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ARIFAH MARDININGRUM

The Role of Teacher And Peer in Helping the
Students Orally Participate in An EFL Classroom
TRIUBAIDA MAYA ARDIANTI

Challenges in Teaching English Faced by English
Teachers at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia
AISYAH MUMARY SONGBATUMIS

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1-10

Closing Diphthongs among Javanese Learners of English

ABSTRACT

This paper describes adult acquisition of L2 English diphthongs among Javanese learners of English. The objectives of this study are concerned with whether vowels are more or less diphthongal by measuring the change of first formant (F1) and speech duration to examine the influence of Javanese (L1) phonetic system on the acquisition of English as a second language. The acoustical analysis was conducted by comparing the formant frequencies and duration of L2 with the corresponding diphthongs by native speakers of English (NE). The purpose was to test the hypothesis that difficulty in acquiring an L2 contrastive category is related to the role in the L1 of the phonetic feature upon which the L2 category is based. Although F1 values of L2 differed in the start point of closing diphthongs, there was only one closing diphthong /QŠ/ produced by L2 which was statistically different from L1 based on the F1 changes. Surprisingly, the diphthong /Tj/ showed an increase F1 value instead of decrease which means that the Javanese production was more open. The result in duration showed that there were crucial differences in diphthongal duration produced by Javanese learners of English. Javanese tended to lengthen the diphthongal words.

Keywords: diphthong, experimental phonetics, second language acquisition

INTRODUCTION

In English as second language (ESL) teaching, learners of English particularly adult learners, frequently make mistakes even failure in producing native like pronunciation because their L1 highly influences L2 production. Admittedly, as a speaker of a language gets older, mother tongue interference cannot simply be

dislodged. Adults tend to stabilize their language learning at a certain stage. Ellis (1994, p.09) stated that learner speech was 'structurally organized' in the sense that it constituted a system in its own right. This process called fossilization; when a sound in L2 consistently replaced with a sound which is phonetically close to L1. Thus, the speech production in L2 is different from the similar speech produced by a native speaker. Selinker (1972) also noted that relatively few adult learners reach native-speaker competence. Contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) proposed by Lado (1957, p.2) was also based on the assumption that people who comes into contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to their native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.

Likewise, Javanese learners of English frequently have difficulties with uncommon English vowel system because there are dissimilarities in articulating vowel sounds of these two sound systems. In L2 learning, the level of difficulty experienced by the learner will be directly related to the degree of linguistic difference between L1 and L2. Difficulties will manifest themselves in errors; the greater the difficulty, the more frequent the errors (Ellis, 1994, p.308). Similarly, the difference between English and Javanese vowel system could be a barrier for Javanese learners of English who want to sound more native-like.

Javanese and English have vast differences in vowel system particularly diphthongs. Javanese phonology includes 8 vowel phonemes: 6 phonemes and 2 allophonic pairs (Uhlenbeck, 1963). An Indonesian linguist, Marsono (1999, pp.55-58), reported 10 vowels (including allophonic variants) and

5 diphthongs in Javanese. English, on the other hand, has a large number of diphthongal sounds which consist of a movement or glide from one vowel to another. One of the most common pronunciation mistakes that result in a learner of English having a "foreign" accent is the production of pure vowels where a diphthong should be pronounced (Roach, 1998, p.18).

Each vowel including diphthong has a unique structure of formant frequency which indicates the quality of the vowel. Formants have long been known as suited parameters for describing vowel production due to its correlation with traditional articulatory transcription of vowel (Hawkins & Midgley, 2005). The relationship between F1 and F2 determines the acoustic quality of the vocoid articulations. The longer the cavity, the lower F1 will be; the shorter it is, the higher F1 will be. This correlates with tongue-height; the pharyngeal tube continues into the mouth and is narrowed in varying degrees by the movement up and down of the tongue. Similarly, F2 correlates with the length of the oral cavity in terms of frontness and backness of the tongue body. The longer the front cavity, the lower F2 will be (= back vowels); the shorter it is, the higher F2 will be (= front vowels)(Lodge, 2009, pp. 190-199).

Thus, formant frequencies can be used to measure the accuracy of vowel production. Nevertheless, in Indonesia, English pronunciation instruction mainly focuses on audio-lingual approach such as minimal pair drills and articulatory descriptions. Correction and analysis of students' production generally depends on the teachers' listening judgment. In fact, one of the accurate ways to discern the differences would be based on acoustic analysis. Therefore, this research attempts to investigate

L2 production in English pronunciation especially diphthongs by examining the acoustic difference between L2 diphthongs and native speakers (NE) diphthongs.

This study investigates pronunciation of L2 diphthongs and attempts to answer two questions (1) to what extent is the pronunciation of L2 diphthongs different from the corresponding diphthong in NE? (2) is there any difference in speech duration between L2 and NE.

PREVIOUS STUDIES

The previous studies on L2 speech production in Indonesia have scarcely been done and mainly based on auditory judgment and experience of teachers or researchers in teaching practice. Many scholars have described the characteristics of English pronunciation produced by Javanese learners. Nonetheless, studies about Javanese learners of English particularly in acoustical phonetics have rarely been conducted by Javanese or Indonesian linguists. In Indonesia, studies about non-native pronunciation are mainly based on phonological interpretation such as minimal pairs and listening judgment. There are only few researches related to the study.

Perwitasari (2015) writes about vowel durations in English as a second language among Javanese Learners. She finds that Javanese Learners of English seemed unaware of long and short duration of English vowels. Another Indonesian researcher, Widagsa (2015) found that Indonesian learners of English are strongly influenced by their mother tongue. Indonesian learners of English make a good impression only when the vowels in English are similar to Indonesian. It is proven by formant frequencies which are in common.

In Singapore, Deterding (2007) conducted a research related to speech production measuring Singaporean English (SE) Diphthongs. He outlined the distinctive characteristics among the Singaporean speakers of English compared with RP. He found that Singaporean speakers are less diphthongal than the corresponding vowels in standard British English. The use of a relatively monophthongal realization of the diphthongs by Singaporeans might be regarded as a distinctive characteristic of the local speech. Different results came from Tsukada (2008) who found that the production of English diphthongs by Thai learners of English were much closer to NE. Further, their production of the diphthongs might have been related to a large number of diphthongs in the Thai vowel inventory, which might have encouraged its speakers to substitute existing L1 categories for the English diphthongs rather than forming authentic new phonetic categories.

According to the previous explanation, in Indonesia, research related to acoustical phonetics especially in diphthongs of English as a second language have rarely been done. English diphthong of Javanese learners is an interesting topic to study for researchers. Thus, it can be said that this research is relatively new and needs to be conducted. This research will give novel contribution to ELT and other second language learning in Indonesia particularly in local language interference such as Javanese.

ENGLISH CLOSING DIPHTHONGS

Most varieties of English have several diphthongs. The most obvious diphthongs are the vowels of choice, mouth and price in most standard varieties of English. These diphthongs start with open vowels and then rise to close vowels, gener-

ally in the area of [i] or [u]. These are called closing diphthongs for this reason. Diphthongs are transcribed by the start and end points. For example, the vowel of choice is transcribed in RP as [Ti]: it starts with [T] and ends with [i]. Ogden (2009, pp.70-71) reports eight diphthongs in British English RP and divides in two main types; RP closing diphthongs and RP centering diphthongs.

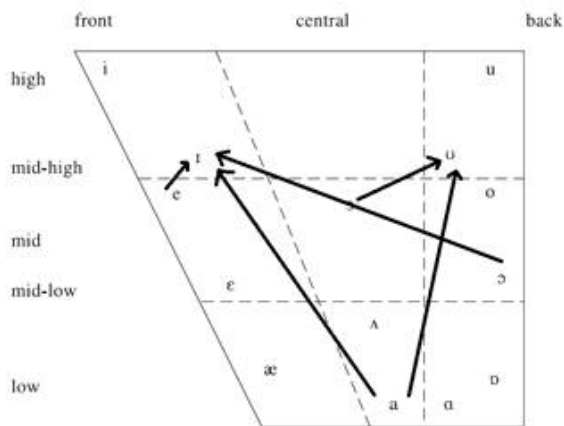


FIGURE 1: CLOSING DIPHTHONGS

JAVANESE DIPHTHONGS

Javanese, one of the most widely spoken languages in Indonesia, is a mother tongue of more than 75 million people (Crystal, 1997; Edi, et al., 2007). It is spoken mainly in Central Java and East Java. Javanese includes 8 vowel phonemes: 6 phonemes and 2 additional allophonic pairs [e] - [â] and [o] - [ɔ]. More recent studies confirm that Javanese vowels are grouped into 6 phonemes, including 4 allophonic pairs [i] - [I], [u] - [Ū], [e] - [â], and [o] - [ɔ]. The allophones of each vowel frequently occur in closed syllables. The standard Javanese of central Java is typically characterized as having six vowel phonemes. In the six vowels system, which appears to characterize the speech of our consultants, [â] and [ɔ] are in complementary distribution with [e] and [o], respectively.

Related to diphthongal vowels, Marsono (1999, pp. 54-58) claimed that Javanese has at least 5 diphthongs, one rising diphthong [ui] as in the words *uijo* 'extremely green', *cuilik* 'very small', *uireng* 'totally black' and the others are falling diphthongs.

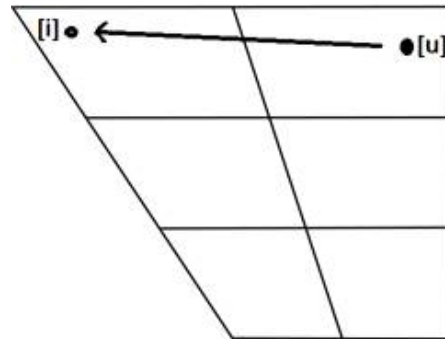


FIGURE 2: RISING DIPHTHONG IN JAVANESE

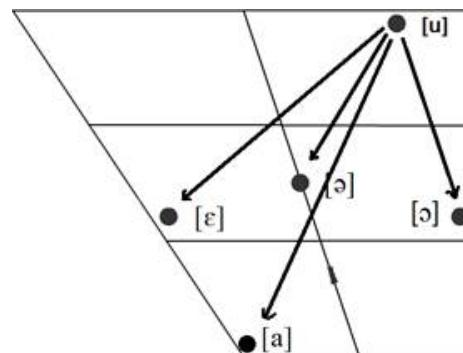


FIGURE 3: FALLING DIPHTHONGS IN JAVANESE

Marsono mentioned four falling diphthongs, they are:

- 1) Falling low open front [ua] as in *muarem* 'very satisfied', *uadoh* 'far away', *uanteng* 'very calm'.
- 2) Falling low open front [uɪ] as in *ngueyel* 'stubborn'
- 3) Falling low open back [uɔ] as in *luara* 'really painful' *duawa* 'very long'
- (4) Falling low open central [uY] as in *guedhe* 'enormous' *luemu* 'very fat'

However, these diphthongs only exist in east Java

and some of north east part of Central Java. The diphthongization in east Java is only used to exaggerate something.

METHOD

SUBJECTS

This experimental research involves five female subjects who were native speakers of Javanese aged 17-23. They used mainly Javanese in daily communication and lived in Yogyakarta. In addition, they had never been to English speaking countries. The subjects were all students of English Department of Universitas PGRI Yogyakarta (PBI-UPY) and all subjects had been studying English for at least 3 years. To ease the training process, the subjects were informed that the recording of their voice would be used for educational and experimental purposes. The audio data of English native speakers were taken from text-to-speech softwares.

STIMULI

All subjects produced a set of target words. The target words comprised eight diphthongal words such as *pay, five, home, now, join, near, hair, pure* which were inserted in a carrier sentence "*I say (diphthongal words) again*". During the recording, subjects repeated the sentence twice. The particular fillers or lexical sets were chosen to distract speakers' attention from the experimental words in order to encourage natural pronunciation.

RECORDING PROCEDURE

Before the recording process began, first, each subject completed a consent form, a brief questionnaire, which provided information about the subjects' native language and second language background. Second, subjects received a short introduction monologue which contained words

simulated for the recording. In order to get accustomed to the target stimuli, they were given time to read and practice.

Subjects were familiarized with the experiment and the procedures of recording. Each subject took a seat in front of a computer screen with active mode recording tools (audio recorders, and microphone). Once the stimuli appeared on the screen, subjects started to produce the sentences. The stimuli are presented in random order. Speech production were recorded in a sound-attenuated room and stored on a computer. Audio recording is treated confidentially and used for acoustic analysis. Last, the recorded speech sounds were annotated and segmented.

The recordings were made with ASUS X200MA notebook and a microphone placed at the distance of about 10 cm from the subjects' mouths. The subjects were recorded one by one in order to ease the analysis. This process took place in the language laboratory of Universitas PGRI Yogyakarta.

ACOUSTIC MEASUREMENT

Closing diphthongs are sounds which the vowel quality changes from relatively open position to a more closing position during the course of the vowel (Deterding, 2007). As the vowel quality is becoming less open, the F1 at the start point is expected to be different from the end point. The decrease of F1 would be an indication of how diphthongal the sounds are.

The recordings were analyzed using PRAAT 5.3.51. The software allows some features such as tracing the formant frequencies, choosing time point, and drawing waveform and spectrogram display.

TABLE 1: THE FORMANT FREQUENCIES AND DURATION OF L2

SYMBOL	MEAN				DURATION (SECOND)
	F1 START (HZ)	F1 END (HZ)	F2 START (HZ)	F2 END (HZ)	
eɪ	621,8	552,8	1374,4	2331	0,32394
ʌɪ	838,4	592,8	1138,8	1483,2	0,26866
əʊ	598	577,4	1119,2	987,6	0,3082
ɑʊ	793,8	539,2	1469,6	1093,4	0,35274
ɔɪ	600	490,6	1748	1946,4	0,3926

TABLE 2: THE FORMANT FREQUENCIES AND DURATION OF L1

SYMBOL	MEAN				DURATION (SECOND)
	F1 START (HZ)	F1 END (HZ)	F2 START (HZ)	F2 END (HZ)	
eɪ	542,6	421	2228,2	2318	0,22104
ʌɪ	890,4	802	1500,6	2006,4	0,28364
əʊ	629,6	445,4	1284,8	1175,6	0,2707
ɑʊ	663,6	626,6	1597,8	1222	0,2567
ɔɪ	403	503,2	1536,8	2305	0,27942

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

To measure a difference between the production of L2 diphthongs and L1 English, this research conducted statistical analysis. An independent t-test for the groups was applied to test whether frequencies and speech duration was significantly different between groups.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

FORMANT FREQUENCIES

Diphthongs are the monosyllabic vowels which have two discernibly different points, one at the start and one at the end. Therefore, the soundwave data from the respondents are carefully analysed by defining the two target points. The first target is the starting point (vowel start) and the second is the ending point (vowel end). In measuring diphthongs, the vowel quality of vowel starts and vowel ends must be measured then both vowel qualities

will be plotted in a vowel chart in order to figure out the movement of the vowels.

The complete result of the the acoustic measurement of L2 and L1 English closing diphthongs is shown in the Appendix. Table 1 describes the mean of formant frequencies of English closing diphthongs and duration by Javanese Learners and Table 2 shows the mean of formant frequencies and duration of L1 English closing diphthongs

Based on the start points, several of the English closing diphthongs produced by Javanese learners of English were nearly identical to NE in regard to vowel height. To ease the comparison, the numerical data are plotted to bar chart.

The following bar chart illustrates the comparison of F1 value of English L2 and NE. Figure 4 demonstrates the start points of F1 while Figure 5 shows the end point fo F1.

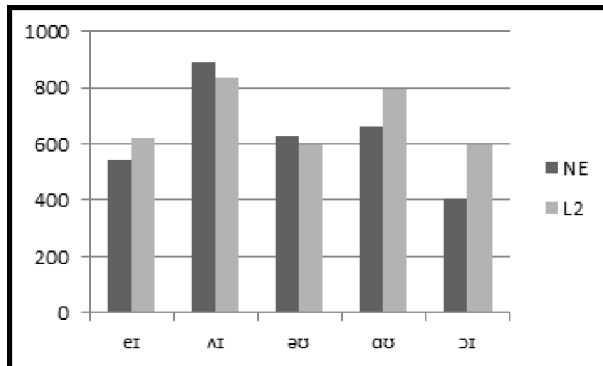


FIGURE 4: COMPARISON OF F1 STARTS OF NE AND ENGLISH L2.

