that were used during the classroom observations.

A purposive sampling was chosen for this study. There were two groups involved in this study. The first group includes three lecturers from the Civil Engineering Department of Politeknik Ungku Omar in Perak who were involved in the classroom observations and interview. The selected lecturers vary in age, from senior to junior lecturers. The demographic profile of the lecturers can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Lecturers' Demographic Profile

	Gender	**Race**	**Age (years old)**	**Academic Qualification**	**Years of Teaching Experience**	**Class involved**
Lecturer A	Female	Malay	43	Master in Engineering (Highway & Transportation)	20 years	DKA 5B
Lecturer B	Female	Malay	27	Degree in Civil Engineering	2 months	DKA 5C
Lecturer C	Male	Malay	35	Degree in Civil Engineering	9 years	DKA 6B

The second group involved in the questionnaire were 25-30 students from three classes of semester five and six of Diploma courses (classes in which their lecturers were observed), since they were the earlier product of ETeMS (English in the Teaching of Mathematics and Science) previously from school. Based on

Table 2 below, all the classes in total had a balanced number of female and male students. Most of the participants were Malays and the main age range is between the age of 21 to 23 years old since they are all in semester five and six respectively. The details of their demographic information can be seen in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Students' Demographic Profile

	DKA 5B	DKA 5C	DKA 6B
Gender : Male	**9**	**11**	**18**
Female	**20**	**19**	**7**
Race : Malay	**26**	**28**	**22**
Chinese	**2**	**-**	**-**
Indian	**1**	**2**	**3**
Other	**-**	**-**	**-**
Age: 18 – 20	**2**	**4**	**-**
21 – 23	**27**	**26**	**20**
24 and above	**-**	**-**	**5**

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In total there were 55 instances of code-switching, involving mainly English and Malay in all the three lessons (refer to Table 3 below).

Table 3. Frequency of Lecturers' Code-switching Instances

Lecturer	Topic	Code-switching instances
Lecturer A	Road Junctions	34
Lecturer B	Ratio	7
Lecturer C	Displacement	14
Total		**55**

Both Lecturer A (n=34) and Lecturer C (n=14) code-switched quite frequently during the lesson but Lecturer B code-switched very little when she gave equations for students to solve on their own (n=7). The frequency does not take account of the word 'OK*'* as an example of code-switching The total number of 'OK' were 57 by Lecturer A, 4 by Lecturer B and 8 by Lecturer C. The inclusion of the word would over-represent the incidence of code-switching.

One example of code-switching is shown below. Some of the answers were actually elicited from the students (the lecturer did not elicit all the terms in English).

[MESSAGE QUALIFICATION]
T: λ is perubahan panjang... perubahan panjang... **(different of length)** *because of load*

[REITERATION]
and status. Different is added. Area of given? Area of given is A and E. Young modulus... in English?
Ss: Modulus Young...
T: Modulus Young...

In this example Lecturer C did not use the English term for "different of length". Instead, he used the Malay term "*perubahan panjang"* in order to explain the meaning of the term. It is to re-confirm with the students that the right term was used. Thus, it was unnecessary for the lecturer to repeat it since he wanted to continue with his explanation. Then, he elicited the term of '*young modulus*' into English from the students. The reiteration actually comes from the students in which he later confirmed that it was the right answer by repeating it. The lesson took place mainly in English except for instances when the teacher switched to Malay to help his students understand his explanation. Lecturer C was only translating important junctures but still giving most of the explanations in English.

The subject content based lessons shows that both Lecturer A and C were providing input to their students in the form of extensive explanations of concepts by switching to Malay for reiteration and message qualification. These two functions of code-switching co-occurred in the recent research. By using both languages, a double layered message was encoded: 1) this is how a junction works (Lecturer A) or this is how to calculate displacement (Lecturer C); and 2) this is important and you need to know this. The result is in line with Zheng (2009), who states that a message is clarified and emphasized when said in both languages (reiteration). Frequent message qualification was also found by Choi and Kuipers (2003) in their study of science students.

As the order of the language switch was generally from English to Malay and sometimes back to English, this shows that the base language for teaching was English for Lecturer A and C. The transcriptions also show that a larger

proportion of the lectures was in English. The use of code-switching by the teachers was a good teaching strategy to construct the information into a form that was more comprehensible for the students whenever their proficiency in English was presumed inadequate to understand the lecture.

In contrast to the content-lesson discussed earlier, the lesson by Lecturer B was a bit different. There were only seven instances of code-switching identified in the lesson. This could be because the lesson was more of a revision rather an introduction to a new topic like the other two lessons discussed previously. Although not so much interactions observed in Lecturer's B class, there was quite a few code-switching identified in her lesson. An example would be the mix used of interjection, reiteration, addressee specification and message qualification by Lecturer B in the following example:

[INTERJECTION]

T: Please make sure you write your name and matrix no. ye! Ok Guys, time's up! Pass it

[REITERATION] [ADDRESSEE SPECIFICATION]

over. Hurry up. Cepat sikit. Jangan tengok jawapan kawan **(Don't look at your friend's answer).**

Ss: Susahlah puan **(It's difficult, madam).**

[MESSAGE QUALIFICATION]

T: Just follow the cara kerja **(working scheme)** *that I show you just now. Ok thank you class!*

Ss: Thank you puan.

Very minimal classroom interaction was observed in this particular lesson since Lecturer B had employed a lecturer-facilitated lesson. Various questions were given to the students for them to look for the answers on their own. The lecturer was only there to check on their work by going around the class. Students would call her to clarify any doubt they had. After everyone has finished answering the questions, only then she would check the answers together. The lesson was more of a revision lesson rather than a transmission of new content. Therefore, code-switching is lesser in this lesson as there is lesser need to clarify and comprehend new knowledge.

The low frequency of code-switching was also due to the lower amount of lecturer talk in Lecturer B's lesson. Lecturer A was talking more than the other two teachers; the total word count for the classroom interaction was about 3163

words as compared to Lecturer B (223 words) and Lecturer C (551 words). The students in Lecturer A's lesson were also more responsive, although their responses were brief, unlike the other two classes where there were longer silences whenever questions were posed. For this particular lesson, which was audio-recorded for analysis, language content such as explanation of grammar rules and specialized vocabulary for an unfamiliar topic were not involved. The lesson preferred elicitation of information from the previous lesson and students' background knowledge related to the topic. Hence, Lecturer B could facilitate her lesson with minimal lecture and code-switching.

The stimulated recall interview was done immediately after the lecturers had finished their lessons or later on, but still on the same day, so that they would still remember the uttered code-switching instances and the reasons for doing so. Moreover, their opinions will be more valid and accurate since they were still fresh in their mind. Although all of them never heard of code-switching before, but after receiving an explanation on code-switching, all of them agreed that they code-switched during the lessons. When they were asked of the reasons for doing so, Lecturer A stated that she did it so that her students could have a better understanding of the subject taught. This is supported by the result from the students' questionnaire where the majority of the students in DKA 5B (n=29), which is 72.4 percent, actually prefer their lecturers to use both languages because they could understand the lesson better and it was easier for them to learn the subject. Those who had chosen both languages as their options mostly have written down the reason of their choice as being able to understand the lesson easier when both languages were used.