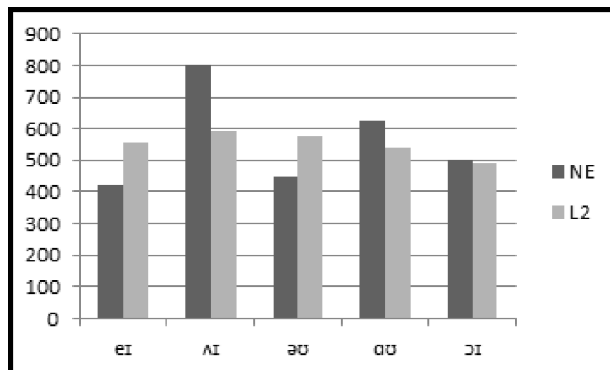


FIGURE 5: COMPARISON OF F1 ENDS OF NE AND ENGLISH L2.

It can easily be noticed from the previous tables and figures that the most similar result emerged in the pronunciation of /ɔɪ/ (F1 start NE 629,6 Hz and F1 start English L2 598 Hz). On the other hand, the most distinctive diphthong produced by English L2 was /ɔɪ/ (F1 start NE 403 Hz and F1 start English L2 600 Hz).

Unlike the start points, the average F1 value of diphthong /ɔɪ/ was close to the NE production (F1 end English L2 490,6 Hz and F1 end NE 503,2 Hz). Even so, the most disparate F1 end value was /æɪ/ with 592,8 Hz for English L2 and 802 Hz for NE.

To observe the decrease and increase of F1 value of English L2, the changes of F1 are presented in the following chart.

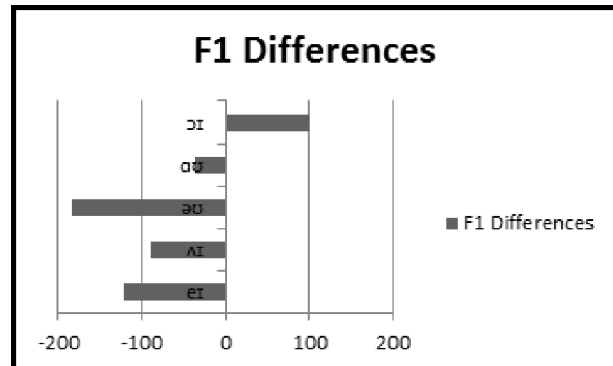


FIGURE 6: F1 CHANGES OF ENGLISH L2

Figure 6 demonstrates the decrease and increase of F1 value in closing diphthongs. The decreasing values are shown by the left bars. The right bar indicates the increase of F1 value. It can easily be spotted that there is a right bar for the sound /ɔɪ/ which indicates the significant difference among the diphthongal productions. The F1 value in the sound /ɔɪ/ surprisingly increased instead of decreasing. It simply puts that English L2 tends to widely open the mouth at the end of the diphthong when they pronounced the sound /ɔɪ/.

STATISTICAL RESULT

Closing diphthongs in English are /ej/, /æj/, /ɔɪ/, /əʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ɔɪ/ and expected to have decrease in F1. In general, the English closing diphthongs produced by English L2 were pronounced near NE in regard to the vowel height. In addition, the statistical analysis also confirms similar result. The following table shows the statistical analysis employed in this experiment.

Table 2. indicates that there is only one diphthong produced by L2 which is statistically different from L1. The result of the measurement of /ɔɪ/ is higher ($t(8)=1,995$, [mean= -254,6], [SD=212,232]) than t table which is 1.86.

TABLE 3: F1 CHANGE OF L1 AND L2

WORDS	GROUP	MEAN	SD	Df	T
eɪ	L2	-69	125,3	8	0,878
	L1	-121,6	47,56		
aɪ	L2	-245,6	87,331	8	1,212
	L1	-88,4	276,517		
əʊ	L2	-20,6	202,311	8	1,163
	L1	-184,2	240,86		
aʊ	L2	-254,6	120,13	8	1,995
	L1	-37	212,232		
ɔɪ	L2	-109,4	76,4087	8	-2,501
	L1	100,2	171,111		

*t label = 1.86

VOWEL CHART

In this case, since quadrilateral vowel chart requires the frequency of both formants (F1 and F2), the F2 is used to plot the numerical data Bark Scale. Thus, the numerical data are then plotted in a vowel chart (Bark Scale) to figure out how diphthongal they are. The following figure is the Bark Scale of average formant changes by respondents in producing English closing diphthongs.

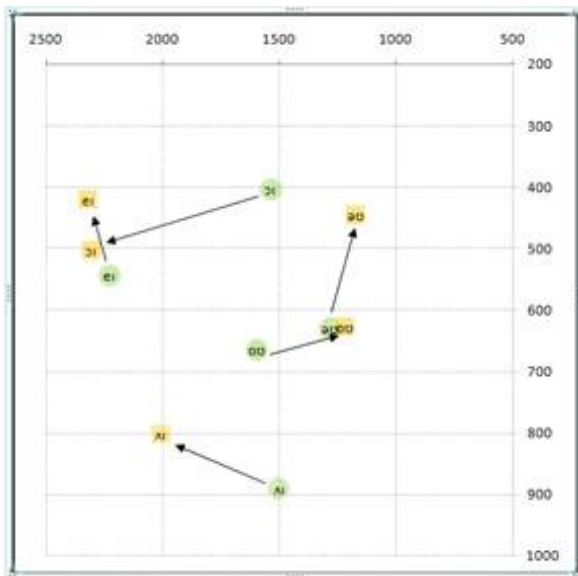


FIGURE 7: THE AVERAGE OF L2 FORMANT CHANGES OF EACH ENGLISH CLOSING DIPHTHONG IN BARK SCALE.

The greendots indicate the starting points of diphthongs and the yellow square dots represent

the ending points of the diphthongs. It can clearly be seen that there are variations among the diphthongal sounds. It can clearly be seen in Figure 5 that the diphthong /Tj/ was produced differently. The arrow points at down left side of the graph. It means that the end point of the diphthong was pronounced as low vowel with half open mouth.

TABLE 3 STATISTICAL MEASUREMENT OF DIPHTHONGAL DURATION

Words	Group	Mean	Sd	df	t
eɪ	L2	0,323	0,082	8	2,468
	L1	0,211	0,041		
aɪ	L2	0,268	0,049	8	0,305
	L1	0,283	0,098		
əʊ	L2	0,308	0,101	8	0,735
	L1	0,27	0,052		
aʊ	L2	0,352	0,06	8	2,553
	L1	0,256	0,058		
ɔɪ	L2	0,392	0,069	8	3,51
	L1	0,279	0,018		

*t label = 1.86

DURATION

In this research, the duration was only measured in the diphthongal words. The statistical analysis of L1 and L2 duration in producing diphthongal words are served in the following table.

Table 2. shows that there are significant difference in L2 duration. The differences are in the /ej/, /QŠ/ and /Tj/. It clearly indicates that L2 has longer duration in pronouncing diphthongal words than L1. The following figure demonstrates the difference.

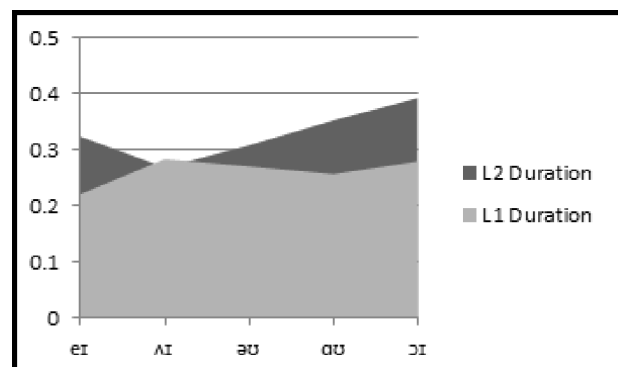


Figure 8. Duration of L1 and L2

Figure 9 shows that L2 tend to lengthen the duration particularly in /ej/, /QŠ/ and /Tj/. However, there was only one diphthong which was pronounced shorter than native speakers of English; the diphthong /æj/.

CONCLUSION

Javanese Learners of English do not have references to the set of diphthongs attributed to their first language phonetic features. Javanese are predicted to produce English diphthongs differently compared to native speakers of English. There are several findings which can be drawn based on the results. Admittedly, English closing diphthongs produced by L2 were not statistically different from L1, the different was only on the production of /QŠ/. It should be noted that there is a difference in the change of F1 values of the sound/Tj/. The differences answer the research question that the production of English diphthong by Javanese learners of English was different from the corresponding sounds produced by English native speakers. The other answered question was duration. It shows that there are significant differences in diphthongal duration produced by Javanese learners of English. They tend to lengthen the diphthongal words, three main findings stand out.

To put differently, the results of this measurement particularly in English closing diphthongs and the duration, support the hypothesis' prediction that the L2 failure in producing L2 vowels is related to the absence of diphthongal sound as a contrastive feature in L1. Javanese does not include diphthongs in its phonological system. It proves that the absence of those features in L2 can be a barrier for learners to study the language. The measurement results highlight a potential learning prob-

lem for Javanese learners of English. They are heavily influenced by their mother tongue.

This research is only a preliminary study which still requires further research related to acoustic features of English vowels and consonants produced by non-nativespeakers particularly Indonesian speakers or Indonesian regional language speakers. In this paper, I only report data of male respondents. Age is known to be an important factor of phonetic variation, aged-related would also be interesting topic for future research. Hopefully, this research would be worthwhile for language teaching in Indonesia.

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11-26

The Development of the Survey of Technology Use, Teaching, and Technology- Related Learning Experi- ences among Pre-Service English Language Teachers in Indonesia

ABSTRACT

This study aims to design a survey instrument that can be used to collect information on the relationships between the ICT-related learning experiences of the English language pre-service teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, and their technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK). Qualitative and quantitative research methods were used to analyse the degree of the reliability and validity of the instrument. The result suggests that this instrument meets the general requirements to be used in a larger scale of work in investigating the role of pre-service teachers' experiences in learning to use ICT in their pedagogical practice in influencing the development of their TPACK.

Keywords: learning experience; technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK); validity; reliability

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to develop an instrument that can be used to examine the relationship between the technology-related learning experiences of the English language pre-service teachers at a teacher training institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, and their current level of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). TPACK is a current framework which emerged as a response toward the ineffectiveness of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to influence educational improvement and student learning achievement. Successful ICT integration in learning and teaching consider technology not as an

end in itself but it needs to be related to the content of school subject, good pedagogy, and classroom context (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).

This study is important within the recent context of education in Indonesia. The Indonesian Ministry of Education (MoNE) has mentioned that Indonesian teachers need to integrate ICT in the learning and teaching process (Ministry of National Education, 2007a; Ministry of National Education, 2007b; Ministry of National Education, 2009). To support the ICT integration MoNE has invested in the provision of ICT infrastructure in schools (Ministry of National Education, 2010) by providing schools with computers, Internet connection and online learning content (p. 28, 31). MoNE has also invested in various ICT-related teacher professional developments (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2007; Belawati, 2005).

ICT has the potential to contribute to the improvement of Indonesian students' English language proficiency. The Internet has made access to authentic materials, vast linguistic resources and an exhaustive range of materials in all languages easier. Thanks to the Web 2.0 technology, teachers and students of languages are able to communicate with each other across the globe. With ICT, learning languages is no longer confined within school walls. Students' preferred learning styles can also be catered for by the use of ICT. However, this potential of ICT will be realized if teachers' use of ICT in the classroom is guided by principles of good curriculum design and pedagogy for teaching English.

Within this context, the role of pre-service teacher education becomes crucial as it serves as the initial and primary source of teachers' knowl-

edge. Putnam and Borko (2000) argue that "How a person learns a particular set of knowledge and skills, and the situation in which a person learns, become a fundamental part of what is learned" (p. 4). What teachers learned during their pre-service study would influence the way they teach as in-service teachers. Teachers' knowledge base needs to be expanded to include knowledge of ICT use in education that is closely connected with curriculum and good pedagogy. TPACK has become the framework for restructuring teacher education programs in preparing teachers to teach with technology.

There have been a number of studies that develop instruments to measure the teachers' TPACK (Koehler & Mishra, 2005; Koh, Chai, & Tsai, 2010; Sahin, 2011; Schmidt et al., 2009/2010). Koehler and Mishra (2005) conducted a survey to assess the impact of a certain course on educational technology in influencing the participants' perception of their understanding of content, pedagogy, and technology. Thus, this instrument is subject-specific. Schmidt et al. (2009/2010) designed a survey that measured teachers' understanding of each component of TPACK. Even though they claim that their survey was designed for general contexts and multiple content areas (p. 128), this survey is still content and context specific as it is designed to be used by K-12 pre-service teachers in the U. S. who are prepared to teach science, mathematics, social studies, and literacy. However, the items within each of these subjects are noticeably similar while there are differences in the content and pedagogy of each subject. Sahin (2011) also developed a TPACK survey for more general use. His survey is intended to measure the TPACK of pre-service teachers regardless of their major. Koh, Chai, and Tsai's (2010) instrument was designed for general use as well but

within Singapore educational contexts. Since the TPACK framework itself indicates that the effective use of technology has to be context-specific, the instrument needs to be specifically developed for a particular school subject within the unique classroom context surrounding the teaching of that subject.

Teacher knowledge is influenced by their learning experience. Research on effective teacher professional development (PD) suggests that ICT-related teacher PD should value teachers as adult learners and be conducted in a constructivist instructional approach to facilitate meaningful learning (Hawley and Valli, 1999; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Desimone, 2009). Most importantly, ICT-related teacher PD needs to be seen as a systematic effort by taking into consideration teachers' contextual factors in the PD design to influence changes in teachers' classroom practices to enhance student learning (Guskey, 2000; Desimone, 2009).

The existing survey instruments on TPACK were designed for the educational context of the Western, developed countries that have different socio-cultural factors from Indonesia and they did not attempt to tap teachers' perceptions on their ICT-related learning experience. Besides, there is a lack of data on how the principles of quality ICT-related teacher PD work in the Indonesian educational context. Therefore, it is important to design an instrument that can measure the level of TPACK of Indonesian pre-service teachers and their perceptions concerning the quality of their ICT-related learning experiences.

Considering the existing instruments are usually written for school subjects such as Math, Science, and Social Studies, the present study modi-

fies the work of Schmidt et al. (2009/2010) and Sahin (2011) on the TPACK survey by incorporating Indonesian English language teachers' pedagogical content knowledge into the teachers' TPACK measurement instruments. Since the TPACK level of Indonesian EFL pre-service teachers and their learning experience that shape the current development of their TPACK have not been studied yet, this study attempts to bridge this gap. Thus, the question addressed in this study is whether the survey instrument developed in this study valid and reliable to measure the TPACK levels of the English language pre-service teachers at a teacher training institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

The questionnaire may become a basis in evaluating the outcome of pre-service education institutions in Indonesia, particularly their graduates' readiness to use ICT in their pedagogical practices. The questionnaire may also be useful to inform the development of effective interventions to assist the Indonesian English language pre-service teachers in developing their TPACK.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TPACK

The idea of TPACK has been built on Shulman's notion of pedagogical content knowledge (1986, 1987). Shulman (1987), as cited in Mishra and Koehler (2006), argues that teacher's knowledge consists of "content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds" (p. 8). He went further by stating that content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge intersected in the minds of the teachers (Figure 1);

thus, making the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) central in the body of knowledge of teaching.

Mishra and Koehler (2006) propose a framework that includes the integration of technological knowledge into the pedagogical content knowledge. They stated that in order to realize the potential of ICT in the teaching and learning process, teachers needed to develop a knowledge that showed a connection and interaction among technological knowledge, content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Figure 1). In addition to Shulman's categorization of teacher's knowledge, Mishra & Koehler's framework yields to the development of technology knowledge, technological content knowledge, technological pedagogical knowledge and technological pedagogical content knowledge.

Technology Knowledge (TK) refers to the skills to use the technology. Teachers need to show the ability to use the standard technology like the black/white board, textbooks, visual aids, or the new technology like the Internet and digital video. Including in this knowledge are teachers' skills to operate computer system and hardware, and use software tools like word processors, PowerPoint, spreadsheet, web browsers, e-mail, and instant messaging. Digital technology is continuously changing. It is imperative for teachers to have the ability to keep up and adapt with the changes in technology. In addition, teachers should also need to decide whether the technology supports or hinders the attainment of the purpose of the lesson (Mishra & Koehler, 2008).

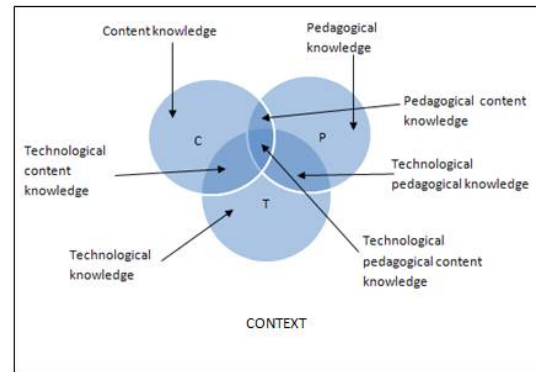


FIGURE 1: TECHNOLOGICAL PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE AS A RESULT OF THE BLENDING OF TECHNOLOGY KNOWLEDGE, CONTENT KNOWLEDGE AND PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE (KOEHLER & MISHRA, 2008, P. 12).

Technological Content Knowledge (TCK) includes the ability to select the appropriate technology tool to deliver the subject matter since technology can support or impede the learning of the subject matter. The nature of the ideas in the subject matter drives the selection process. This is a combination of content knowledge and technology knowledge. Richards (1998), as cited in van Olphen (2008), argues that language teachers' content knowledge includes an understanding of linguistics components (phonetics, phonology, morphology, semantics, syntax, socio-linguistics, pragmatics), second language acquisition, cross-cultural awareness, and the development of language proficiency skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). TCK for foreign language teachers can be defined as "the body of knowledge that teachers have about their target language and its culture and how technology is used to represent this knowledge" (van Olphen, 2008, p. 113).

Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK) is the interaction between technology and pedagogy. Teachers have a repertoire of teaching strategies and they should be able to skillfully select the one that best represents the idea in the subject matter

and suits the students' context or characteristics such as age, fluency/mastery level of the topic, learning style, or background knowledge. With technology, the complexity increases. Teachers need to understand how technology can change the teaching and learning. There are different technology tools that can be used for a task. The selection of the appropriate tool is

"based on its fitness, strategies for using the tool's affordances, and knowledge of pedagogical strategies and the ability to apply those strategies for use of technologies. This includes knowledge of tools for maintaining class records, attendance, and grading, and knowledge of generic technology-based ideas such as WebQuests, discussion boards, and chat rooms" (Mishra & Koehler, 2006, p. 1028).

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) is the heart of effective teaching using technology. It requires

"an understanding of how to represent concepts with technologies, pedagogical techniques that use technologies in constructive ways to teach content; knowledge of what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn and how technology can help students learn; knowledge of students' prior knowledge and theories of epistemology; and knowledge of how technologies can be used to build on existing knowledge and to develop new epistemologies or strengthen old ones" (Mishra & Koehler, 2008, p. 10).

According to the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages (ACTFL, 2002) Program Standards for the Preparation of Foreign Language Teachers, the knowledge that foreign language teachers should be able to demonstrate consists of the following six content standards: (1) language,

linguistics, comparisons; (2) Cultures, literatures, cross-disciplinary concepts; (3) Language acquisition theories and instructional practices; (4) Integration of standards into curriculum and instruction; (5) Assessment of languages and cultures; (6) Professionalism. The Teacher of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) also released a document containing a set of standards that need to be made in preparing foreign language teachers. Briefly, teacher candidates are expected to show proficiency in the following five domains, each is divided into a number of standards: (1) language; (2) culture; (3) instruction; (4) assessment; (5) professionalism. Explanations, rubrics, and performance indicators of the standards and domains are provided in these two documents. The knowledge that is covered in these documents incorporate the notion of pedagogical content knowledge proposed by Shulman (1986; 1987).

Using Mishra & Koehler's concept of TPACK, van Olphen (2008, p. 117) states that meaningful technology integration in language teaching entails the following condition:

- a) An understanding of how linguistic and cultural concepts can be represented using technology
- b) Educational approaches to language teaching that draw from socio-constructivist philosophies to develop students' language and cultural competence
- c) An awareness of what facilitates or hinders the acquisition of language and the development of language competence and how technology, specifically CALL or CMC, can revamp common problems that students ordinarily face
- d) An awareness of students' previous knowledge, and particularly knowledge of second language acquisition and cognitive development theories

e) An understanding of how current and emerging technologies can be used to advance present knowledge and to develop new epistemologies and sustain previous ones.

QUALITY LEARNING IN DEVELOPING FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' TPACK

Learning for teachers is an ongoing and continuous process which also includes activities that are embedded in their daily lives (Desimone, 2009). Reflecting, reading journal or magazine, group discussion, teacher network or study group, self- or observer examination of the teachers' practice, teachers' individual activities, such as engagement in educative online venues are examples of teacher learning activities (Desimone, 2009). Thus, there are different forms of learning that can be performed by teachers to improve their knowledge on ICT integration. Technology related teacher professional development shows a movement from one-size-fits-all type of training or workshops that focus on showing teachers how to use the technology hardware and software (Denning & Selinger, 1999) to those that are conducted over time with the element of follow-up learning and feedback (Cole, Simkins & Penuel, 2002; Kariuki, Franklin, & Duran, 2001; Mulqueen, 2001).

Studies on teachers' learning should focus on the critical features of teachers' learning experiences (Desimone, 2009). Several studies (Campbell, McNamara, and Gilroy, 2004; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001) conclude that teachers' learning models can impact student achievement if they have the following features:

1. longer in duration in terms of contact hours plus follow-up in order to be sustainable
2. actively engage teachers in meaningful and rel-

evant activities for their individual contexts

3. school-based
4. provide a degree of autonomy for teachers to design and choose the topics and types of PD that suit their need and contexts
5. promote peer collaboration and community building
6. have a clear goal toward student achievement
7. provide access to new technologies for teaching and learning

TPACK framework has been used recently to underline models of professional development. Learning-by-design approach is an example where the TPACK framework and the critical features of teacher learning are used. In this model of teacher learning, teachers need to construct artifacts (such as online courses, digital video, podcasts, and so on) based on the content of the subjects taught by the teachers to be used in their own classroom (Angeli & Valanides, 2009; Beckett et al., 2003; Cole, Simkins & Penuel, 2002; Keller, Hixon, Bonk, & Ehman, 2004; Koehler, Mishra, & Yahya, 2007; Mulqueen, 2001). Koehler and Mishra (2005) mention that learning by design approach focuses teachers' attention on a problem they might encounter in their practice; then they work collaboratively with other participants to investigate the ways in which technology can be used to address the problem. This approach is informed by the principles of social constructivism or constructionism with the participants actively construct their knowledge on a particular topic with the help of their peers by creating artifacts that meet their teaching goals. Design projects lead to sustained inquiry and revision of ideas (Koehler & Mishra, 2005). Learning in this kind of environment hap-

pens informally and within the immediate context of the participants which results in deeper understanding of the topic. Problem-based learning also influences this approach since the length of the program is extended than the traditional one-shot type of training, the activities to solve the 'real-world' problems are learner centered, interdisciplinary, and 'ill-structured' where there can be more than one solution to the problem (Koehler & Mishra, 2005). This kind of learning environment required a pedagogical shift on the role of the learners and the teacher/instructor. The learners have to be like an 'apprentice' who investigate the problem and find solutions with the help of their peers (who might have more or less knowledge on the topic under investigation) in the actual context of practice. The teachers/instructors assist learners to understand the content, provide them with feedback, mentor and coach, and manage the learning context and setting. They no longer become the main source of information who transmit their knowledge to their students.

Hence, learning by design approach reflects the principles of transformational adult learning. It allows the participants to exercise self-directedness (Brookfield, 1991), provides more learners' engagement, and builds connections with their real need and context (Eraut, 2007; Borko, 2004). There are also opportunities to critically reflect on their experiences in learning and teaching as well as building a learning community. The whole process results in the ownership of the program, a sense of agency. This kind of learning environment creates meaningful learning experiences that will highly likely make the learning sustained even after the program has finished (Lawless & Pellegrino, 2007).

METHOD

The purpose of this study is to develop an instrument that can be used to examine the relationship between the technology-related learning experiences of the English language pre-service teachers at a teacher training institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, and their current level of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). In line with this purpose, the Survey of Technology Use, Teaching, and Technology-Related Learning Experiences among Pre-Service English Language Teachers was constructed.

Survey design is the appropriate method underlying this study. According to Creswell (2011), survey research design is a quantitative research procedure where a sample or the entire population of people complete a set of questions (questionnaire) to describe the opinions, attitude, behaviours, or characteristics of the population. In order to investigate the validity and reliability of this instrument, it needs to be tested by sending the instrument to a sample of English language pre-service teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia and asking them to complete it. Since the population of English language pre-service teachers in Yogyakarta is quite large and geographically dispersed, survey design enables this study to collect information from a few respondents to describe the characteristics of the whole population, which is cost effective and time efficient (Salant & Dillman, 1994).

Since survey design does not rely on observation and long, structured or semi-structured interview that utilise open-ended questions to collect data, survey design cannot provide the depth of understanding that interview and observational techniques provide (Salant & Dillman, 1994). In order to address this issue, the instrument designed

in this study included two essay (open-ended) questions and two semi-closed-ended questions to elicit qualitative information from the respondents.

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

Reviewing the literature around the existing surveys used to measure teachers' TPACK was the first step conducted in the development of the instrument in this study.

The instrument used was adapted from Schmidt et al. (2009/2010) and Sahin (2011) to measure Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge of Indonesian English language pre-service teachers at a teacher training institution in Indonesia. This study's instrument focused on the specific content and pedagogical knowledge related to learning and teaching foreign language, i.e. the English language. The literature around teacher learning was also consulted in order to develop the items about the ICT-related learning experiences of the English language pre-service teachers.

There are five domains in the questionnaire. Four domains measure TPACK perceptions on Technological Knowledge (TK), Technological Content Knowledge (TCK), Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK), and Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). One domain measures the pre-service teachers' perceptions on their ICT-related learning experiences. Demographic questions are included to identify the characteristics of the respondents in order to understand gender differences or relationships between teachers who have access to technologies at home and those who do not.

The TK domain collects information on English language pre-service teachers' skills in operating technological hardware and software, which are

generally available in the context of these teachers. The TCK domain covers questions about the teachers' use of technology in enhancing their knowledge on the non-teaching topics they have enrolled at the English language and education study program. The TPK domain aims to collect information on the teachers' use of technology to improve their knowledge and skills in teaching. The TPACK domain contains questions about the interrelationship among technology, content and pedagogical knowledge that influence the teachers' English language and teaching skills. The questions in the ICT-related learning experiences domain are designed to collect information on the teachers' perceptions on their learning experiences that might inform their level of TPACK.

This questionnaire uses multiple types of questions and response formats which are carefully constructed to minimize common responses or common method variance which can cause measurement error and mislead conclusions (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003). Unlike the instruments designed by Schmidt et al. (2009/2010) and Sahin (2011) where they used the same question and response format which raise an issue concerning 'consistency motif' of the respondents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003), this questionnaire also incorporates different types of questions that require the use of different response formats.

Initially, there was a total of 64 items in this instrument. Most of the items (36 items) used five-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' with the inclusion of 'neutral' option. 18 other items were also based on five-point Likert-type scale, but the options were labelled differently (from 'very competent' to 'not competent' with the addition of 'not

applicable' option). Research surrounding the number of options in response scale has been inconclusive (Lietz, 2008). For example, Nagata, Ido, Shimizu, Misao, and Matsuura study's (1996) showed that the 5-point scale was the easiest of the other types of response scales to complete when applied to instruments for assessing health status. Finn and Peng's study (2009), however, showed that seven category responses outperformed five category responses for both Likert and semantic differential item formats when scaling marketing stimuli. Cook, Cella, Boespflug, and Amtmann (2010) argued that four to five response categories were better than two to three. However, their study also found that more than five categories did not necessarily improve the reliability, person separation, or validity of scores. Thus, five-point response categories were adopted in the initial development of this study's questionnaire on TPACK and technology related learning experiences among pre-service English language teachers in Indonesia. In the questionnaires, two items adopt ordering and ranking type of question, two items are written in multiple choice/selection, and 1 item is written in open-ended question. Respondents was also informed that their answers would be anonymous, there were no right or wrong answer, and their answers would not be used for any marking purposes to reduce 'mood state' effect (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Lee, 2003).

RESEARCH SITE AND PARTICIPANTS

The survey was created online by using SurveyGizmo 14-day trial program. The link of this survey was sent to 133 English language pre-service teachers of a teacher training institution in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, who were listed on the

researcher's Facebook friend list. The 133 pre-service teachers made up this study's target population. Their response indicated their informed consent. The first reminder to participate on the survey was sent two days after the survey was launched, followed by the second reminder two days later. The reminders were posted on the researcher's Facebook wall and sent to the participants' inbox messages. Thirty-seven responses were received. Out of this number, fifteen responses were partial (incomplete). A number of respondents sent the researcher personal messages through Facebook regarding technical problems they encountered when trying to complete the survey. It appeared that some of the respondents were not familiar with this kind of online survey and stopped completing the survey after they clicked the first 'next' button, which explained the high occurrence of partial responses. Thus, there were only 22 respondents who were selected as the sample of this study. As for the language that was used in the questionnaire, it was decided to use English since the respondents of this study are pre-service English language teachers who understand English well.

The procedure of the survey development in this study is illustrated in Figure 2.

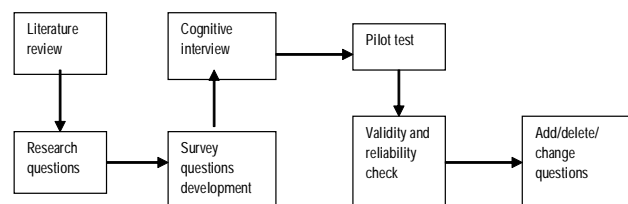


FIGURE 2: THE MODEL OF SURVEY PROCEDURE OF THIS STUDY

DELIMITATION AND LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

In order to provide a good estimate of the population characteristics, there are several factors that

need to be considered in conducting survey research (Salant & Dillman, 1994; Creswell, 2011). The number of sample needs to be as large as possible to ensure that the sample represents the target population. Every member of the population also has the same chance of being selected for the sample. The non-responsive respondents in the sample should have similar characteristics with the people who give responses in the sample. The instrument needs to be well-constructed to avoid any ambiguity both in the questions and in the responses and rigorous administration procedure needs to be implemented to obtain as large a return rate as possible. Due to the limited time under which this study needs to be completed, rigorous sampling technique is not possible.

It is the instrument development that is emphasized in this study. Expert review as an evidence of validity was unlikely to be conducted due to the funding limitation of this study. Thus, the effort to achieve a degree of validity and reliability was performed by implementing cognitive interviewing procedure (Desimone & Le Floch, 2004) and by carrying out statistical tests on the responses (i.e. Cronbach Alpha and Factor analysis). To achieve stronger reliability and validity, the initial survey items of this study were modified by the deletion of several items based on the result of the validity and reliability tests. According to Field (2009, p. 681), a second run of factor analysis is essential if the survey items undergoes a number of changes as a result of the statistical tests. With the limited scope of the paper, a second run of factor analysis was not conducted. Moreover, the limited sample size of this study made the application of factor analysis to the whole items not viable.

DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative and quantitative research methods were used to analyse the degree of the reliability and validity of the instrument. A cognitive interview was applied after the first construction of the survey items. The internal consistency of each domain in this instrument was analysed by using Cronbach's alpha reliability technique. Factor analysis was implemented to examine the construct validity of each domain. The two essay (open-ended) questions and two semi-closed-ended questions were not included in this analysis.

RESULTS ON THE COGNITIVE INTERVIEWS

After the initial survey was completed, cognitive interviews were conducted to 5 participants. Cognitive interviews is a method to contribute to increase reliability and validity of surveys (Desimone & Le Floch, 2004). Based on the feedback gathered during the cognitive interviews, some items were revised (refer to Appendix 1 for the cognitive interview results). The revision included the following:

- 1) Removal of negative items, which were modified into positive statements,
- 2) Removal of the adjective 'appropriate,'
- 3) Addition of information to clarify meaning of the statements, such as 'school work' instead of 'work' only and an example of 'difficult concept in English language,'
- 4) Removal of examples from some statements in TK section to avoid double barrel statement,
- 5) Emphasis on the instruction of certain items (e.g. the ranking-type question) by formatting the sentence in the instruction with italic, bold, and colour,

- 6) Simplification on the length of several statements,
- 7) Addition of information to make the meaning of the statement clear (e.g. from 'I do not know how to use technology to assess students' performance' into 'When I teach later, I will know how to use technologies to assess students' performance'),
- 8) Change one of the ranking-type items to a semi-closed-ended type item,
- 9) Addition of one open-ended item, and
- 10) Removal of the neutral option from the response scale.

Research on the omission and inclusion of neutral option has been inconclusive (Lietz, 2008). The decision to remove neutral option from the response scale in this survey was based on the result of the cognitive interview which appeared to support the findings that the introduction of neutral option would attract respondents to select this option when they were not completely sure about their answers (Garland 1991; Kalton et al. 1980; Krosnick & Helic 2000; O'Muircheartaigh 2000; Schumann & Presser 1996, as cited in Lietz, 2004).

RESULTS ON THE FACTOR ANALYSIS AND CRONBACH'S ALPHA

Survey items need to be checked whether they relate to the construct that the study intended to measure (Field, 2009). Factor analysis is a technique for identifying groups or clusters of variables. Each domain in this survey item was analysed by using factor analysis. After the application of factor analysis to validate this survey items, the reliability of the scale was examined using the Cronbach's Alpha.

TECHNOLOGY KNOWLEDGE DOMAIN

The construct of this domain is about teachers' skills to use technology. The factor analysis on the 22 items representing TK resulted in 7 components underlying this construct. These components may, or may not, relate to genuine sub-components of TK. Special attention was given to the items with factor loadings below 0.40 (Field, 2009). These items are presented in Table 1.

The result shows that each of these items has a much bigger factor loading in another component. Having closely examined the items of variable TUTTEA3, TUTTEA5, TUTTEA6, TUTTEA7, TUTTEA 9, AND TUTTEA12, it turned out that these items represent the same concept (i.e. ability in operating technologies). Since there were 22 items in this scale (which represented the answers from the 22 sample of this study), it is suspected that the limited sample of this study may result in the low factor loading of these items. The decision

was then made that all items that asked the pre-service teachers' ability in operating technologies (i.e. TUTTEA1 to TUTTEA17) were dropped since these items had a similarity to TUTTEA20 ('I play around with different technologies') which had much greater factor loading (.771). TUTTEA18 and TUTTEA19 item were also deleted since they appeared to have resemblance with TUTTEA20 item as well.

TECHNOLOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE (TCK)

TCK includes the ability to select the appropriate technology tool to deliver the subject matter. It is the relationship between content and technology. Based on the factor analysis, two components had the eigenvalues over 1 and in combination

explained the 64.06% of the variance. It means that the 10 items reflected two constructs. The factor loadings were above .40 for each item (i.e. .44 to .83). Thus, all items were retained.

TECHNOLOGICAL PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE (TPK)

The factor analysis extracted 2 components for this domain. Since TPK is the interaction between technology and pedagogy, the 6 items in this domain may reflect these two concepts (technology and pedagogy). Factor loadings were between .51 to .86. This result showed that the factor loadings were considered as good and accepted. No item was changed or deleted.

TECHNOLOGICAL PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE (TPACK)

TPACK is where technology, pedagogy, and content merge to create a unique notion of effective teaching using technologies. Only one factor emerged as the underlying construct of this scale based on the factor analysis. The 6 items within this domain were built around one coherent construct. The factor loadings were between .64 to .90. All items were then retained.

TEACHERS' TECHNOLOGY-RELATED LEARNING EXPERIENCE (TLE)

This refers to the quality of learning experiences that can influence teachers' development of TPACK. It is predicted from the literature around effective teacher professional learning that teachers with positive or high-quality learning experiences will have a higher level of TPACK and teachers' with negative or poor learning experiences will have a lower level of TPACK. The factor analysis

extracted 2 components underlying this construct, each component has the eigenvalue over 1 which account for the 71.20% of the variance. This means that there are two constructs underlying the 6 items in TLE domain. Two items (TUTTEE53 'When technologies are used in my classroom, it is the lecturers who use technologies most of the time' and TUTTEE54 'I am allowed to use any technology software/hardware I am familiar with in the classrooms') needed special attention since their factor loadings were .267 and .003 respectively. TUTTEE53 item was then deleted since the question might be redundant with TUTTEE49 ('My lecturers use technologies in the classrooms') and the information asked was in fact implied in TUTTEE52 ('When technologies are used in my classroom, it is the students who use technologies most of the time'). Item TUTTEE54 was eliminated by considering its irrelevancy with the construct.

The internal consistency of the set of items under each domain was investigated using Cronbach's alpha technique. Table 2 illustrates the internal consistency from each domain.

DOMAIN NAME	CRONBACH ALPHA
Technological Knowledge (TK)	.82
Technological Content Knowledge (TCK)	.86
Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK)	.82
Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK)	.87
Technology-related Learning Experience (TLE)	.67

TABLE 2: CRONBACH ALPHA FOR EACH DOMAIN

The result in Table 1 indicates that the internal consistency reliability for Technology-related Learning Experience was low while the other domains had satisfactory scale. The questionable items

VARIABLE NAME	ITEM LABEL	COMPONENT						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TUTTEA3	Ability in operating Instant Message	.291	.255	-.218	.619	-.406	-.252	-.337
TUTTEA5	Ability in operating Weblog	.310	.628	-.332	.058	-.400	-.352	-.057
TUTTEA6	Ability in operating Electronic mailing list	.081	.219	.191	.676	.245	.008	.513
TUTTEA7	Ability in operating Podcast	.341	.447	.638	.163	-.137	-.134	.074
TUTTEA9	Ability in operating scanner	.037	.185	.838	.193	-.050	.131	.055
TUTTEA12	Ability in operating Tablet computer	.026	.536	.602	-.178	.038	-.316	-.214

TABLE 1: COMPONENT MATRIX OF PROBLEMATIC ITEMS UNDER THE TK DOMAIN

within the Technology-related Learning Experience domain were examined. In line with the result of the factor analysis for this construct, items TUTTEE53 and TUTTEE54 needed to be dropped to increase the reliability of this domain. The Cronbach's alpha increased to .78 when these two items were dropped. As a result, a total of 21 items were eliminated from the survey, including 19 TK items and 2 TLE items.

CONCLUSION

Efforts toward building the validity and reliability of the instrument had been performed by this study. The results suggest that this instrument is considered acceptable to be used in a larger scale of work that aims to investigate the role of pre-service teachers' experiences in learning to use ICT in their pedagogical practice in influencing the development of their TPACK. However, much work needs to be done with regards to further validating and revising the instrument. Stronger validity and reliability should be the focus of future studies. This can be done by conducting expert review to build content validity, applying rigorous sampling techniques, and conducting validity and reliability tests on the qualitative types of the items in this instrument. A valid and reliable instrument will be beneficial in providing accurate feedback

on ICT-related teacher professional learning programs.

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27-37

EFL Teachers' Linguistic Self-Concept in a Study Abroad (SA) Program

ABSTRACT

The current study investigated the experiences and linguistic self-concept of six EFL teachers from Indonesia in a Study Abroad (SA) program. The participants were six EFL teachers who were in their first year of an SA program in the United States of America. All of them were enrolled as students in postgraduate programs in different universities in the U.S. when the data were collected. The data collection was conducted through semi-structured interviews through video-calls. The study found that the participants encountered linguistics experiences related to certain linguistic features and culture. In addition to those experiences, certain forms of linguistic self-concept were also found. Participants' linguistic self-concept showed that they perceived that they were not proficient enough in English, their English was very formal, they were proficient on certain area, and their struggle was not a unique experience. It can be concluded that as learners in an SA program, EFL teachers experienced what were normally experienced by learners in an SA program in general.

Keywords: Linguistic self-concept, study abroad, EFL teachers.

INTRODUCTION

The embassy of the United States in Indonesia (2014) reported that in 2014, "7,000 Indonesians [studied] in the United States" and that they aimed to double the number in the future (para.1). The embassy added that study abroad program is one of the ways to maintain bilateral relationship between the two countries. The opportunity to study abroad is offered through scholarship programs by pri-

vate and government foundations such as Fulbright, a scholarship program sponsored by the U.S. government, and DIKTI (Indonesian Directorate of Higher Education) scholarship, sponsored by the Indonesian government. For teachers, this program is hoped to be the space for quality improvement (Kemendikbud DIKTI, 2014)

Studies showed that there was indeed a room for quality improvement from an SA program. In general, SA programs have been considered as the "context for language learning" (Kinginger, 2013, p. 341). Therefore, a myriad of studies was conducted to seek for an understanding of the impacts of SA programs, especially on language skills. A few of these studies investigated participants' linguistic affordance (Allen, 2010), individual differences (Anderson, 2014), language gain/ acquisition (Baró & Serrano, 2011; Themudo, Page, & Benander, 2007), speaking ability (Kang, 2014), language practice (Larzén-Östermark, 2011), language learning (Li, 2014; Savage & Hughes, 2014; Sato, 2014), language proficiency (Li, 2014; Savicki, 2011), communicative competence (Lockley, 2013), language pragmatics (Li, 2014; Reynolds-Case, 2013; Shively, 2011), and language identity (Sato, 2014) to name a few.

However, all of the above studies focused on investigating students, instead of teachers, which seemed to be the trend of scholarly studies in this area. In absence of studies focusing on teachers, there is a necessity to conduct a study in this area. What makes teachers might have a unique experience in an SA program is that they are both teachers in their home country, and students in the host country. In addition, SA programs for them are mostly intended to be a professional development project. Therefore, more studies are needed to see

whether the programs have really met their vision. This idea is shared by most studies of teachers in SA programs. Of the few, the foci are on the impacts of SA programs on the teachers' professional lives (Allen, 2010), their language proficiency (Allen, 2013), their experiences of living in the target country (Bilash & Kang, 2007), their learning context (Mora & Roux, 2010), and their self-perception on their proficiency (Wang, 2014).

It can be concluded that there needs to be more studies on teachers in relation to SA programs they attended. For the current study, the term "self-concept" is used to seek an understanding of how teachers in their SA programs perceived their own language proficiency during their program. The term "learners" is also used to refer to the participants since in the SA program, their status is students. The study can add to the scholarship on SA programs, teacher's professional development, and the field of language teaching and learning in general. In addition, to meet the above aim, two research questions were formulated:

1. What linguistic experiences did EFL teachers encounter in their first year of their SA program?
2. How was EFL teachers' self-concept of their English proficiency as the result of the linguistic experience?

STUDY ABROAD (SA) AND LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Study Abroad (SA) has been studied repeatedly in terms of its outcome and its process. Kinginger (2011), reviewing the bulk of research on the subject, found that, in terms of outcome, one of the mostly discussed issues is related to language gain. The foci were mostly on the "proficiency as

operationalized in tests" and "components of communicative competence (grammatical, socio-linguistic, discourse, or strategic abilities)" (Kinging, 2011, p. 59). Kinginger added that even though SA has been regarded as supporting improvement in language proficiency, studies show that individual differences might influence the outcome. This means that going on an SA program does not necessarily guarantee participants' improvement in the target language proficiency.

A research by Anderson (2014), for example, supported Kinginger's (2011) conclusion on the matter. The study aimed to explore the learners' individual differences in terms of cognitive and affective aptitude in relation to their oral proficiency gain in a four-week SA program. The study found that each of these learners showed diverse aptitude profiles and despite the same extensive four-week program they attended, they also showed different oral-proficiency gain. It was expected that the learners with high aptitude profile would gain more. However, in fact, it was not the case. One student who showed a high aptitude profile seemed to not make a significant improvement in oral proficiency gain.

As stated by Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott, and Brown (2013), SA programs are not only aimed at the "improvement of language skills," but they also "include enhanced personal independence, intercultural competence, and academic knowledge and skills" although many studies seem to indicate that it was not always the case (p.36). In fact, all participants in the current study were in a scholarship program, which is "available to Indonesian citizens to undertake graduate degree study or advanced research at a US university in a variety of fields" (AMINEF, 2017, para.1). This implied that target

language proficiency improvement is not the main goal, especially when the program itself requires a high level of target language proficiency of its participants prior to the program.

In her analysis on studies on SA programs, Kinginger (2011) found that the studies conducted quantitatively have proven that SA programs, have a significant correlation to their participants' linguistic gain regardless of the individual differences. However, as Kinginger (2011) reviewed, some case studies and ethnographic studies on SA programs revealed that "learning in study abroad is a complex, dialogic, situated affair in which the subjectivities of students and hosts are deeply implicated" (p.64). This means that there are many factors in an SA program needed to see to understand the process of learning during the program. For example, although two SA students experienced similar linguistic insecurity, their interaction with the host family and the way the host family treated them could shape a different perception about the target language (Kinging, 2011). As a result, the language gain might also be different. This underlines the necessity to understand more deeply the experience of each individual and how they perceive that experience.

LINGUISTIC SELF-CONCEPT AND SA

Mercer (2011) states that self-concept "consists of the beliefs one has about oneself, one's self-perception" which are not necessarily facts, but more of "what one believes to be true about oneself" (p.14). In the current study, Mercer's term, Foreign Language Learning (FLL) is also suitable to refer to what the study aims to investigate. Mercer defines it as "an individual's self-descriptions of competence and evaluative feelings about themselves

as a Foreign Language (FL) learner (p.14). Meanwhile, using the term “linguistic self-concept”, Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott, and Brown (2013) state that it refers to “how participants perceive themselves as second language learners and users (their reflexive identities), and the projection and recognition of imagined identities in the study abroad context” (p.80). Summarizing from these definitions, the current study uses the term self-concept in English proficiency to describe the participants’ perception on their linguistic experiences and how they perceive their proficiency in English based on their evaluation or reflection on those experiences.

Reviewing from arrays of studies on Foreign language learner’s self-concept, Mercer (2011) concludes that there is an extremely complex process influencing the formation of a learner’s self-concept and that this implies that “there is a need to be careful not to overestimate the potential effectiveness of educational approaches that aim at enhancing global self-concept or self-esteem” (p.167). In other words, when talking about a learner’s self-concept, the uniqueness of each individual should be regarded. Mercer (2011) adds that even though this means that self-concept is very unpredictable and there is no exact solution to influence a learner’s language self-concept, a non-threatening learning situation can be endeavored to give positive influence to the learner’s foreign language self-concept. The challenge is; therefore, lays on the teachers in that learning environment since they need to maintain in mind that each student has his/her own complex and personal foreign language self-concept and that many factors influence that concept (Mercer, 2011).