In Lecturer A's opinion, the students can understand more as Malay is mainly the students' mother tongue. Moreover, she always uses simple English. The code-switched was spontaneous and unplanned. Other than code-switching, this lecturer also believed that translation could be another good strategy in teaching. For Lecturer B, when she was asked whether she was consciously code-switching, she admitted that she was conscious. It was a planned move. She already organized in her mind the appropriate time to code-switch. This strategy is also confirmed by Romaine (1989) that code-switching is not a random but rather a strategic and patterned linguistic behavior. Lecturer B needed to code-switch from English to Malay in order to explain the technical terms and also in case the students did not understand her. It was more of clarification purposes. She also believed that translation is used at times during her lecture.

Lecturer C also noticed that he code-switched quite a number of times in that particular lesson. However, the main reason that he code-switched from English to Malay was because he had forgotten the term in English. That was the reason why he resorted to translating the term into Malay. Since he had forgotten, the action was an unplanned one. This could be one of the strategies he had adopted in line to Valdés Fallis (1978) which was mentioned earlier, code-switching may be used to fill a linguistic gap or conceptual gap. Correspondingly, people mix and switch from one language to another as a result of inability to express oneself adequately in one language as mentioned by Crystal (1987). Thus, Ong (1990) stated that speakers with a low degree of English language proficiency would code-switch to ensure continuity of conversation. Another strategy that Lecturer C would use was by asking the students for the answer. An example of it is when he said *'very sikit'*, then one of the students replied 'very little' since he had forgotten the word *'sikit'* in English. Although he did not ask directly for the word, but the students somehow know that he had forgotten it.

Both lecturers A and B felt that they were not guilty of using both English and Malay in the lessons. For Lecturer A, she said that her aim is the outcome of the lesson. Students need to have good understanding of the lesson taught and there were needs to use Malay at times. Lecturer B believed what she did was right because her students would not understand her lesson if she spoke only English throughout her lesson. The students of DKA 5C (n=30), which is 76.7 percent also agree to the Lecturer B's choice of using both Malay and English languages in her lesson.

Lecturer C, on the other hand, felt a bit guilty for code-switching from English to Malay because he usually used Malay more often than English language. If he did not code-switch, the students might not understand at all and that would make him feel even guiltier. Table 4 below shows DKA 6B (n=25) preference of code to be used in the classroom:

Table 4. DKA 6B Preference of Code Used in the Lesson

	Frequency	**Percent**
English only	1	4.0
Malay only	10	40.0
Both languages	14	56.0
Total	25	100.0

The majority, 56 percent of them, felt that it is necessary to use both languages in the lesson. However, nearly half of the respondents (40 per cent) also believed that the lesson should be conducted in Malay. This could be due to Lecturer C's preferred choice of code to use all this while. He even admitted that he always uses Malay in his teaching making the students used to it already. Three of the respondents from the second group, i.e. the students; Respondent No. 71, 83 and 84 did mention some improvements that Lecturer C need to make. Respondent No. 83 stated that the lecturer needed to always talk in English so that both parties will be able to improve their English. Respondent No. 71 wrote down that Lecturer C needs to improve his English. Being a lecturer, it is compulsory to teach in English, and the lecturer had tried his very best to make sure the students' understand his lesson apart from the limitation that he has. Respondent No. 84 has encouraged the lecturer to continue using both languages rather than only Malay most of the time. By doing so, the lesson will be more enjoyable and fun.

All the lecturers believed that the terms should be taught in English, while the explanation should be given in Malay in order to improve students' understanding. This is also in line to Then and Ting's (2009) study that teachers code-switch to provide more information, clarity on topics, or contents taught. Whenever there was a need to explain difficult words, these technical lecturers preferred to speak in Malay to save time. Correspondingly, it was also their students' preferences.

The questionnaire was used to identify the lecturers' preferences of code to use at home or at workplace. As elicited during the interview session, they actually performed some of the code-switching functions similar to the observed lessons in the classrooms. Using both English and Malay has become the style of their teachings due to the change of policy stated by the Malaysian government.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In summary, teachers' beliefs are consistent with their actual practice to some extent. As mentioned by Lee (2009, 13), "Research on teachers' beliefs has demonstrated that beliefs have an important impact on teachers' practices." The teachers in this study reflect very positive attitudes towards language teaching and they have tried their best to attract their students' attention by uttering some jokes and also at times code-switching to enhance their students' under-

standing. The students also had the same belief that code-switching has helped them understand the lesson better. This leads to a conclusion that language teaching is a complex process and teachers' performance will affect the students either explicitly or implicitly. Further studies appear beneficial in exploring how levels of language proficiency contribute to the teachers' and students' beliefs in the use of code-switching.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SELF-ASSESSMENT IN WRITING CLASS: A CASE STUDY AT STBA LIA JAKARTA

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Abstract: Self-assessment has become a means of realizing the goals of learner-centered education. It is conducted to help students grow to be independent learners. With regard to this point, this case study is aimed at investigating the implementation of the self-assessment as a learning tool in writing class. Its purpose is to examine students' reactions to the use of self-assessment checklist and how it helps them revise their essays. To do this, the data of (1) students' essays; (2) students' self-assessment checklist; and (3) students responses to the questionnaires on their attitudes towards self-assessment practice obtained from nine students were analyzed. The findings revealed that most students welcomed the use of self-assessment. Most students found the process of reflecting on one's own learning to be helpful. After the implementation of self-assessment, the students show that they can revise the essays at phrase level, surface level, content level, and lexical level. However, their grammatical accuracy did not progress significantly.

Keywords: self-assessment, students' attitudes, essay writing

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/97-116

English Language Teaching (ELT) has experienced a paradigm shift from teacher to student-centered teaching. Unlike in traditional classroom practice, now learners are positioned as the central figure of teaching and learning process. Harris (1997) states that the effectiveness of teaching and learning should depend on learners' perceptions of the learning process and of themselves as

language learners. In a similar vein, Hunt, Gow, and Barnes (1989) assert that successful language teaching must start from the learners rather than the teachers so language learners must be made aware that they are the most important element in the learning process. Consequently, teachers should be able to facilitate learners with the opportunities to develop their self-awareness of their needs, goals, and learning process.

The concern for involving students to develop their own responsibility towards their learning progress has raised some scholars' interests in implementing self-assessment in the class. Self-assessment has also gained much attention in recent years because of its growing emphasis on learner independence, learner autonomy and significant pedagogic value. O'Malley and Valdez (1996) emphasize that self-assessment practice not only promotes students' critical thinking towards their performance but also encourages them to look for solutions to the constraints encountered. According to Chen (2008), active involvement of the learners in assessing their performance will enable them to gain ownership of their learning. In her justification for self-assessment, Dickinson (1987) notes that, in contrast to external modes of assessment, which can increase inhibition, self-assessment helps to reduce competition in the classroom and increases cooperation among learners. Li (1998) found that implementing self-assessment in a secondary school in Hong Kong is a meaningful activity to sensitize students to the experience of greater participation and to make students more involved in learning.

There are varied opinions among the scholars about the definition of self-assessment. Richard and Schmidt (2002, p. 475) define self-assessment as "checking one's own performance on a language learning task after it has been completed". They claim that self-assessment is an example of metacognitive strategy in language learning. According to Dickinson (1987), self-assessment is a process of collecting information about students' own learning in order to monitor consciously their knowledge development. Harris and McCann (1994, p. 36) describe the concept of self-assessment as "useful information about students' expectations and needs, their problems and worries, how they feel about their own (learning) process, their reactions to the materials and methods being used, and what they think about the course in general".