In an SA program, self-concept can be influ-

enced by various factors. Wang (2014), investigating the self-perception of EFL teachers on their language proficiency, found that the group of teachers who had stayed longer in an SA program tended to perceive their language proficiency improvement more highly than the one having stayed in a shorter time (six months). This shows that the length of time spent in an SA program influences the way its participants perceive their language proficiency. However, it is too fast to conclude that time is the only factor influencing someone’s linguistic self-concept. Social interaction and environment where SA participants interact with others will also play a significant part. It is relevant to borrow Aveni’s (2005) idea that in an SA program, “Learners gather information about their sense of status, control, safety, and validation in an L2 interaction from multiple sources” (p.55). Aveni (2005) added that the sources might come from “social-environmental cues” and “learner-internal cues” (p.55). The former refers to the factors such as interlocutors’ behavior, characters, age, genders, etc., while the former refers to the learner’s attitudes and beliefs about themselves, their foreign language ability, etc.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from studies of self-concept in an SA program is that self-concept is dynamic. Aveni (2005) argues that in a program such as SA, participants “often report feeling as if those around them may perceive them to be unintelligent, lacking personality or humor, or as having the intellectual development of a small child” (p.9). This might be the result of what they believed about accents, grammar, intonation, or any linguistic system that they believed they should have to be addressed as proficient. However, Aveni (2005) added that, in her rigorous

analysis of several SA participants in her study, that after certain length of time and more experience, these learners gained a better perception about their language ability and became less risk averse in using the target language. The finding of a naturalistic study by Allen (2013) to several teachers in an SA program corroborates to this notion. Using the teachers' diaries, Allen found several points showing how the teachers perceived their language proficiency. Over time, these teachers, among others, believed that it is alright to not always understand all levels of the language and that language proficiency is a long process.

METHODOLOGY

This qualitative study was conducted to six Indonesian EFL teachers who had spent approximately one year of SA programs in the United States of America (USA). All of them were under the same scholarship scheme and were English teachers in Indonesia with a variety of experience of teaching students of different ages and institutions (school and university). All of them speak Bahasa Indonesia and have different vernaculars. One participant took a doctoral degree program, and the others took a master's degree program. They took programs under the area of Teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and Applied Linguistics. Prior to the program, to compete for the scholarship grant and to be enrolled in the university of their choice, these teachers were required to take an English proficiency test in the form of Internet-Based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL iBT) and they had to achieve the score required by the scholarship grantor and the university. In this study, some participants refused to mention their score, but the

fact that they were granted the scholarship and were enrolled in one of the universities in USA showed that they had reached the score for an advanced EFL users and were considered by the scholarship grantor as capable to survive the academic life in the host country.

The data collection was conducted after the current study had been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), and participants had signed the consent form. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews using English as the medium of communication. Because all participants lived in different states, the interviews were conducted online through video-calls. The interviews were recorded with the consent from the participants. The recorded interviews were then transcribed and coded. The coding process was conducted by first scrutinizing the data to collect the parts containing the foci of discussions, namely the participants' experiences and linguistic self-concept. The next step was to scan the trends or overlapping phenomena, which then became the base for categorization of the findings. The categorized findings were then analyzed and related to past literatures.

I need to inform that my positionality might encourage bias in my analysis of the data. At the time of data collection, I shared identities with the participants. I was also a grantee of the same scholarship as the participants. I am also an EFL teacher in Indonesia and was a TESOL master's student in a university in the USA. In addition, I also shared the same L1 with some participants and speak Bahasa Indonesia, the national language of the Republic of Indonesia. These shared identities might contribute to certain personal view, which

might influence my analysis.

FINDINGS

LINGUISTIC EXPERIENCES

The current study focuses on six EFL teachers' experiences in an SA program in the USA. The data showed that all participants experienced the struggles when interacting with other interlocutors. The struggles were caused by some linguistic features and by cultural aspects.

Struggle caused by linguistic features. All six participants stated that they had classmates or friends of various origins and nationalities (commonly called international students). They stated that at times, they felt that they could not understand their fellow international students in a communication. They mentioned that the causes were mostly around linguistic aspects such as accents, intonation, pronunciation, and different styles of English. The following excerpt from Participant 2 showed the struggle.

"My only problem is to understand their words. I got friends from China and Saudi Arabia who speak [English]. I don't understand them because of their pronunciation" (R2.C2.23).

The thought of accent as one factor that hindered understanding was also shared by Participant 4, referring to accents of other international students, and Participant 6, referring to her English native speaker professor. Participant 5, on the other hand, focused more on the different style of English that she encountered as the factor to cause her struggle.

"At first, it's quite difficult when we talked about spoken English. Spoken English is varied in the US. It depends on the context. It depends on the place where English is used, and it depends on the age of

the speakers. So, when I was talking with undergraduate students, the spoken language is different from the graduate students because most undergraduate students are still young, and they just graduated from senior high school. They used non-formal English that sometimes I didn't understand. But I'd ask what he or she means and they would explain it to me" (R5.C2.06).

Participant 4 added that pronunciation had also caused communication struggle, but this time, she referred to her own pronunciation.

"May be because of this pronunciation. When I talk to people - I forget if they're Americans or not - they didn't understand me, so I think I speak okay. So, I need to revise, rearrange all my words and practice again" (R4.C2.02).

Further, she explained that this experience made her less confident in speaking because such thing never happened when she was in Indonesia.

Struggle caused by cultural aspects. The interviews with the participants also revealed that some of the struggles were caused by different cultural backgrounds of theirs and other interlocutors. Participant 2, for example, stated that he encountered an experience where he felt lost with the conversation and humor in the classroom. He explained it in the following excerpt.

"My classmates are very friendly and they like joking, but they like joking in American ways, which makes me uncomfortable" (R2.C2.15).

"For me it's not funny" (R2.C2.21).

Participant 3 also shared her struggle in understanding people from different countries or different cultural background as follows. She mentioned that it was difficult for her to understand other students from different countries other than US because they "don't really share the same under-

standing behind" English (R3.C2.02). She explained what she meant by that different understanding as follows.

"When, for example, I talk to a Japanese, even if he's not a native speaker, we both are not native speakers, we do not have the connection. The only connection we have is that we are not native speakers. But when we speak English, we should try to figure out what I mean and what he means" (R3.C2.04).

Both cases above show that sometimes, the struggle was not about to speak the language. It lied on the meaning of the spoken language in which interlocutors from different cultural backgrounds might understand it differently.

LINGUISTIC SELF-CONCEPT

After several experiences of struggling and surviving communications in an SA context for one year, participants showed their linguistic self-concept as follows.

I am not completely proficient in English. All participants were basically quite confident with their English proficiency prior to their departure to the US as they said in the beginning of their interview. However, after encountering several experiences of struggle, most participants showed a little bit sense of inferiority regarding their English proficiency. Participant 2 expressed it in the following excerpt.

"When I spoke in the discussions [in class], for example, I was not very confident in giving my ideas although I had a good idea. I was worried that the way I explained or the way I delivered ideas were not very well managed or well organized. Therefore, I spoke very slowly" (R2.C2.12).

"I thought too much, which hindered me from speaking. May be, I was just worried they didn't under-

stand what I said" (R2.C2.13).

Interestingly, Participant 2 stated that this feeling of inferiority only occurred when he had to interact with his American counterparts but not with other international students. Similarly, Participant 5 shared her lack of confidence of her proficiency in certain topics of conversation rather than issues pertaining to certain linguistic features or language skills. Participant 1, on rather different take, shared her perception that she lacked proficiency in a certain language skill. She mentioned academic written English as her weakness.

"In academic life, I don't think I'm proficient enough because there are linguistic features I'm not quite familiar yet, and I don't feel like I have used that properly. So, to me, in some cases, I feel I'm quite proficient, but in academic, I might be improving, but I don't feel like I'm proficient enough yet" (R1.C4.02).

Participant 5, also mentioned specific area where she felt not as proficient after one year of studying in the US. She stated as follows.

"I think, in terms of grammar, I don't make much improvement because I feel that my grammar is still the same as previous years" (R5.C4.02).

My English is very formal. Two participants mentioned that they believed that the English that they used was different in that they felt that their English was very formal or standard even when they used it in an informal situation. Participant 2, for example, stated that he felt that he spoke "very formally" and felt like "a textbook" (R2.C2.02).

Participant 5 also felt that her English was formal.

"When I came here, there was a lot of differences. If we talk about other languages, I think, in Indonesia, we mostly learned academic writing. But when we

came here, we heard people talking in English informally. And even in a formal [situation], they also insert some informal conversation, informal things" (R5.C2.04).

I am proficient in certain area. Whether the experiences sound negative or positive, all participants seemed to take something positive from them. They showed confidence on their English proficiency. Some participants perceived that their English was good enough, at least for an oral communication. Participant 3, for example, believed that her English was adequate for communication need.

"Even if I'm not perfect, these days, I can still communicate. I can survive a year in this state, so may be, I'm proficient enough" (R3.C4.03).

This idea was also shared by Participant 1 and 4. In addition, Participant 4's confidence was also a result of comparing her proficiency to her peers. She expressed that after a while, she convinced herself to be confident because she was still learning and that she found out that many people struggled with communicating too (R4.C4.01). She added as follows.

"I mean, I find several friends from other countries outside U.S. speak English, but I feel I'm better. So, I feel like "Why should I be discouraged?" (R4.C4.03).

This idea of comparing self to peers is also implied by Participant 2. Participant 5, slightly different from the rest, felt that she was confident in the area of academic English. She stated as follows.

"I would say that perhaps, I'm good at academic English, especially when somebody asked me to write a paper. It doesn't mean that my writing is qualified for publication. [What I mean is that] when I do academic writing or academic talking, I can do bet-

ter" (R5.C4.08).

This likely came from her experience of struggling to cope with the topic of conversation outside classroom as she shared in the interview.

My struggle is not unique. The last category of participants' linguistic self-concept is related to their understanding that their experience was not something that they uniquely experienced. Their occasional struggle to understand what other international students seemed to make them learn that they, were not the only one with linguistic boundaries, but also their counterparts, regardless their nativity. They showed more acceptance to their condition. Participant 6, for example, believed that accent was not an issue in communication.

"I would say that everybody, whether he is the so-called native speaker, or the so-called native speaker of English will definitely have accent. That's what I learn about accent. I used to think that those coming from countries where English is spoken as the mother tongue, are free from accents. Now, here I find that everybody, wherever she/he comes from, will have particular accent. I believe that accent is part of one's identity to not necessarily to get the rid of" (R6.C2.04).

Participant 1, in addition, believed that everybody also struggles, at some point, in communication. She also mentioned her view on native speakers.

"Now I came here, I realized that it doesn't only happen to non-native speakers like us. I realized that even my native speaker friends, they also sometimes face the kind of situation when we have to be able to find a way out of the communication trouble by using our strategic competence" (R1.C2.02).

Each of the category of self-concept above was

not always shared by all participants. However, there seemed to be a trend that the experiences involving people in the participants' academic life played a part in their linguistic self-concepts although it might only be implied.

DISCUSSION

It can be concluded from the findings that the experiences of all participants took place when they interacted with the people in their academic environment. Although in the interview, I never asked specifically about their academic life, the participants' responses were mostly related to their interaction with their peers. This phenomenon is not unique. Aveni (2005) stated that "learners set expectations for their own performance based on the presentations of others and look to other students who seem to perform better or worse than they [do] and shift their attitudes toward themselves accordingly" (p.91). In line with this, Mercer (2011) argued that this attitude of comparing oneself to peers becomes the "external frame of reference" in the formation of self-concept among learners (p.128). The participants of the current study, despite their status as teachers back home, were learners in their SA program. Therefore, the tendency to act like learners in general seems to be reasonable. Further, Mercer (2011) added that the comparison is usually done to peers that learners consider as holding similarities so that it will suggest a reasonable comparison. This was also the case with the six teachers who became the participants of this study. The finding suggests that they tended to compare themselves to other international students or other non-native speakers of English, most likely because for these international students, English is also a foreign language. There was also a

mention of native speakers of English, but the context was still around classroom, which means that the peers compared still shared certain similar identity.

Another conclusion that can be made is that participants' experience and their self-concept about their English ability came from the struggles that they experienced or they perceived as being experienced by their peers. Such struggles are commonly experienced by participants of an SA program as a result of being "stripped of the comfortable mastery of their first language and of cultural and societal adroitness" (Aveni, 2005, p.9). The struggles also mostly pertained to linguistic features such as pronunciation, accent, and style. In this sense, according to Aveni (2005), an SA environment can contribute to the participants' inferiority. However, although all participants experienced certain struggles, each perceived their experience in their own way. Not all participants felt clear inferiority. In fact, in the end, all participants' self-concept tended to be positive. Aveni mentioned three factors that might be the explanation as to despite the negative experience that the participants had, they still showed self-affirming attitude that they actually made improvement. This attitude might take place because the participants' "internal cues are positive", they had the "wish to elevate their internal sense of security," and "the importance of their communication goal outweighs their need to maintain their security" (Aveni, 2005, p.118).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

To sum up, the teachers' linguistic self-concept in general revolves around the success in communicating with people from different background and in any given situation. Their experiences are

commonly experienced by learners in any SA program. What is interesting is that there was a growing empathy to other speakers after they were exposed to the reality that English is not only as modeled by what they considered as native English speakers.

I think it is safe to say that SA programs gave the benefit of professional development to a teacher in a way that it can be the space to reflect and learn about their own competence. Although there has been a common belief that SA program is beneficial, at certain sense, it is still considered as an exclusive program which is only available for teachers in certain level of education. Therefore, more socialization on various SA programs is needed to encourage more teachers.

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38-53

The Role of Teacher And Peer in Helping the Students Orally Participate in An EFL Classroom

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to discover the role of teacher and peer in helping the students orally participate in an EFL classroom. I applied a three-month qualitative case study on 24 first-year university students. I employed observation, open-ended questionnaire, and in-depth interview to collect data. Further, I applied inductive analysis to decode the data. The results of the study revealed that first, the teacher played an important role to help the students orally participate in both class and group discussions through the inquiries provided during the class discussion, and feedbacks given after the group discussions. Second, results of the study indicated that peers also significantly contributed to motivating the lower-achieving students to improve their oral participation, particularly in group discussions. In this circumstance, the data revealed that the students showed learning enthusiasm which helped creating a positive learning atmosphere in which this positive learning atmosphere can be perceived when they motivated one another through feedbacks given to solve their difficulties finding appropriate English terms and pronunciation, arranging their sentence structure, and developing their ideas. In addition, the students motivated one another through fun activities such as talking about movie quotes, and words of encouragement. In short, both teacher and peer helped encouraging the students to orally participate in both class and group discussions.

Keywords: students' oral participation; the role of teacher; the role of peer

INTRODUCTION

The article reports a qualitative case study that investigated the role of teacher and peer in helping students orally participate in an EFL speaking class. In particu-

lar, the present study observed the dynamics of the students' oral participation throughout three month-qualitative case study in a class where the theory of socio-constructivism by Vygotsky (1978) was applied in the teaching and learning process. Particularly in the present study, students were encouraged to orally participate in both class and group discussions. The teacher gave the students freedom to communicate with their peers about their difficulties orally participating in the discussions within the framework of Zone Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978; Lake, 2012) where the high-achieving students helped the lower achieving the students. Further, the teacher provided a series of social practices within the framework of Guided Participation (Rogoff, 1990) where students socially interacted with their peers and teacher in class and group discussion in which the teacher guided them to comprehend the materials better through inquiries, and improve the students oral participation by providing feedbacks after roleplays. In the end, this finding is expected to give an insight to better understand the students' oral participation development in the EFL setting.

FACTORS AFFECTING STUDENTS' ORAL PARTICIPATION

In Communicative Language Learning, students are highly encouraged to be able to use second or foreign language to communicate with others (Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) rather than merely mastering the language structures. In this case, students are facilitated to be the center of learning who actively explore their potentials instead of merely receiving knowledge. Therefore, students are encouraged to produce meaningful sounds and interaction to achieve par-

ticular social goals; for example, asking product prices when shopping, asking and giving opinion when negotiating, etc. Thus, students are supposed to actively engage themselves in oral classroom interactions. Particularly for EFL students who learn English as foreign language, their success in learning English could be indicated through the use of the language in spoken and written modes fluently and accurately.

Nevertheless, for EFL students who particularly learn English as foreign language, learning English in CLT context tends to be challenging due to several factors such as (1) self-confidence (Derakhsan et al., 2015; Cutrone, 2009); (2) motivation (Bahous et al., 2011; Diaz-Ducca, 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Kang, 2005; Khatibi & Zakeri, 2014; Leger & Storch, 2009); (3) lack of understanding on the materials due to language barriers (Ferris & Tagg, 1998; Rao, 2002); (4) personal characters (Chen, 2003; Gan et al., 2004); (5) diverse sociocultural backgrounds (Aghazadeh & Abedi, 2014; Chen, 2003; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Jones, 1999; Liu, 2002; Rao, 2002); and (6) teachers' domination in learning (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). In a particular situation, those six factors were inextricably interwoven that they may affect the quality of students' negotiating participation in class.

Self confidence. Several studies discovered that self-confidence became a factor affecting the dynamic of students' oral participation during the teaching and learning process (AbuSeileek, 2012; Derakhsan et al., 2015; Cutrone, 2009; Mak, 2011; Zhang & Rahimi, 2014). Mak (2011) conducted a quantitative study on 313 freshmen in a university in Hong Kong with the purpose of investigating factors that may influence students' anxiety in speaking in English in class. Mak employed a question-

naire, semi-structured interview, and observation to collect data. By applying factor analysis to analyze the data, Mak discovered five factors influencing the students' anxiety to interact orally in EFL speaking class; those were (1) the speaking anxiety and the fear of negative evaluation; (2) feeling uncomfortable when speaking to native speakers; (3) negative attitude to English class; (4) negative personal evaluation; and (5) the fear of failure in class. Besides, Mak explained that there were some additional factors that might contribute as the causes to the low self-confidence when speaking English particularly when speaking in front of the class without preparation, being corrected when speaking, and being not allowed to use their mother tongue at all in class.

Cutrone (2009) reviewed literature on the Japanese EFL students' anxiety in speaking English. Cutrone explained that lack of confidence was not the only factors causing anxiety to students. He elaborated that the lack of confidence was also caused by the students' silence, the difference between Japanese culture which tended to be passive and western culture which tended to be active, and the negative reaction from the teacher on the students' arguments. In short, the context of the class plays a role in affecting the quality of the students' negotiating participation.

A study by Zhang and Rahimi (2014) about the students' perception on the grammatical correction given by teachers when they were speaking. Zhang and Rahimi conducted a survey on 160 students consisting of 80 male and 80 female students in three language institutions in Iran. Zhang and Rahimi investigated the correlation between correction done by teachers when students were speaking and the students' anxiety levels. According to

the data collected, Zhang and Rahimi elaborated that although students still had high anxiety levels when speaking English, they were aware of the importance of the grammatical correction given by the teacher when they were speaking after getting an explanation about the purposes and types of the correction given.

Motivation. The second factor is motivation. A number of previous studies indicated that motivation could be a highly influential factor in determining the students' success in learning English (Bahous et al., 2011; Diaz-Ducca, 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Kang, 2005; Khatibi & Zakeri, 2014; Lee, 2014; Leger & Storch, 2009; Murakami et al., 2012; Paker & Karaagac, 2015; Peng, 2012; Wang, 2014). A willingness to communicate is the most basic component for communication (Khatibi & Zakeri, 2014); thus, students should feel highly motivated to actively participate in oral class interaction (Huang et al, 2015). Peng (2012) conducted a case study on four EFL students in a university in China. Peng concluded that students' motivation to participate in class negotiation is closely related to several factors such as: (1) linguistic knowledge including vocabulary and grammar, (2) interest in materials discussed, and (3) class atmosphere.

Besides, two studies indicated that the use of mother tongue can motivate students to be more active to orally participate in class. McMillan and Rivers (2011) conducting an online survey about various issues in English language teaching and learning on freshmen in 2008 revealed that mother tongue that used to be seen as an impediment for students to actively participate in oral discussion had become an effective support to help students improve their speaking skills if used appropriately and optimally. Paker and Karaagac (2015) who

employed mixed-methods to investigate students' motivation in orally participate in class discussion indicated that the use of mother tongue and English learning are inextricably interwoven. Paker and Karaagac emphasized that mother tongue functions as "rapport building purposes, making the topic/ meaning clear (by giving examples, explaining, making extra explanations, etc.), explaining difficult concepts or ideas, etc" (p. 117). In short, mother tongue plays an important role to help students understand the teaching and learning process, so that they can feel more motivated to orally participate in class.

Cultural backgrounds. The third factor influencing the quality of students' negotiating participation in class is culture. There are some cultural problems such as culture affecting personal characters (Chen, 2003; Gan et al, 2004), diverse cultural background (Aghazadeh & Abedi, 2014; Chen, 2003; Ho & Crookall, 1995; Jones, 1999; Lee, 2014; Liu, 2002; Rahimian, 2015; Rao, 2002), and teaching method which teachers tend to dominate (Liu & Littlewood, 1997) which cause students tend to be reluctant to orally participate in class. Aghazadeh and Abedi (2014) conducted a survey on freshmen in a university in Iran about their perception of oral participation in class. They indicated that there were some factors causing silence in class; those were (1) students' personal characters, (2) students' perception to give logical opinion, and (3) teachers who tend to provide negative evaluation. Marlina (2009) conducting a case study on East Asian students in an EFL class in a university in Australia showed that most of East Asian students in that class learned the language passively in which it may be caused by the classical teaching of Confucius which obliged the students to obey

superiors, in this case teachers. Marlina underlined that it made them reluctant to deliver their opinion to the class.

Chen (2003) conducting a case study for a semester on two international students in an ESL class in a university in the United States of America indicated that their passiveness to participate in oral discussion might have been caused by (1) students' diverse cultural backgrounds which demanded them to adapt to the environment in which this process made the students tend to feel uncomfortable in conveying their thoughts, and (2) students' personal characters which tend to be quiet. In summary, cultural issues are inextricably intertwined with English teaching and learning in which they plays a significant role to the quality of students' negotiating participation in the class.

THE ROLE OF TEACHER AND PEERS

Teacher and peers play a significant role in the development of student's language skills, including their oral participation quality in the class. In line with sociocultural theory by Vygotsky, teacher positively contributes to the quality of students' oral participation by becoming (1) a lesson planner including determining teaching methods and strategies needed, (2) a guide through learning activities, critical inquiry, and fair opportunities to participate in discussion, and (3) a monitor of teaching and learning process (Atas, 2015; Bejarano et al, 1997; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Khaliliaqdam, 2014; Kumazawa, 2013; Lee & Liang, 2012; Li, 2011; Salahshour & Hajizadeh, 2013; Sani, 2014). This argument is supported by Duff and Uchida (1997) who carried out an ethnographic study for six months on four EFL teachers. Duff and Uchida indicated that teacher must be aware of and un-

derstand their roles in four aspects: (1) understanding each class' complexities, (2) always updating her understanding of class situation, (3) strongly controlling the teaching and learning process in relation with diverse students' characters, and (4) always holding contextual learning by integrating students' diverse backgrounds. Consequently, Duff and Uchida elaborated that teacher could make students comfortable to participate in oral discussions.

Beside teachers, peers play a vital role to the quality of students' oral participation in EFL class. Several studies suggested that by giving students opportunities to interact orally with their peers, the students with lower level of speaking skill could learn more from the students with higher level of speaking skill; therefore, at the same time, both parties could foster their speaking skills to be more accurate and fluent (Khaliliaqdam, 2014; Murakami et al, 2012; Murphey et al, 2014). Falout, Fukuda, and Fukada (2014) carried out a class action research on freshmen in Japan for four years. Murphey et al discovered that exchanging thoughts and ideas in discussing a topic could motivate students to engage in class discussion. In accordance with the study, Khaliliaqdam (2014) conducted a case study on 25 students of EFL speaking class in an Iranian language institution. Khaliliaqdam uncovered that Vygotsky's theory of zone proximal development that emphasized the role of peers in teaching and learning process could be a potential alternative to improve students' speaking ability. Khaliliaqdam added that students found a comfort to express their difficulties in speaking English and ask for help to solve them.

Based on the previous studies, it can be concluded that the quality of students' oral participa-

tion in class is inseparable from the roles of teacher and peers. Practically, both aspects are inextricably interwoven.

METHODS

A qualitative case study was conducted on 24 first-year university students majoring in English Diploma Program. Among those 24 students, 10 were males, 14 were females. The class was determined based on convenience. In this case, teacher could not choose their own students in the class. She was assigned to a certain EFL speaking class.

The case study was conducted for three months or 11 meetings. The meeting was held once a week according to the university academic calendar. Open-ended questionnaire, observation, and in-depth interview were employed to collect data. In terms of the questionnaire, 5 item open-ended questionnaire was constructed by taking previous studies into consideration. Those five items consisted of students' topic interest, anxiety, self-confidence, and their perceptions upon the role of teachers and peers in the classroom. In particular, this open-ended questionnaire was employed as a replacement of interview in order to obtain particular information from students in the eighth meeting.

Then, an in-depth interview was conducted as a follow-up in response to the results of open-ended questionnaire in the eleventh meeting. In this circumstance, a random sampling was drawn from one-fourth of the class for the interview to further investigate the role of teacher and peer in helping the students orally participate in the classroom. Further, Burns' (1999) reflective and analytical observation notes was used to decode data acquired from observation. In the end, patterns of the three

data acquired from open-ended questionnaire, in-depth interview, and observation were searched to yield conclusive analyses about the role of teacher and peer in helping the students orally participate in an EFL classroom.

FINDINGS

The present study attempted to discover the role of teacher and peer in helping students orally participate in an EFL classroom. Data collected from open-ended questionnaire, in-depth interview, and observation yield a pattern that describes the role of teacher and peer regarding the students' motivation to orally participate in the class. In particular, the description of the results of the study is broken down into two sub-topics including (1) social context of the classroom, and (2) evaluation of student learning.

Social context of the classroom. In general, the students were chatty when they were allowed to speak in their native languages. The class would be very noisy talking about their private lives. But, things were different when they had to interact in English. At the beginning of the course, the students tended to be shy to participate in a class oral-discussion. In this case, class discussion was voluntary. Many students tended to be silent throughout the discussion. When being asked to introduce themselves, all students kept their introduction short. They hardly interacted with their peers, and kept silent after fulfilling the task. As the time went by, a few particular students were actively orally participating in the discussion; whereas, others were quiet. Five of them were females, and two of them were males. Six of them, five females and one male, always sat in the front rows; and one of them which was male always sat down in the back. Throughout

the eleven meetings, these seven students were the only students who consistently participate orally in the class discussion. The rest of them orally participated in the class discussion once a while, but mostly they were passive.

When discussing the materials, the teacher inquired them to help them understand the materials. Only the students sitting in the front rows and one male student sitting in the back actively answered the questions; whereas, others were quiet. For encouraging these quiet students, the teacher pointed a student sitting in the back, and inquired her to provide an opinion regarding the topic which was being discussed. Surprisingly, the student was able to deliver an opinion fluently. We may take a look at the following excerpt. (All names are pseudonyms)

Teacher : Melia, what is your favorite thing?

Melia : I love watching movies. I usually download the movie, or watch the movies in the cinema. Or, I get them from my friend.

Discovering this good news, the teacher pointed another student next to her, and asked her the same question. However, this student performed differently. She said, "uh uh uh...., I love.....cooking, Ma'am." in a soft voice and nervous gesture. Then, the teacher asked another student next to her with the same questions. This student was answering with very softer voice that her friends and the teacher barely heard what she was talking about. In short, throughout eleven meetings, this pattern repeats. Most of the students sitting on the back tended to be quiet, whereas, the students sitting in the front rows tended to be actively participating in the class discussion.

Doing roleplays were obligatory for each student

in every meeting. However, at the first three meetings, instead of doing roleplays, the students had to demonstrate their oral skills individually such as introducing themselves, talking about their daily activities and favorite things. Since introduction is basic, most of them did well. Nevertheless, they kept their introduction short. Secondly, when talking about their daily activities and favorite things, the students still tended to keep their monologue short. They ran out of ideas, and many of them spoke softly with many grammatical and pronunciation errors. Starting from the second and third meetings, there were some particular students that showed better speaking skills than the others, and some particular students whose speaking skill was the lowest of all. Then, throughout the next two meetings, the difference was getting visible.

The students with better speaking skill could speak English fluently. Even though they were still dealing with grammatical errors, they did not have any problems with their pronunciation, vocabulary choice, and sentence structure. These students were also the ones that consistently participated orally in the class discussion although they sometimes mixed English with their native language when expressing ideas. We may take a look at the following excerpt. (All names are pseudonyms)

Rendi : Ma'am, what is shredded?

Teacher: Anyone knows about it?

Mila: Slicing in thin sizes?

Rendi: Mengiris?

Teacher: What about the others? Do you agree? Or do you have different opinion?

Some students: I think mengiris.

Zaki: Slicing in a very thiiin size.

Teacher: What is the term in Bahasa Indonesia?

(The students seemed thinking about it, thus the class

was quiet.)

Teacher: Rosa (pseudonym), have an idea?

Rosa: No, Ma'am.

Dosen: Others?

(The students shook their heads.)

Teacher: What is the appropriate term in Indonesia for slicing very thin?

Talita&Mirna: Mencincang?

Despite using mixed language when expressing their ideas in the class discussion, they performed roleplays very well. Beside fulfilling what should be in the roleplays, these students also added a scenario and highlighted the expressions according to the contexts which they presented. For instance, when talking jobs, the students set a scenario in which they accidentally met in front of hospital. One of them was a nurse who was getting a break in a cafe in front of the hospital; whereas, another one played a role as a truck driver who also went to a cafe. Then they accidentally had a small talk there.

Whereas, the students with the lowest speaking skills tended to be passive during the class discussion, and they always sat in the back. One of them, named Rosa (pseudonym), hardly spoke. Once she spoke, she spoke incredibly soft, and mostly avoided answering the question by saying 'no'. Another one, named Lala (pseudonym), had very little English vocabulary. Thus, she always kept her speech short and monotone. Besides, there was another one, named Zaki (pseudonym), who was struggling to maintain a good sentence structure. In this circumstance, his sentence structure was mostly messy, and he was confused to differentiate which one is subject, predicate, and object. Further, these three students seemed to be the most nervous during

the speaking class compared to the other students.

It was the students' first semester in the college. Thus, the students just started to get familiar with one another. Starting from the sixth meeting, it was apparent that the students got used to one another, and they started to help one another to utter ideas fluently. The class discussion was getting more dynamic that some students other than the seven active students started to participate orally once a while. As the students were allowed to use native language when they got confused finding the English terms, they also looked more relaxed delivering their opinion in the class discussion. Based on the data collected, the students looked the most comfortable and sounded the noisiest when they talked about their topic interests. They admitted that it was easier to participate orally in the class or group conversation if talking about their favorite subjects such as hobbies, sports, music, foods, etc. In particular, they felt the most relaxed to talk about familiar subjects.

In general, the class was supportive. The more experienced students were willing to help the weak ones. For the convenience, they tended to mix L1 and L2 to convey clearer messages. We may take a look at the following excerpt. (All names are pseudonyms)

Kristo : Eh.. Dipanggang Bahasa Inggris apa rek?

Danu : Grilled.

Kristo : Oh ya. 'Grilled, please. Medium.' Bener ora rek?

Mario : Bener rek bener. Nek isa digawe luwih dawa luwih apik. Ben suwe percakapane.

Kristo : Piye rek? 'I want the chicken grilled. Medium.' Ngonono?

Mario : Iya, kuwi rada dawa. Eh, koen mengko aja lali mendeskripsikan menune.

Danu : Ohh.. Misal Kristo pesen *grilled chicken*, aku njelaske kui kaya apa ngono ya rek?

Mario : Yoi.