Another scholar, Brown (2004) asserts that self-assessment is any assessment that requires students to judge their own abilities or performance. In line with Brown's opinion, Bachman (2000) claims that self-assessment provides an approach in which learners typically rate themselves according to a number

of criteria or dimensions. Boud (1995) summarizes that self-assessment comprises two main elements: the students make decisions about the standards of good performance and then grade their own work in relation to these standards. Klenowski (1995, p. 146) points out that self-assessment is "the evaluation or judgment of the worth of one's performance and the identification of one's strengths and weaknesses with a view to improve one's learning outcomes". In addition, Boekarts (1991, p. 2) asserts that "Self-assessment is a form of appraisal that involves a comparison between one's behavioral outcomes and internal and external standard".

In higher education, the progressive shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered classroom has forced the teacher to help learners take charge of their own learning. To do so, the main goal of education in college and university contexts should be directed to "help students learn effectively and efficiently than they could on their own" (Angelo and Cross, 1993, p. 3). Therefore, learners should be continuously involved in the process of goal setting and taking responsibility for the learning outcome.

Zimmerman (2001, p. 5) advocates that self-assessment sits within bigger picture of self-regulation, which is described as students being "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants of their own learning." Table 1 shows that students are involved in observing their learning progress by identifying what they can achieve in completing a certain task. Then, they should be able to measure their achievement based on their personal goal and the external standard.

Table 1. Elements of Self-Regulation (Zimmerman 2001, p. 5)

	What students do	**Reference points for judgements**
Self-assessment	Collect evidence of learning and interpret meaning of evidence	Personal goal, external standard
Self-evaluation	Compare their work	Goal, criteria, exemplar, feedback
Self-correction	Make changes or adjustments Set new goals	Goal, criteria, exemplar, feedback
Self-monitoring	Monitor progress towards closing the gap or reaching amended goal	Goal, criteria, exemplar
Self-reflection	Think about processes, thinking, dispositions towards task	Expressed notions of what learning entails

Furthermore, Schunk (2004) claims that in the view of metacognition theory, students should be trained to consciously control particular cognitive skills such as selecting, predicting, self-monitoring and self-evaluation which are needed to enhance their learning and achievement. Self-assessment can train students to exercise a variety of learning strategies and higher order thinking skills that not only provide feedback to the students but also provide direction for further learning (Chammot & O'Malley, 1994).

According to Oscarsson (1989), the rationale of self-assessment in language learning is to promote learning as it requires students to exercise a variety of learning strategies and higher order thinking skills. He further argues that when doing self-assessment, students raise their level of awareness. It means that they know what their abilities are, how much progress they are making and what they can (or cannot) do with the skills they have acquired. Then, they can engage actively to improve their goal orientation. This continuous assessment technique can help students realize that they do not have to depend entirely on the teacher's opinion. Alexander, Argent & Spencer (2008) believe that a competent learner owns three element characteristics, such as having willingness to do self-assessment, to take risk, and being active. If learners possess these qualities, they are leading themselves towards autonomous learners.

As shown in Figure 1, the theoretical model behind self-assessment provided by Rollheiser and Ross (2005, p. 2) indicates that self-assessment plays a key role in fostering an upward cycle of learning.

The theoretical model in Figure 1 shows how self-assessment contributes to the achievement of goal. The model states that when students evaluate their performance positively, the result of it encourages them to set higher goals (1) and commit more personal resources or efforts (2). The combination of goals and efforts equals achievement (3). Then, a student's achievement results in self-judgment (4). The result of self-judgment is self-reaction (5). Then, goals, effort, achievement, self-judgment, and self-reaction all can combine to impact self-confidence (6) in a positive way. Thus, self-assessment is actually the combination of self-judgment and self-reaction components of the model. Teacher's task is to teach the students to do this better to enhance learning.

Rollheiser and Ross (2005, p. 2) are convinced that self-assessment system shown in Figure 1 can help students learn better because (1) self-assessment will focus student's attention on the learning objectives; (2) the assessment provides teachers with information they would otherwise lack; (3) students will

pay more attention to the assessment, and (4) students' motivation will be enhanced.

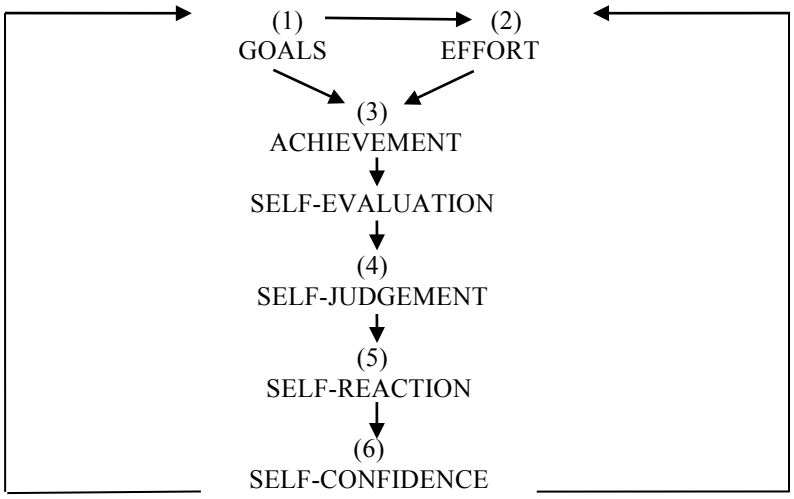

Figure 1. How Self-Evaluation Contributes to Learning (Rollheiser and Ross, 2005, p. 2)

There are many benefits of implementing self-assessment in the language classroom. Oscarsson (1989) mentions that it can promote learning, raise level of awareness, improve goal-orientation, expand range of assessment, share assessment burden and bring beneficial post-course effects. Blue (1994) identifies the benefits of having self-assessment as encouraging more efforts, boosting self-confidence and self-consciousness of learning strengths and weaknesses, and facilitating awareness of the distinction between competence and performance. Boud (1995) argues that self-assessment can train learners to gradually develop critical attitude towards their learning. In the long run, self-assessment can empower learners to gain ownership of their learning and life-long learning skills. Butler and Lee (2010) found that self-assessment also finds stronger position in leading to a shift of classroom mode from teacher-centered into learner-centered. They argue that self-assessment meets all three domains of self-regulated learning: metacognitive domain, learning strategy, and affective domain. Since language teaching focuses on learners, Blue (1988)

says that self-assessment can be used as a learning strategy because learners are encouraged to identify whether they have achieved their goals in learning or not and to plan how to achieve them.

In the literature, most research on self-assessment has been carried out in higher education. One of the reasons is because adult learners are not in the process of acquisition like those of young learners so that they are believed to have the ability of knowing the framework for self-monitoring their own learning. Furthermore, adults are among others who are successful when learning without guidance (Brown, 2004). When Lam (2010) implemented self-assessment towards the end of the semester in the writing class, the students were enthusiastic. In addition, he discovered that the students felt motivated to improve their writing. In Birjandi and Siyyari's study (2010), it is reported that self-assessment can significantly improve the writing performance of learners in comparison to the learners who were not given the opportunity to assess their own performance.

Other related studies show different models for the implementation of self-assessment for learning. Hasani and Moghadam (2012) implemented self-assessment in a ten-stage study of essay writing in English in Iran. They investigated the effect of self-assessment on writing skills and proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. The result indicated that the experimental group members who received self-assessment training did much better than those of the control group. Naeni (2011) investigated the relationship between learners' self-assessment scores and their writing performance. In this study, self-assessment was applied in the experimental group to provide self-guidance and reflection. Students were trained to use self-assessment checklist as guides to their writing performance. The results showed that self-assessment motivated students to be more aware with their problems in the course. Similar results were revealed in the implementation of self-assessment training to 189 non English major students of Zhejiang University, China. The finding showed that self-assessment can contribute to students' learning processes and help students enhance their writing skills. The self-assessment training has a positive effect on students' writing achievement (Zheng, Huang, Chen, 2012, p. 41).

When introducing self-assessment in academic writing to students in the University of Arab Emirat, Litz (2009) found that the students are capable of accurately assessing themselves on a finished writing task. In addition, self-assessment is helpful in assisting students to master English writing convention and improve their overall ability. To investigate whether self-assessment gives

impact on Iranian EFL learners' writing skill, Javaherbakhsh (2010) administered the self-assessment techniques to the experimental group. The experimental group assessed their compositions themselves by using a checklist and were given feedback by the teacher whereas the control group's compositions only received the teacher's feedback. Finally, both groups were invited to write a composition as the posttest. The comparison of the results of the posttest showed that administering self-assessment techniques to the experimental group significantly improves the students' writing skill.

In some learning contexts, fostering an autonomous learning environment is considered a demanding job. In Iran, Khodadady and Khodabakhshzade (2012) explored the effect of portfolio and self-assessment on writing tasks and self-regulation ability by assigning sixty freshman undergraduate university students majoring in teaching English as a foreign language to a control and experimental group. Despite the fact that the experimental group was reluctant at the beginning to use the checklists to monitor their writing improvement for the first few sessions, they eventually responded enthusiastically. This demonstrated that the regular implementation of the self-assessment checklist in class as well as outside class in the experimental group had great effects on the students' sense of independency in writing activities. In Hongkong, Lam (2010) studied the role of self-assessment in students' writing portfolio. Self-assessment can boost students' motivation in their writing; however, the students thought that self-assessment could only help them to tackle surface errors such as the mechanics of writing and the appropriate use of vocabulary. Only few of them attended to global errors with the content and organization of their writing.

In Indonesian EFL instruction, the teacher plays the most vital role. This may explain why self-assessment has not yet been thoroughly researched. A study was done by Manuputty (2000) who introduced self-assessment in a writing class of Pattimura University to help students learn independently. After the inclusion of self-assessment practice for one semester, the result of the study reflected that students' writing performance was better in the aspect of development and organization. Surprisingly, the aspect of writing convention such as mechanics, which was not taught, improved as well.

The present study on the use of self-assessment was implemented in the writing class for some reasons. Many students in this class find the writing process a stressful and difficult process. They should make thoughts and ideas concrete, which require ability and effort. Upon closer reflection, I realized that

the students relied on my comments on their work as the only source of the information for their writing skill development. However, students seemed to learn only few ideas from these comments about how to refine their work. Furthermore, the focus of asking the students to rewrite their writing products was only to get better score. It means that, as a teacher, I did not promote student-centered learning in my writing class. This is contradictory to some scholars' opinion that encourages teachers to provide opportunities for students to continue learning the language independently (Grow, 1991; Boud, 1995). As Candlin (2001) points out, language learning requires learners "to become independent and to display positive attitudes towards language learning" (p. 232).

Being concerned with the need to foster learners' responsibility in monitoring their language learning development and to lessen the students' dependency on the teacher's comments and corrections, I was motivated to conduct a research on integrating self-assessment practice in the writing. Thus, in this study I investigate the implementation of self-assessment by: (1) describing the students' attitudes towards self-assessment practice in Writing IV Course at STBA LIA Jakarta, and (2) describing how the students can employ the self-assessment checklist to revise their essays. It is expected that such practice can reduce students' over reliance on their teachers and improve their writing performance.

The results of this study are expected to contribute some insights on the implementation of self-assessment for adult learners in writing class. By doing self-assessment, learners are required to be aware of their strengths and weaknesses in their essays. Thus, they can find strategies to improve their writing skills. Finally, self-assessment can be used as a tool to help learners be accustomed to monitoring their own learning and reducing their dependency on teacher's assessment. This activity results in shaping students to be more independent learners.

METHOD

This study used a case study design for some reasons. Firstly, the focus of the study was to understand the L2 teaching and learning process from the perspective of a specific group of learners who share similar contextual conditions. Secondly, this study was to trace the writing skill development of a particular group of learners. Thirdly, no hypothesis with regard to the research questions was to be tested. Finally, the group was not randomly chosen.

Since the primary purposes of this study were to document students' attitudes towards self-assessment practice and to document changes in students' writing performance after using self-assessment checklist, the writer used several kinds of data as the source of information. The data were taken from: (1) two writing tasks: the first draft essays and the second draft essays of both comparison and cause/effect essays; (2) two self-assessment check lists: self-assessment 1 (SA 1) and self-assessment 2 (SA 2); and (3) one questionnaire about the students' attitude towards self-assessment

To find out the students' attitudes towards self-assessment in writing class, students' responses to the statements in the questionnaire were categorized into some aspects: students' previous experience of self-assessment, students' attitudes towards the use of self-assessment, and difficulties students faced in carrying out self-assessment. To examine the extent to which the students employ the self-assessment checklist to revise their essay, I (1) summarize each student's SA for Writing Task 1 and Writing Task 2; (2) identify all revisions or changes students did in final draft of Writing Task 1 and Writing Task 2; (3) categorize the pattern of changes or revisions students did by using a Coding Scheme for Revision which is adapted from Sze (2002, pp. 35-36); (4) summarize the changes found in the final drafts of Writing Task 1 and Writing Task 2 using a table showing the frequency of revisions; and (5) analyze the patterns of changes or revisions.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

The results of the questionnaires showed that most students who never had a chance to do self-assessment in language learning indicated positive attitudes towards the implementation of self-assessment in this context. They believed that the self-assessment practice could help them identify the mistakes they make when writing. They believed that it may enhance their awareness of their learning development; therefore, they would use it for their future needs.

Despite the fact that the students found self-assessment practice useful for learning, they did not feel confident with the way they perceived their own work. Some students admitted that they knew they made some mistakes in writing the essays. However, they did not know how to correct them. They

thought that they were not competent learners, so they did not know whether their language use was appropriate or not.

From all essays collected, I analyzed 18 cause effect essays and 18 argumentative essays. After comparing the first draft and the second draft, the revisions were counted to find out the frequency of each type of revision. The findings showed that there were, in total, 112 revisions that the students had made. They are classified into 5 level changes: surface, lexical, phrase, structural, and content changes. At surface level, there are 27 changes (2 in punctuations, 13 in word correction forms, 9 in substitutions, 1 in spelling, 1 in capitalization, and 1 in pluralization). At lexical level, there are 16 changes (4 in stylistic substitutions and 12 in additions or deletions of single words). At phrasing level, there are 45 changes (30 in syntactic and 15 in structural). At content level, there are 24 changes (20 in adding new material, 4 in deleting material, and no changes in altering idea or argument). Finally, there are no revisions found at structural level. Table 2 shows frequency and percentage of all levels of revisions done by the students in their second draft.

Table 2. Frequency and Percentage of Revisions in the Students' Second Draft

Level	Total Frequency	Percentage
1. Surface	27	24.10 %
2. Lexical	16	14.30 %
3. Phrasing	45	40.18 %
4. Structural	0	0 %
5. Content	24	21.42 %
Total :	112	100 %

Of all the revision changes performed on the two tasks, the most dominant revision is at phrase level (45 revisions). The revisions are divided into syntactic changes and structural changes. Some samples of the revisions are described in the following tables (Table 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9). The changes are typed in bold.