This kind of interaction frequently happened during the preparation stage before performing roleplays. However, the three students with the lowest speaking skills were seen to be passive in this stage. They frequently looked insecure and down to see their friends to be actively and cheerfully communicating with their groups. The two females of the three were often in the same group. When they worked in pairs, they kept their conversation short. On one hand, Lala frequently shied away from working harder to generate English expressions. When she faced difficulties generating longer explanation, she directly cut her words. On the other hand, Rosa frequently gave up with the situation, so when Lala barely talked, she ended the conversation. Thus, both of them frequently looked desperate after doing roleplays.

Zaki mingled with the other boys in the class. Even though he was the weakest in group for not being able to construct sentences in the correct order, his friends never complained, and kept the conversation flow well. Nevertheless, in the questionnaire and interview, Zaki admitted that he was uncomfortable when working in groups because he felt being left out. In this case, he was shy to ask for help from his peers, and once he asked for help, his male friends did not sufficiently help him, and told him to just calm down.

Beside those three students, the majority of the students looked comfortable interacting with their friends in L1 and L2. Although they had diverse levels of speaking skill, they always looked enthusiastic and optimistic. Some of the students admit-

ted in the interview that their peers gave them motivation to always improve their confidence to speak. We may take a look at the following interview excerpt with Lita (pseudonym).

Teacher: What is the thing which helps you improve your confidence in speaking English?

Lita: Speaking in front of my friends was not my thing. It was also hard to participate in the class discussion. So, when I did roleplays, I felt nervous. But, I find a friend with whom I interact the most comfortably. So, so far I enjoy the class very much.

It showed that peers played an important role to motivate students orally participate in the class. Considering the data collected from three data sources, peers played an important roles in creating a positive learning atmosphere by motivating one another through feedbacks, jokes, and words of encouragement. Nevertheless, the students instinctively grouped with the students they felt the most comfortable to interact with. Therefore, the groups always consisted of the same members. It did good for the students with high level of speaking abilities, but it did the worst for the students with the lowest level of speaking abilities had no chance to improve their oral participation due to their low confidence and limited abilities.

After the sixth meeting, the teacher started to mix the students into different groups every week. In this circumstance, she paired the high-achieving students with the low-achieving students for peer-tutoring. The class was getting chaotic because they had to adapt with different partners. In the end, this instruction yielded a good effect for the low-achieving ones. Based on the data collected from interview, they admitted that they felt less nervous when performing with the high-achieving

ones. They elaborated that the high-achieving students tutored them patiently during the preparation stage. From the observation, it was apparent that when performing roleplays, Lala who tended to avoid longer talk could speak a little bit longer and did not cut the sentences in the middle. Rosa who always gave up with the situation could elaborate her explanation and even make a scenario together with her high-achieving partner. In this case, she looked particularly more confident. Whereas, Zaki showed an improvement in the sentence structure, and started to get bigger portion in the roleplays.

Despite challenges which the high-achieving students received, they admitted that they felt happy to help the low-achieving students improve their oral participation. We can take a look at the following of interview with Eliza (all names were pseudonym).

Teacher: What do you feel about changing partners every week?

Eliza: At first, I did not feel comfortable with it. I think I could have done better with my original partner. I am paired once with Zaki. Hmm.. It is pretty good because I can help him a little. He doesn't like to get help from others. Semacam gengsi. But, I told him to get help from other friends. He is a hardworking person. So, he can improve his participation in the conversation.

The excerpt above showed that peers can motivate one another to get more confident and open to receive help from the others, and more courageous to apply the feedbacks to improve their oral participation.

Evaluation of student learning. Secondly, in terms of evaluation of student learning, the stu-

dents were highly encouraged to actively participate in class discussions, and demonstrate roleplays based on a given topic. In the end of the course, the students are expected to be able to actively participate in interpersonal and transactional conversations. Throughout 11 meetings, the topics varied, and the students were provided by a teaching module, so that they could learn the materials including particular expressions used in certain topics before the class. During the meetings, the teacher usually provided supplementary materials to help the students attain broader knowledge of a given topic.

The results of the study indicated that most of the students reluctantly read the materials before the class. Thus, the teacher had to allocate certain time to help them comprehend the materials before doing roleplays. In this circumstance, the teacher facilitated them to get familiar with the topic through a class discussion. She provided a series of inquiries to scaffold the students' understanding, and a conversation modelling to give a clear picture of what the conversation was about. When doing the class discussion, only a few students consistently participated orally in the discussion. The other several students sitting in the front rows sometimes orally participated in the discussion, whereas, the students sitting in the back were mostly quiet. Nevertheless, some of the quiet students had a good speaking skills. From the questionnaire and interview, it was discovered that they were not comfortable to speak in a big forum. Thus, they chose to be quiet. Based on the data acquired from the observation, these students participated well during roleplays in which the groups were much smaller, and it was obligatory for each student to participate in the roleplays.

After doing the roleplays, the teacher always provided every student with feedbacks. These feedbacks aimed to inform the students their performance strengths and weaknesses, and advise them what to do to deal with their weaknesses. Throughout the eleven meetings, the students gradually applied the feedbacks to their oral participation even though each of them had different rates of improvement. Besides, some of them sometimes were stuck in their situations because they did not know what and when to start applying the feedbacks. Responding to this situation, the teacher paired these low-achieving students with the higher-achieving students for peer tutoring. Moreover, she personally approached the students to help them discover their barriers and a solution to solve the barriers.

The data gathered from questionnaire and interview revealed a pattern that the students felt motivated through the inquiries, and the feedbacks given. We may take a look at the following excerpt taken from questionnaire.

- 1) The teacher's been very helpful by speaking English every day in the class and asking our opinion about anything in English.
- 2) My teacher always gives us practice (speaking practice) that we have to do with our friends every week. So it very improve our English, firstly we still shy to speak in English but so far.....we can speak English more and more fluently.
- 3) Give a feedback but actually the teacher already good because she's never getting mad and very patiently. And its really help me. Because before I love the lesson, I love the lecture first.
- 4) Actually I admire her for being my lecture because She always give me a feedback after we have an assessment and it's really help me be-

cause from the feedback I know on which point I've go wrong.

- 5) Actually, I love her teach us. Because after we practice our practice, she will give us feedback and make us to get more spirit to learn our speaking skill.
- 6) By giving a feedback for a good future.
- 7) My teacher always help me to improve my speaking skill. Every subject my teacher make conversation for students. It's great!

Then, from an excerpt taken from the interview, the students also admitted that the teacher positively affected the development of oral participation. Take a look at the following excerpt taken from the interview with Marina (pseudonym).

Teacher: Menurut kamu kelas speaking ini menyenangkan atau susah?(*What do you think about this speaking class, is it fun or not?*)

Marina: Menyenangkan Ma'am. Saya menyukainya karena sering praktek dan dapat feedback setelahnya. (*It is fun, Ma'am. I love it because we get to practice our speaking skill a lot, and get feedbacks after the practices.*)

Beside the teacher, based on the data collected indicated that the peers also contributed to motivating the students to improve their oral participation in the class. We may take a look at the following excerpt taken from the questionnaire.

- 1) Really good, they say the correct answer and help me correct the wrong one.
- 2) Very helpful. Sometimes when my pronounce is wrong my friends comment and correct my pronounce.
- 3) Help by giving me the meaning of words.
- 4) Gives another sentence for me which is more

right that mine. Helping translate a word that I don't know.

- 5) My friends always help me to improve my speaking skill. They always talk to me if my speaking pronunciation is wrong.
- 6) Helping me how to pronoun word; give a feedback.
- 7) Helpful. Because my friends and I always sharing about how to improve my speaking or my friend speaking. And, we always support each other. And, sometimes, my friends comment if I have wrong, they will correctly my pronounce.
- 8) (1) They give me a comment when I've wrong in pronoun something; (2) they show me the easiest way to have speaking with their way, sometimes they like to have a sharing.
- 9) (1) helping me about pronoun; (2) give a feedback
- 10) Sometimes my friend talking with me in English and it helps me to improve my English.
- 11) Honestly, we seldom speak English to teach each other unless it comes when we talk about movie we'll mention our favorite quotes from the movie and suddenly we speak in English after that.
- 12) My friends is very help me too. Like they are always give me a motivation and supports me when I was doing a mistakes when I try to improve my speaking skills.

It was strengthened by the data taken from an interview with Zaki and Maryam (pseudonyms)

Teacher : Selama ini teman – teman membantu nggak dalam perkembangan partisipasi kamu di dalam kelas dan kelompok? (*So far, did your friends help you improve your participation in class and group?*)

Maryam: Sangat membantu Ma'am. Mereka anaknya asik – asik. Kalau ada kesusahan saya minta bantuan mereka. Misalnya tidak tahu Bahasa Inggrisnya atau kalau ada topik pembicaraan yang lagi hot. (They are very helpful, Ma'am. They are fun friends. I ask for their help whenever I find difficulties. For example, when I don't know the English vocabulary or the hot-but-ton topics.)

Teacher: Sering membantu atau menerima bantuan? (Which one does you more frequently do? Giving help or receiving help?)

Maryam: Sama – sama sih Ma'am. Saling membantu. Hehehehe (tersenyum) (Both of them, Ma'am. We help one another.)

Teacher: Biasanya Zaki minta bantuan sama temen nggak? (Do you usually ask for your friends' help?)

Zaki: Iya Bu. (Yes, Ma'am)

Teacher: Dibantuin? (Do they help you?)

Zaki: Iya Bu. (Yes, Ma'am.)

Teacher : Contoh bantuannya apa? (Give me examples.)

Zaki: Misalnya kalau tidak tahu kata – kata dalam bahasa Inggris. (For example, when I did not English terms for particular words.)

Teacher: Ada lagi? (Anything else?)

Zaki: Mengoreksi kalimat saya yang salah. (Correcting my incorrect sentences.)

Teacher: Struktur kalimat? Atau bagaimana? (The sentence structure or what?)

Zaki: Ya, strukture kalimat. (Yes, the sentence structure.)

Both data sources were strengthened by data collected from observation. The three students with the lowest speaking skills seemed less nervous,

and they showed an improvement in their group oral participation. The highest-achieving students consistently demonstrated a good oral participation in both class and group discussions, but they obtained an added value by helping their friends with lower speaking skills. The rest of the students in the middle rate of achievements continuously showed enthusiasm to improve their oral participation in both class and group discussions. From the three data sources, it can be concluded that teacher and peer play an important role to help the students orally participate in the class for both class discussions and group performance.

DISCUSSIONS

According to the findings, the progress of students' oral participation throughout the three-month qualitative case study could be influenced by some factors such as (1) personal characters (Chen, 2003; Gan et al., 2004), in this case being passive and quiet during class discussions, (2) anxiety (Cutrone, 2009), (3) self-confidence (Derakhsan et al., 2015; Cutrone, 2009); and (4) motivation (Bahous et al., 2011; Diaz-Ducca, 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Kang, 2005; Khatibi & Zakeri, 2014; Leger & Storch, 2009), particularly when teacher and peers were involved.

By taking all aspects into account, students demonstrating active oral participation and students demonstrating less active oral participation may yield a causal relationship in terms of oral participation in the classroom. In this case, students possessing quiet personality tended to be passive during class discussions, but some of them were active during group roleplays. It showed that they became more motivated to participate orally in group roleplays because they would get certain feedback

on their oral performance. That evidence showed that scaffolding through teacher's feedback positively motivated the students to actively participate in oral interactions (Bahaous et al., 2001; Diaz-Ducca, 2014).

Besides, based on the data acquired from the observation and interview, the students that stayed passive in both class and group interactions tended to have an issue of anxiety and low-confidence. First, they were not confident with their speaking ability, so they tended to be passive in class discussions. When they were forced to participate orally in the classroom, they were anxious demonstrating their oral participation. For instance, when Rosa was asked by the teacher what her opinion was regarding a certain topic, she directly say 'I have no opinion' to save herself from talking longer. Another example was when Lala was asked, she said 'uh...uh...uh...uh....' and kept her response short because she was panic and could not generate longer response. In the next meetings, when their friends were getting more enthusiastic participating orally in both group and oral discussions, they felt intimidated and more anxious to participate orally. In this circumstance, instead of joining different groups, they tended to team up for group discussion for six weeks. Consequently, two of them kept struggling to show improvement every week. They tended to shut themselves down, and give up in every performance. The phenomenon showed that students' personal characters contributed to the students' progress in oral participation (Aghazadeh & Abedi, 2014; Chen, 2003; Cutrone, 2009; Gan et al., 2004). It was solely based the students' choice to move forward or get stuck.

Within the phenomena of students' oral participation, teacher and peers played a significant

role in providing a positive learning atmosphere for the students to foster their oral participation. On one hand, based on the socio-constructivism theory (Vygotsky, 1978), the teacher as the more experienced one became a lesson designer in choosing appropriate methods and strategies to be applied in the classroom. In this circumstance, the teacher provided a set of social practices for the students to participate orally such as mini-lesson, class discussion, and group roleplays. Moreover, along with Vygotsky's Zone Proximal Development, the teacher provided scaffolding through feedback after group roleplays to help the students reflect on their practices. It was also the teacher's way to monitor the students' progress in participating orally in the classroom (Atas, 2015; Bejarano et al, 1997; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Khaliliaqdam, 2014; Kumazawa, 2013; Lee & Liang, 2012; Li, 2011; Salahshour & Hajizadeh, 2013; Sani, 2014). On the other hand, among students, the more experienced ones helped the less experienced ones to solve problems in the process of participating orally in the classroom such as providing feedbacks on their peers' performance, and informing the accurate pronunciation of certain vocabulary. The students' positive responses to help their peers cope with their problems could motivate them to actively involve themselves participate orally in the classroom (Murphey et al., 2014).

Oral interaction throughout three-month qualitative case study revealed the use of L1 in facilitating the students grasp better understanding of the materials being discussed. In the observation excerpt, *Bahasa Indonesia* as the students' mother tongue was frequently used between students to understand particular vocabulary. In this circumstance, the use of L1 had shown positive contribu-

tion to the students' learning process (Paker & Karagaagac, 2015; Rivers, 2011) because it provided comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) for the students to get better understanding of the context being discussed. As a result of understanding the context, the students felt more confident to participate orally in the classroom.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, students' personal characters and feelings played a significant role in the progress of their oral participation in the classroom throughout the three-month qualitative case study. In this case, the role of teacher and peers was inextricably intertwined with the students' oral participation in classroom. First, a teacher played a significant role as the more experienced one by providing a set of social practices for the students to demonstrate their knowledge (Atwell, 1998), giving feedback on the students' oral interaction as the way to monitor their learning progress (Atas, 2015; Bejarano et al, 1997; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Khaliliaqdam, 2014; Kumazawa, 2013; Lee & Liang, 2012; Li, 2011; Salahshour & Hajizadeh, 2013; Sani, 2014), and providing scaffolding by inquiring the students to monitor their understanding upon particular subjects (Vygotsky, 1978). Second, peers may positively contribute to the progress of the students' oral participation in the class by motivating them through feedbacks of performance, fun activities, and words of encouragement. In the student-student interaction, by getting positive responses from their peers when communicating their problems, it made students more comfortable and uplifted their confidence to participate orally in the classroom (Peng, 2012).

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54-67

Challenges in Teaching English Faced by English Teachers at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia

ABSTRACT

Teaching English as a foreign language is a challenging task, particularly when it is done in places where English serves a very limited purpose. This study attempted to investigate English teaching challenges as well as the solutions taken by the English teachers at MTsN Taliwang. The study captured the English teachers' point of view in facing English teaching challenges in the classroom and the solutions they implemented to solve them through interview. A number of challenges emerged, partly coming from students, partly from teachers, and partly from the school's facility. Students are challenged by their lack of vocabulary mastery, low concentration, lack of discipline, boredom, and speaking problem. Meanwhile, teachers' challenges are shortage of teachers' training, language proficiency issue, limited mastery of teaching methods, unfamiliarity to IT, and lack of professional development. In addition, facilities issues including inadequate resources and facilities, and time constraint. The solutions to overcome these challenges were also suggested in this study. The efforts taken are divided into two; efforts done by the school and by the English teachers. Reforming attitude and improving resources and facilities are the solutions taken by MTsN Taliwang. On the other hand, applying various teaching methods and techniques, matching students' proficiency level and learning situation, making use of available resources and facilities, providing motivational feedback, looking for appropriate methods or materials, and teachers' self-reflection are the English teachers' efforts in tackling English teaching challenges.