Table 3. Sample of Revisions at Phrase Level (Syntactic Changes)

	Student A (Task 2)
First draft	This article will show you why students who have part time jobs are more advantageous than full-time students in some evidence.

	Student A (Task 2)
Second draft	**There are some reasons** why students **with** part time jobs **have more advantages** than full-time students.

Student A made this syntactic revision in his thesis statement. He deleted and added several words to avoid awkward construction. The revised sentence shows that this student could identify the grammatical errors and correct them. The changes make the thesis statement more effective without changing the meaning.

Table 4. Sample of Revisions at Phrase Level (Structural Changes)

	Student G (Task 1)
First draft	What are consequences that they should be face?
Second draft	**There are many consequences that they should be face.**

Student G formerly wrote a question for her thesis statement. In the second draft, she changed it into a statement. This revision is classified into a structural change. However, she was unable to see the grammatical mistake in the phrase **they should be face** which should read **they should face**.

The second most common revision is at surface level. There are 27 revisions which cover the punctuation, word form correction, spelling, and substitutions.

Table 5. Sample of Revisions at Surface Level (Punctuation Changes)

	Student C (Task1)
First draft	students mind
Second draft	**students'** mind

It was found that only Student C made the punctuation changes. The change was done to correct the use of apostrophe **s** to show possession. He changed **students mind** into **student's mind.**

Table 6. Sample of Revisions at Surface Level (Substitution Changes)

	Student G (Task 2)
First draft	We need to write letters or send them a telegram, which takes time and cost us an amount of money.

	Student G (Task 2)
Second draft	We **had** to write letters or send them a **telex**, which **took** time and cost **a lot.**

Student G substituted some words in the sentence. She changed the verbs in present tense form into past tense form. The words **need** and **takes** are changed into **had** and **took**. He replaced the word a **telegram** with **a telex.**

The changes at content level consist of 24 revisions. The students did 20 changes in adding new material and 4 in deleting the material.

Table 7. Sample of Revisions at Content Level (Adding New Material)

	Student I
First draft	(The sentence below did not appear in the first draft)
Second draft	**To summarize, all of these will not happen if their parents always support their children.**

In the first draft, Student I did not write a concluding sentence but he wrote two sentences which cannot be categorized as concluding paragraph. Then he added a sentence **To summarize, all of these will not happen if their parents always support their children** as an opening sentence in the concluding paragraph.

The last revision is at lexical level. There are 16 revisions at this level which cover stylistic substitutions and additions or deletions of single words.

Table 8. Sample of Revisions at Lexical Level (Stylistic Substitutions)

	Student F
First draft	They will learn how to use their time more efficiently for now they will have to be responsible not only for themselves, but also for the sake of everybody else whom they work with.
Second draft	They will learn how to use their time more efficiently for now they will have to be responsible not only for themselves, **but also for people** whom they work with.

Student F reduced the wordy phrase **but also for the sake of everybody else** into **but also for people.**

Table 9. Sample of Revisions at Lexical Level (Additions or Deletions of Single Words)

	Student F
First draft	Part time work during school also gives students insight to the hard work that a future job will entail.
Second draft	**Doing** part time work during school also gives students insight to the hard work that a future job will entail.

In the first draft, Student F put **Part time work during school** as the subject of the sentence. Then, he revised the subject by adding the word **doing** in front of the sentence.

There was no revision done at the structural level. It means that the students did not find any mistakes in the organization and paragraphing. This may be due to the fact that the outline of the essays was initially discussed in the group. Therefore, all students perceived that they had no problems with their organization and paragraphing.

Discussion

Though the students' initial reactions towards the implementation of self-assessment in writing class were various, the findings indicated that the students who were totally inexperienced in self-assessment gave positive responses to this activity. Most of them appreciated the use of self-assessment checklist as a tool to assist their learning and did not show much resistance to having a new experience which required greater initiative and responsibility for their own learning.

Of all the comments made by the students, the point that self-assessment helps them find mistakes is the one that most students mentioned. However, this is contradictory with their perceptions of difficulties in doing self-assessment. It is discovered that they consider it difficult to identify the mistakes. This may have been caused by their learning experience in the past that they usually relied on their teacher to pinpoint the mistakes in their writing classes. Many were not sure whether they used the correct grammar or chose the appropriate expressions. To check the grammar and vocabulary they referred to grammar book and used computer to check the spelling. They mentioned that they still saw the importance and the need of teacher's feedback to help them assess their essays based on the criteria set in the self-assessment.

Doing self-assessment is found to be difficult for some students. This is in line with Harris (1997, p. 13) who states that self-assessment requires "high-order thinking skills". This may explain the resistance coming from one student who would never use self-assessment in their future work because he believed he would never find mistakes in his writing product. Similar attitude was also revealed in Sert's study (2006, p. 191) among Turkish students who claimed that the person who should undertake the evaluation was the teacher. Some students wrote "How dare I evaluate myself, I am only a student who can be easily mistaken. What are the teachers for if I am supposed to evaluate myself?" in the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the positive responses shown in the study indicate that students were in favor of self-assessment and welcomed its adoption into the writing classroom.

From the analysis of the students' revision on their writings, it is found that no revision was done at the structural level as all students perceived in the self-assessment practices that their organization of their writing products was good. This shows that the self-assessment checklist could only help students assess their essays in lower level (surface, phrase, and lexical). Many ungrammatical sentences remained unchanged, which meant that the self-assessment checklist could not improve students' grammatical accuracy. Even though there were no changes in the organization and paragraphing, it can be seen that some students had problems with paragraph development as many irrelevant sentences were not detected during the self-assessment.

These results regarding the structural level revisions could have been caused by the students' previous writing classroom contexts. Students experienced that teachers focused the feedback on the form. This might have made the students perceive that improvement in their writing mainly concerned surface and phrasal errors and neglected the global errors, such as content, coherence, and organization. Another possible reason could be the students' low grammatical competence and their inadequate knowledge of writing.

This supports the findings in Lam's study (2010). When the students were asked about which aspects of their writing they could further improve, they mentioned that they were to avoid careless grammatical errors and inappropriate sentence structures. This was reflected in their revised writing products. They only made changes at the surface and phrase levels. In short, students' responses implied that even though the notion of self-assessment was a novelty in their learning context, they were not resistant to the implementation of self-assessment in writing class.

The reflection of this study indicates that the inclusion of self-assessment in Writing IV Course which was administered two times was not instantly effective. From the patterns of revisions, it can be seen that the self-assessment practices did not automatically improve the accuracy in the students' second draft essays. It is worth noticing that they still have problems related to structural and grammatical relationship, word choice, mechanics, and proper use of pronouns and verb agreement.

Because the students never had the experience of using self-assessment before, the self-assessment checklist used in the present study which contained open-ended questions may be demanding. As a result, many students only chose the option *Yes* or *No* in the checklist and left the plan for improving each essay empty. They did not seem to have the capacity to reflect on how to monitor their learning process. This may be due to their inadequate knowledge of writing (such as knowledge of rhetorical structure, paragraph development, and coherence) and their low grammatical competence. This can be seen from the document analysis that the students seem to be unable to identify what to master. It is, therefore, unrealistic to expect to use the tools of autonomous learning effectively only in one short period of time.

To yield better revision results, it may be more effective to implement self-assessment practice gradually. In the beginning, teacher could select the focus of what is being assessed in an essay. For example, the first session can start with training students to focus on the organization and paragraphing. Then, students can be guided to assess their grammar accuracy and finally they can be taught to see their choice of words and mechanics. Railton and Watson (2005, p. 192) likewise emphasize the significance of guidance in the autonomous learning process: "autonomous learning is as much a skill as learning to drive - it must be taught, it requires practice, and it is assessed against specific criteria. Unless they are taught, how to take the wheel for themselves, learner students, like learner drivers, may be at risk."

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Conclusions

From the research findings, it can be summed up as follows: (1) None of the students had the experience of doing any kind of self-assessment in formal instruction; (2) All students stated that self-assessment could help them identify

their strengths and weaknesses in their essays; (3) All students agreed that self-assessment could help them reflect on what should be revised; (4) Most of them said that they became aware of the mistakes and tried not to repeat them for the next writing assignments; (5) They claimed that self-assessment was helpful and wanted to do it again for the future needs in other courses. Moreover, from the analysis of the students' revised essays, the dominant revision of all the changes performed on the two writing tasks was at phrase level. The second most common revisions was at surface level, with the content level coming third and lexical level coming fourth. None of them claimed that their essays did not have problems with the organization and paragraphing.

The reflection of this study indicates that the inclusion of self-assessment in Writing IV Course which was administered two times was not instantly effective. From the patterns of revisions, it can be seen that self-assessment practices did not automatically improve the accuracy in the students' second draft essays. It is worth noticing that they still have problems related to structural and grammatical relationship, word choice, mechanics, and proper use of pronouns and verb agreement.

Because the students never had the experience of using self-assessment before, the self-assessment checklist used in the present study which contained open-ended questions may be demanding. As a result, many students only chose the option *Yes* or *No* in the checklist and left the plan for improving each essay empty. They did not seem to have the capacity to reflect on how to monitor their own learning process. This may be due to their inadequate knowledge of writing (such as knowledge of rhetorical structure, paragraph development, and coherence) and their low grammatical competence. This can be seen from the document analysis which shows that the students seem unable to identify what to master. It is, therefore, unrealistic to expect to use the tools of autonomous learning effectively only in one short period of time.

Suggestions

The results from the study suggested some pedagogical implications for teachers. First, teachers could introduce the inclusion of self-assessment activity in the earlier Writing Class to familiarize students with self-assessment because it is an on-going process. It takes time and efforts to establish an environment that encourages self-assessment which cultivates independent writers. When the students have been accustomed to using self-assessment to control

their writing development at the early stages, they might be more capable of identifying problems and improving their essay better. Second, much more extensive research is needed to train students to evaluate their writing products. The descriptors written in self-assessment checklist should be specific enough to help students pay more attention to linguistic accuracy, and the development in content and organization. Further research should also be conducted in a longer period of time, so the students could feel more comfortable with doing self assessment. This habit could make them aware that self-assessment practice is an essential part of their learning process. In addition, more detailed reflection may be revealed if students used Indonesian language as a medium for them to write their responses in self-assessment checklist. It may also be helpful to interview the students to clarify the vague answers found in the self-assessment.

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CULTIVATING PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT SKILLS THROUGH TEACHING PRACTICUM: A REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

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Abstract: Classroom management is commonly believed to be the key to the success of an instruction. Many student teachers, however, might find it very challenging to handle their classrooms. It is, therefore, necessary to advance their professional practice in the context of a real classroom such as through teaching practicum and reflective practice. This study is aimed at identifying classroom management problems of student-teachers as revealed in their reflective journal entries and to demonstrate how such journal can help them develop their classroom management skills. The participants were 10 student-teachers of the English Department, Satya Wacana Christian University, Salatiga, Central Java, who underwent their teaching practicum at SMP 2 Salatiga. Through the participants' journals, it was found that the problems lie in managing critical moments, activity, techniques, grouping and seating, authority, tools, and working with people. Further in this study, both pre- and in-service tertiary teachers, curriculum designers, and policy makers will be taken to deeply examine how reflective practice can help cultivate the pre-service's classroom management skills and to consider the implication for pedagogical practices and innovations in curriculum development.

Keywords: classroom management, reflective journal, and pre-service teachers

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/117-128

As a lecturer at the English Teacher Education Program, I regularly supervise students doing their teaching practicum in our neighboring high schools. During the supervision, they often share their teaching experiences. I remember some of them told me these problems, ”Ma’am, did you happen to notice the students at the very back row? He was very quiet and did not want to mingle with other students. I am confused what to do with him.” Another story is like this, “Ohhh, my teaching today was terrible Ma’am. I even could not finish the main activity.” As a response, I shared similar experience of mine or discussed the problem together. However, at that time, I failed to realize that those kinds of experience can be problematical and even critical for many student-teachers until I read the paper of Arends (2012); Goh and Matthews (2011); and Monroe, Blackwell, and Pepper (2010). Those journal articles mentioned that such complexities in establishing and managing a classroom have been reported by a lot of pre-service student-teachers to be the most difficult and worrisome aspect of their first years of teaching. This situation has motivated me to explore more about it and to help them improve their skills in managing a classroom since it is considered “the key to the whole success of a course” (Scrivener, 2005, p.79).

Scrivener (2005) classified teacher’s classroom management into six areas. The first one is *grouping and seating*. It may consist of teacher’s action in forming groupings (singles, pairs, groups, mingle, plenary), reforming class as a whole group after activities, arranging and rearranging seating, and in deciding where they stand or sit. The second one is *managing activities and giving instructions*. It varies from preparing and sequencing activities, setting up activities, running a single classroom activities or tasks, monitoring activities, timing activities (and the lesson as a whole), until bringing activities to an end. The third area deals with *managing authority*. It involves gathering and holding attention, deciding who does what, establishing and giving up authority as appropriate, and getting someone to do something.

The fourth area is *managing critical moments*. It concerns unexpected problems and maintaining appropriate discipline. Harmer (2001) gives more specific examples of problem behavior like disruptive talking, inaudible responses, sleeping in class, tardiness and poor attendance, failure to do homework, cheating in test and unwillingness to speak in the target language. The fifth area is *managing tools and techniques*. Tools contend with variety of teaching aids used to explain language meaning and construction, or to engage students in a topic, such as, the overhead projectors, the board, bits and pieces

(photography of our family, letters, or even a pet), realia, language cards, Cuisenaire rods, the language laboratory (VCD, microphone, TV), and the internet. As for *techniques*, Scrivener (2005) defined it as teacher's techniques of teaching such as using gestures and facial expressions to help make instructions and explanations clearer, speaking clearly at an appropriate volume and speed, using silence, grading complexity of language, and grading quantity of language. The last area is *working with people*. It deals with eliciting/drawing out information, language, ideas, honest feedback, etc. from students; using intuition to guess/judge what students are feeling, spreading attention clearly and appropriately, and really listening to students.

In response to the beginning teachers' problems in managing a classroom and to the importance of classroom management, Monroe et al. suggested that teacher preparation programs and their school partners work collaboratively to provide pre-service teachers with knowledge of classroom management and opportunities for guided practice, and for implementing both preventive and behavior management strategies (2010). The opportunity can be obtained through teaching practicum.

Teaching practicum, often used interchangeably with teaching practice, is aimed at providing opportunities to the trainee [in this case the pre-service teacher] to build up and to advance her/his professional practice in the context of a real classroom, usually under some kinds of guidance or supervision (Wallace, 1991).

With regard to teaching practicum as a professional preparation, Wallace (ibid) categorized it into three models: the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. The first refers to studying with the 'master'. It means that the novice trainee learns by doing what the expert practitioner has told her/him to do and imitating what the expert has showed him to do. The second refers to applying science knowledge. In this case, the expert shows the finding of science knowledge or experiment to the trainee. The trainee then will decide how to apply it in their teaching. The third model, reflective model, comes from the idea that a teacher should have had both received knowledge (the vocabulary of the subject, research findings, skills) and experiential knowledge (professional ongoing experience) because those knowledge will underlie the practice of everyday teaching. Most importantly, reflection is done as a response to their teaching. This reflection, is believed to facilitate the teacher to gain their professional competence.

My own opinion is in line with the reflective model for a professional preparation because in that kind of preparation, like teaching practicum, an individual teacher is encouraged to observe, to think over and to examine their teaching, to connect the knowledge obtained to the on-going teaching practice. By so doing, the teacher will be more alert and thoughtful on what happens to her/his teaching and possibly find the solution of and/ or strategy to cope with the teaching problems through examining the patterns of problems and practice appeared. In this way, reflective model can pave the way for an individual teacher to develop his/her professional growth.

Reflective approach in English teaching and learning is applied "when teachers and student-teachers collect data about their teaching, to examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 1). This clearly entails a series of process, starting from gathering data on teaching episodes, examining some concerns on teaching and learning, and reflecting on them for better practice. Ghaye (2011) urged that such a process is believed to be valuable because it can develop new insights and understandings that can be helpful for our teaching improvement .

To accommodate such reflective thinking above, reflective journal has been widely promoted. As defined by Richards and Lockhart (1996), reflective journal is "a teacher's or a student teacher's written response to teaching events" (p. 7). Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 68) define it more elaborately as "an ongoing written account of observation, reflection, and other thoughts about teaching". The definition clearly tells us that reflective journal is not only a written document but also recollection, examination, evaluation, and thoughts on some aspects of teaching. Such a journal can work well for facilitating an individual teacher to question, explore, and analyze his/her way of teaching such as his beliefs and teaching practices. Furthermore, it can also be used to monitor teaching and to interact with peers and supervisors. In this case, the peer or supervisor can read the journal and give suggestions and/or a way out to the problems experienced in teaching.

Due to such benefits of reflective journal for teacher's professionalism growth, many studies have been conducted to explore the use of refective journals in the teaching and learning process. Clarke (2004) analyzed the reflective journal entries of student-teachers doing an internship program in one university in Sydney and categorized the entries into Dietz model of Professional learning (exploration, organization, connection, and reflection).

The results showed that in each phase, the student-teachers were concerned with different problems. In the exploration and organization phase, their concerns include how to plan a lesson, handle administrative things, and manage the classroom while in the connection and reflection phase, and they are concerned with their teaching. In addition, Subramanian (1997) conducted a study in a teacher's college in Malaysia investigating the teacher trainees' reflection focus in their reflective journal entries. The results demonstrated that one of their reflection focuses deal with teaching objectives, teaching techniques and method, activity and classroom management. Another study in Malaysia done by Goh and Matthews (2011) also investigated the student-teachers' concerns during their teaching practice. Through their reflective journals, problems in classroom management, institutional and personal adjustment, classroom teaching, and student learning were identified.

It is evident from the journal entries used in the above previous studies that classroom management has become one of the main concerns for many pre-service teachers. However, a study solely focused on how reflectice journal can reveal the pre-service teacher's problems in managing a classroom seems scarcely to be found. This study, therefore, attempts to look into the pre-service teachers' problems in managing a classroom as stated in their reflective journal entries and how such reflective journal practice can help build their classroom management skills.

METHOD

The subjects in this study were ten (10) student teachers who enrolled in the final year of their bachelor degree program at the Faculty of English Language and Literature, majoring in English Language Teaching, at Satya Wacana Christian University, Salatiga, Indonesia.

The context of the study was at SMPN 2 (State Junior High School 2), Salatiga, Indonesia, where the subjects did their teaching practicum for three months and underwent a six-time-teaching for grade seven, eight, and nine spread over the three-month period. During their teaching practicum, they were under the supervision of three (3) mentor-teachers from the school and a teacher-supervisor from the university.

The source of data was the student-teachers' journals. Throughout their teaching practicum, they were required to write a narrative journal every time

they finish teaching. Therefore, there were sixty (60) journal entries to be analyzed.

The data were collected through the following steps. First, the subjects were required to write a journal and to submit it soon after they finished teaching. Secondly, after all journals were collected, the data were analyzed. It was done by scrutinizing problems related to classroom management which appeared in the journal and then classifying them into the areas of classroom management. The third step is analyzing student-teachers' reflection to see how they dealt with their classroom management problems and how their reflection could help them improve their classroom management skills.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section discusses the findings to answer the research questions on the student-teachers' classroom management problems revealed in their reflective journal entries and how the reflective journal practice help build their classroom management skills.

The Student-Teachers' Classroom Management Problems Revealed in Their Reflective Journal Entries

Figure 1 illustrates the student-teachers' problems in managing a classroom within seven areas of classroom management. i.e. critical moment, techniques, activity, grouping ad seating, authority, tools and working with people.

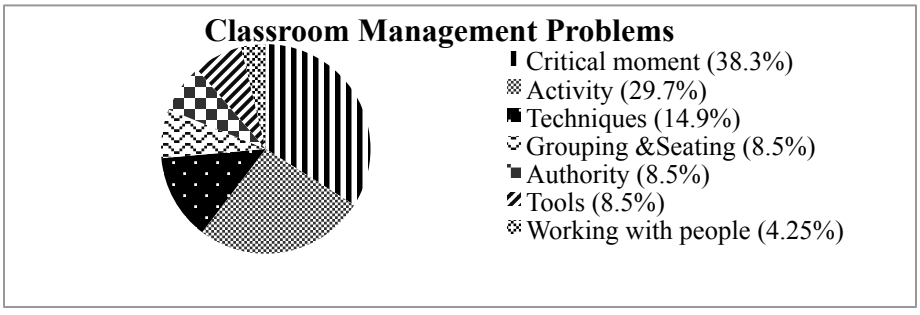

Figure 1. Student-Teachers' Classroom Management Problems Revealed in Their Journal Entries

The finding reveals that the student teachers' problems in managing a classroom based on the order of occurrence is managing *critical moments* (38,3%), *activity* (29,7%), *techniques* (14,9%), *grouping and seating* (8,5%), *authority* (8,5%), *tools* (8,5%), and *working with people* (4,25%).

From the participants' journal entries, it is revealed that the problems frequently occurred in managing critical moments are handling student's noise and silence. In managing activities, the most difficulties took place in timing activities, making activities run smoothly, and developing classroom activities that meet certain expectation such as enjoyable and fun. In terms of techniques, the hard things to manage were using language and speech rate when explaining materials. In grouping and seating, the obstacle was in technicality of grouping. As for performing an authority, they commonly got confused to decide what to do when the students were doing class activities, and when the students did not want to do their instructions. The next problem is managing tools. For example, the laptop and the video player did not work well and the students could not read their writing on the board because of their unclear writing. As for problems in the area of working with people, the use of intuition was the main challenge for them. It was not easy for them to decide what to do when facing unpredictable situations.

How Reflective Journals Help the Students-Teachers Improve Their Classroom Management Skills

In attempts to look into the reflective practice on classroom management problems, we can refer to the scheme proposed by Scrivener (2005) and Ghaye (2011). The scheme consists of three stages. The first is to examine classroom events. The second is to identify the teacher's concerns or problems related to managing a classroom. The third is to see how the teacher may come up with strategies to cope with the problems until finally choose the best option for better teaching. A particular improvement can be seen after examining the series of process. By refering to the scheme, this section is aimed at illustrating how reflective practice can help the student-teachers improve their classroom management skills. For the sake of efficiency, only the top three of the findings will be discussed. The journal entries used as the supporting evidence were quoted verbatim.

The Student-Teachers' Problems in Managing Critical Moments

As revealed in the findings, one of the problems in this area is handling student's noise. From the reflective journals collected, we can see how participant 2, for example, looked back at her teaching and identified problems with noisy students. As stated in journal entry 1, she found the students boisterous when she explained the rule of the game. It happened again in her next lesson even though she had given engaging materials.

> …They were getting noisy, when I explained the rules of the game. I warned noisy students to be quiet…[*sic*] (participant 2, journal entry 1).
> I found out that the class is noisy. Some students kept busy with their own business even though I had attractive materials for them. I didn't remember how many times I reminded certain students to pay attention and listen to their friends' performance, but those certain students kept busy until the class almost over [*sic*] (participant 2, journal entry 3).

In response to the problems, the participant told the students to be silent. This strategy seemed to be done many times but failed to make them quiet. After a number of meetings, the issue seemed to be resolved as reflected in the following excerpt of her reflective journal.

> …. Looking at how I have managed the classroom, I learn about to be patient and calm to deal with various kinds of students. Specifically, I have understood what I should do in dealing with passive and active students and noisy classroom as well. Besides, personally it gives me maturity to detain my temper in dealing the annoying and noisy students. [*sic*] (participant 2, journal entry 6).

Quite surprisingly, this participant chose to be calm and patient in handling the noise, a strategy which was totally different from the previous one and turned out to be sucessful.

Practically, dealing with students who do not want to stop talking and to listen to the teacher is not an easy thing and said to be one of the frequent and worrisome problems in managing a classroom (Sakui, 2007; Goh & Matthews, 2011). However, from the reflective journal entries above, we can see how this participant succed in handling the problem. As evident, she keeps on reflecting on her teaching to examine and evaluate her ways to manage noisy students by warning, and ordering them to be quiet until ultimately she realizes that

keeping herself calm and patient work better than the previous ways. In fact, this strategy is successful. In conclusion, through such a reflection this participant gain improvement in managing a classroom.

The Student-Teachers' Problems in Managing Activities

Another concern in managing classroom activities frequently found in the journals is to develop classroom activities into fun and enjoyable activities, which coincides with the expectation that most learners have regarding their classes. A study conducted by Liando on 126 English Department students in one university in Manado (2010), for example, found that 96% of the participants expected their teachers to be able to make the course interesting. The participants of the study, however, found this aspect to be challenging as revealed in the following excerpts from one participant.

> I found a little confusion to arrange the lesson plan, to make a cool and interesting or fun activities or ways to explain simple present tense… [*sic*] (participant 4, journal entry 1).
> Teaching structure actually a little bit hard for me; because I am not that creative to make many fun class activities to help students understand the material easily [*sic*] (participant 4, journal entry 2).

The above reflection demonstrates the participant's perplexed feelings in preparing a lesson plan, especially in designing fun activities. She really wanted to create fun classroom activities to make the students understand the material easily but she did not think she could. Yet she managed to make a series of efforts to design fun classroom activities as illustrated from the summary of her journal entries in the following paragraph.

Firstly, when she taught *descriptive text*, as stated in her journal entry 2, she tried to grab her students' attention by discussing an Indonesian famous comedian, Sule. In her opinion, it worked well but unfortunately, she did not use pictures to visualize the figure. From this reflection, therefore, she thought that improvement was needed. Subsequently, in her next teaching, as reflected in journal entry 3, she came up with the picture of someone that the students know well. She found it more attractive to the students especially because this was closely related to their life or environment. She continued developing her teaching creativity by making use of power point. In her journal entry 4, she re-

flected on the use of power point and found it helpful for the teaching and learning process. Only that she learned how the picture and animation in the power point could distract the students' attention. Furthermore, as a last effort for making the lesson enjoyable, she provided a video about likes and dislikes in English. As revealed in her journal entry 5, she learned good things from using videos such as promoting fun learning and enhancing students' participation and speaking skill.

In short, from the reflective practice of Participant 4, we can see how she enhances the way she manages classroom activities. It is evident that after reflecting on her weakness in desingning engaging activites, this participant tried to find and explore an interesting topic, such as, an Indonesian comedian. After that, she, again, examined the shortcoming of the activity and tried to make it more engaging, that is, by using pictures. She did the reflection and improvement repeatedly until she finally learns that pictures, power point, video and things closely related to the students can be used to create fun learning activities. In this case, her ability in managing classroom activities is developed.

The Student-Teachers' Problems in Managing Teaching Techniques

The common classroom management problems in teaching techniques deal with language use and speech rate. This finding is indeed pivotal to see since speech rate has become a significant part of teacher talk that contributes to intelligibility (Hall, 2002). Therefore, it will be useful to look at how a student-teacher reflect on his problem with rate of speech until he finally gains a better skill in dealing with the classroom management problem:

> Another thing I need to improve is on the way I communicate because I think sometimes I speak too fast so that the students maybe do not really understand with my explanation (Participant 5, journal entry 1).

From the reflective journal, Participant 5 realized that he had a tendency to speak fast. Furthermore, he was concerned that his fast rate of speech might make his explanation unclear. The participant's supposition was in line with what Ragawanti (2007) found through her research on a group of EFL learners in Indonesia, that teacher's rapid explanation in a teacher talk can make students confused and difficult to internalize the input. This concern then made

the participant reflected on his teaching, with regard to the issue, a number of times.

> However, there is still some basic problems that I need to pay attention on, such as, the communication skills, …still, I need to improve on the way I communicate because I think I still speak too fast so that the students maybe do not really understand with my explanation [*sic*] (Participant 5, journal entry 4).
> Besides, I also felt that I could communicate and interact with the class better….. [*sic*] (Participant 5, journal entry 5).

As stated in journal entry 4, he examined his good progress on this but his mentor teacher still found that he sometimes spoke too fast when explaining. To follow up his reflection, he tried to improve his speech rate, and as seen in journal entry 5, he at last found his skill to manage his speech rate improved.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The findings and discussion in the previous section show that managing a classroom can put some challenges to the student-teachers which, in particular, concern handling students' disruptive behaviors, classroom activities, teaching techniques, and tools. As the implication for pedagogical practices, the teachers and/or syllabus designers need to give more knowledge about and practices in managing a classroom. The other point revealed from the finding is the effectiveness of reflective journal practice in helping the student-teachers examine the episodes of their teaching, find the pattern of the problems, and decide what to do to cope with the problems. By so doing the student-teachers' skills in managing a classroom get improved. The proposition for pedagogical practices is for teachers and/or syllabus designers to put emphasis on reflective practice in as many courses as possible. Accordingly, many more aspects or problems in teaching and learning can be found or improved.

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