Keywords: teaching, English language, challenges, solutions

INTRODUCTION

Teaching a language has many different features. A teacher does not only teach

and pay attention to students' language skills, such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking, but also helps, facilitates, and encourages students to have enthusiasm, good attitude, and motivation towards English. Furthermore, teachers have to understand what students learn, how and why such learning influences them, how lessons could be beneficial for them in the future (Derakhshan, 2015). Hence, language teaching requires teachers to teach students to develop both academic and personal abilities.

However, teaching English becomes a crucial issue when it is taught as a foreign language. Teaching English as a foreign language is a demanding task when it comes to the places where English serves limited exposure (Khan, 2011). It was shown by the researcher's teaching experience in several schools in Yogyakarta. She encountered various challenges in teaching English, including lack of English exposure, classroom size, and shortage of English teachers. Challenges regarding shortage of English teachers should not have happened since there is a great number of English graduates in Indonesia, particularly in Yogyakarta. According to statistics which were taken from official online database of some universities in Yogyakarta, the researcher has found about 240 English education students graduate from five universities in a year.

Furthermore, the kind of challenges faced by the researcher in her teaching practice exists in Yogyakarta, one of the developed areas in Indonesia, which likely has enough English graduates, competent teachers, and English exposures, such as books and other language learning facilities. If such challenges are still encountered in several schools in a developed area, let alone in schools in a rural area. Mishra (2015) asserted that "the rural areas

lack good schools having proper ambiance and affordability which cater to the changing needs and expectations of the crass" (p. 38). For that reason, the researcher is interested in finding a wider range of challenges in teaching English especially in a rural area that is Taliwang city of West Sumbawa.

Teaching English in Indonesian Context

English is taught and used as a foreign language in Indonesia. The fact that English is one of the most essential international languages for communication has been acknowledged by the Indonesian government since its independence; therefore, the government has recommended that English become a compulsory subject in secondary schools (Nurkamto, 2003). Furthermore, Lie (2007) also argues that "the maintenance of English as a foreign language has been steady as it is officially taught throughout the secondary schools" (p. 2). Lie (2007) also stated that there has been a tendency in several big cities in Indonesia to teach English starting from the lower grades of primary schools and even from kindergarten.

The aim of teaching English in schools is based on the Decree of the Minister of Education and Culture No. 060/U/1993 dated 25 February 1993 and the 1989 Constitution on the System of National Education that the final goal of the English subject at the schools is to enable the students to be proficient in English in the globalization era (Rachmajanti, 2008). Meanwhile, Nurkamto (2003) asserts that "the aim of the teaching of English in the schools has been to develop the students' communicative competence that would help the students in their university education" (p. 287).

However, these aims have never been satisfactorily achieved. Although English is officially taught throughout secondary schools, competence and

proficiency in this foreign language among high schools are generally low (Lie, 2007; Nurkamto, 2003). Learners find English particularly difficult when they are instructed to state their opinion in English (Nurkamto, 2003). There are only few students who are able to learn English to the next level, especially those who come from the middle and upper socio-economic classes. Such students have “the easy access and opportunity to enhance their English proficiency through private courses, computer-aided language instruction, and exposure through Western influences, TV channels, and foreign movies” (Lie, 2007, p. 3). In addition, Lie (2007) added that outside the academic and professional worlds, English has never been widely used as the lingua franca of the majority of the population. This is because the geographic position of Indonesia is far away from English-speaking countries as well as several particular cultural values that to some extent, cannot motivate students to study English (Nurkamto, 2003).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Generally, teaching English might seem similar to any other teaching, yet it has its own unique challenges. These challenges exist in various forms. A number of studies have discussed these challenges along with their solutions. Below are the challenges encountered in English teaching.

Severe shortage of training. In some countries, problems regarding a severe shortage of trained English teachers are reported (Nunan, 2003; Salahuddin, Khan, & Rahman, 2013; Nurkamto, 2003). Thus, teachers might “find themselves teaching English either without sufficient English training generally or in teaching English to learners particularly and such thing frequently occurs in

poor or rural area” (Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011, p. 740). Since teachers may get only basic preparation in the supportive theory and practical applications, they may then struggle for embodying teaching methods effectively (Bulter, 2005; Littlewood, 2007). Emery (2012) outlines some issues that occur because of insufficient preparation for teaching: teachers’ inability to deal with challenges that take place in teaching context because of the lack of training, teachers’ poor language ability, and teachers whose English is not their subject area are hired to teach it. Such challenges take place in a rural area because rural areas lack proper and good teaching and learning tools (Mishra, 2015). Furthermore, English teaching process tends to be challenging when it comes to the teachers’ qualification, language proficiency level, and training since these points can cause teachers’ confidence (Emery, 2012). Teachers whose teaching training is not enough might strive to embody teaching methods effectively (Littlewood, 2007). Applying appropriate teaching methods and techniques is tough because the teachers do not merely think of how to transfer four language skills, but also how to remain students’ motivation and enthusiasm in learning and practicing English (Ansari, 2012).

Crowded class. According to Emery (2012), one of the most often mentioned problems encountered by English teachers is that “overcrowded classes and the effect of such condition can have on teaching and learning” (p. 4). Nurkamto (2003) also lists one of the challenges in teaching English that is the size of the classroom. Likewise, Baker and Westrup (2000) state several problems of teaching large classes, such as “desks and chairs are fixed or difficult to move; students sit close together in

rows; little space for the teacher and students to move in the classroom; walls between classrooms are thin, and noise will disturb other classes" (p. 2). Consequently, it is necessary that teaching and learning process requires comfortable and enjoyable atmosphere, otherwise, teachers might be in failure to fulfill students' need and achieve learning goals.

Lack of vocabulary. Hasan (2016) states that one of the most challenging tasks students encountered is mastering vocabulary. Maruyama (1996) as cited in Hoa and Mai (2016) point the reason why students lack vocabulary, i.e. "students believed that they did not need to know words because they were not common, even rarely used in their daily lives, therefore, they have no motivation to learn the words" (p. 155). Consequently, students in English as a foreign language context are limited by their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary of the target language and have to struggle to comprehend the content (Chung, 2016).

Lack of English exposure. Teaching English as a foreign language is a challenging duty in the places where English has inadequate exposure. Lack of English exposure also serves less opportunity for students to use English. Khan (2011) argues that the lack of English purposes demotivate students to practice and understand English due to students' insufficient background knowledge of English. Moreover, it gets more difficult for teachers to encourage students to be enthusiastic in using English due to the lack of English exposure (Khan, 2011).

Limited resource accessibility. Another challenge in English language teaching is the issue of resources. Garton et al (2014) states that "in some countries, such as South Korea and Malaysia, text-

books are set; in Singapore and China, teachers can select from government-approved books, yet, it is a matter that in many countries appropriate books are either not available or not used in the classroom" (p. 740). Furthermore, Ajibola (2010) argues that "the inadequacy of resources also constitutes a trial to the English teaching and the larger number of students is the large number of sources is needed" (p. 97). In addition, lack of facilities and equipment hinder teachers to embody an effective teaching process (Fatiloro, 2015; Nurkamto, 2003). Pande (2013) puts forward that "language could only be understood by practicing all the four skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing" (p. 417). Hence, the availability of teaching aids holds vital role and needs to be provided as soon as possible, otherwise teachers will not be able to teach effectively. In other words, to get students familiar with English and to provide them sufficient with exposure of target language, the amount of learning resources are in dire need.

Linguistic problems. Mukattash (1983) categorized English teaching challenges that are encountered into two: first, most inaccuracies done regarding the pronunciation, morphology, syntax, and spelling; second, most of students have problems in expressing themselves when using English. The first issue is also strengthened by Khan (2011) that "specific problem connected to pronunciation, stress, and intonation become problem for students" (p. 72). As a consequence, these linguistic problems are found in all language skills, which make students demotivated in practicing a target language. Another issue regarding linguistic problem is first language or mother tongue interference. Both teachers and students frequently talk using their mother-tongue language which uncon-

sciously affects their English performance (Fatiloro, 2015). Additionally, Pande (2013) describes when teacher and students speak in their mother-tongue, they sometimes use English words in the midst of the sentences and disremember that every language varies in stress, intonation, and pronunciation.

Psychological problems. Pande (2013) asserts that "it is a common misinterpretation among students that English is the most difficult of all subjects" (p. 416). Similarly, Fatiloro (2015) states that the challenging difficulty in teaching English as a foreign language is meeting students' awful attitude in practicing English. For instance, students can be fearful to speak in front of their classmates, particularly when it comes to the presence of a competitive student in the classroom. Another example is related to students who enroll in English courses outside schools. According to Khajloo (2013), these students have higher academic level than others and when they "listen to repetitive low-level content for them, they find it unattractive and boring" (p. 57). Such psychological issues can affect students' motivation and learning attitude toward English language.

Solutions to Solve English Teaching Challenges

The discussions below are only the solutions for some English teaching problems, and the rest are not yet found. Nevertheless, to some extent, these solutions can be used and referred to a certain problem.

Attitude reform. The English language teaching and learning "should be examined in order to deal with the challenges, it can be done through reforming attitude" (Fatiloro, 2015, p. 29). Fatiloro (2015) also adds that an absolute commitment to comprehend English should be made among teachers and students. In addition, Pande (2013) proposes

one way to reform attitude is that "the place of English in education system and policy should be well-defined" (p. 418). Another way is asserted by August and Shanahan (2006) who say that in order to embody an effective teaching, teachers have to ask students to understand native language and similarity of native language and mother tongue. In summary, reforming attitude involves not only teachers and students, but also government in order to come up with precise education system.

Different teaching methods and techniques application. There are numerous methods of language teaching that can be implemented. Fatiloro (2015) argues that "in handling English teaching problems, teachers must use a variety of methods for teaching English language" (p. 29). In addition, Pande (2013) also believes that through applying various methods, particularly in matching the method and teaching topic, it will help teachers to establish an effective teaching process. Additionally, applying various techniques in language teaching should be taken into account because it will enable teachers to create suitable condition for students in learning English as well as help students to deal with their learning challenges (Holensinská, 2006). Therefore, students can be helped in their language learning when teachers understand what best teaching methods or technique meet the need of students.

Teaching facilities improvement. English teaching will not achieve its objectives if the teaching tools are not backed up. Hence, "special effort should be made to ensure that teachers get proper teaching facilities, including space, books, and teaching aids" (Pande, 2013, p. 419). It is necessary to "confront facilitation of teaching tools as to empower teaching and learning English" (Fatiloro,

2015, p. 29). Thus, teaching a language needs equipment, particularly for those who teach in the milieu where English exposure is limited.

Students' level match. Since students' educational background in learning English, personality, goals, age, and learning style are different, it is imperative to come up with helpful ideas to dealing with such multilevel class. There are several ways to handle such issue, "it can be begun from the lesson planning should contain leveled tasks using a variety of groupings and throughout the practice of the lesson, students' assignments are leveled based on their language skills" (Roberts, 2007, pp. 2-3). Roberts (2007) also adds that teacher's own version of textbook can be used to develop leveled task since it is considered effective when it covers various tasks for students whose level is different. It is also suggested by Pande (2013) that teachers should be patient in teaching different ability of students and striving for matching level with students. As a result, since English level of students in classroom might be uneven, teachers have to provide appropriate tasks for meeting and improving students' language level.

Classroom management. Based on the Virginia Department of Education (2006), understanding English and creating English language's exposure for students can be done through managing classroom. For instance, "designing a classroom which expresses cultural diversity, considering seating positions for cooperative learning activity, building a classroom library containing age-appropriate books with various reading levels" (p. 19). Those are the ways to manage classroom in order to get students familiar with and get used to use target language.

Teacher's reflection. Christodoulou (2010) put

forward that one of the most important aspects of teaching is self-reflection. Teachers should be all aware of their acting, such as knowing consequence of everything they do as well as finding solutions or suggestion in a teaching and learning situation. Additionally, self-reflection are included in the essential teaching skill. Self-reflection consists of knowing how to act "in interaction with pupils, their parents, and colleagues at school" (Christodoulou, 2010, p. 19).

Methodology

This present research was conducted at MTsN Taliwang, located at Poto Village, Taliwang, West Sumbawa, West Nusa Tenggara Province. MTsN Taliwang is the only school which is located in the outskirts of Taliwang city compared to the other schools. The location receives attention from learners who come from other rural areas of West Sumbawa. According to the researcher's observation, among four secondary schools in Taliwang city, MTsN Taliwang was the only school whose teachers and students were from remote areas of West Sumbawa Regency. It means that the students and teachers were those who lived in Taliwang city and the other parts of West Sumbawa, while the other schools' students and teachers were mostly the residents of Taliwang city. Taliwang city is the capital city of West Sumbawa. This may indicate that the people are more developed than the people from other cities.

The participants of the research were the English teachers of MTsN Taliwang. Initially, the participants consisted of five teachers. However, at the end, there were only four participants because one participant was doing pilgrimage. The participants consisted of three females and one male. Purposive sampling was applied in selecting the research

participants. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), "purposive sampling is undertaken for several kinds of research including: to achieve representativeness, to enable comparisons to be made, to focus on specific, unique issues or cases" (p. 80). A group of English teachers at MTsN Taliwang were chosen because of some criteria. First, they have joined and participated in teaching training in and outside the school. Second, they have contributed and taught English for more than five years.

In order to obtain better understanding of the phenomenon, in-depth interview was applied using mixed language of both Indonesian language and Sumbawa language (local language). Member checking was also done in this study. The researcher used initial for all participants, there were the first participant (P1), second participant (P2), third participant (P3), and fourth participant (P4).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The challenges in teaching English faced by the teachers at MTsN Taliwang

The challenges found are varied in which they are related to the students, the teachers, and the facilities.

Students' side. The findings revealed that challenges in teaching English comes from students as well. These challenges are students' lack of vocabulary mastery, students' low concentration, lack of parents' support, lack of discipline, boredom, and speaking problem.

Students' lack of vocabulary mastery. P1 and P4 stated that one of the challenges in teaching English in classroom is students' lack of vocabulary mastery. It hindered the students' understanding of the subject. "...some students might have lack of vocabulary mastery which makes them not ac-

tively participate in class" argued P1. In addition, P4 asserted that the main challenge in achieving teaching and learning goal was students' lack of vocabulary mastery. With regard to this issue, Hasan (2016) states that one of the most challenging tasks that students encountered is mastering vocabulary. Maruyama (1996) as cited by Hoa and Mai (2016) also points out one of three reasons why students have lack of vocabulary mastery is because English is not used by students in their daily life which make them feel not need to learn the words.

Students' lack of parents' support. P1 and P4 concluded that lack of students' motivation can be caused by the absence of their parents' support. P1 elaborated her experience in which she once caught a student who did not bring any books to school due to forgetfulness, while the other students intentionally left their books in the desk of the classroom. This participant believed that such things would not have happened if students' parents supervised and controlled their children's learning at home. Meanwhile, P4 made a comparison between the motivation of students' parents who lived in Taliwang city and the students' parents who lived in the rural areas of Taliwang. He elaborated that the motivation of the parents who live in the city is high. They let their children master English by having a private course in their home or sending them to English courses. On the other hand, the parents who lived in rural areas only expect the school to be the place where their children get knowledge. Copland, Garton, and Burns (2014) state that students do not have any ideas on the purpose of learning English, "an attitude which may be exacerbated by their parents" (p. 747).

Students' low concentration. Students' low concentration in classroom causes challenges in compre-

hending knowledge transferred by the teacher. P1 argued that teaching goal could not be achieved one hundred percent because some of students do not concentrate in classroom. As described by the participant that when she was explaining a certain topic, the teaching process was interrupted by students who were busy in talking and doing other things. Therefore, she needed to stop and give the students advices. Khajloo (2013) says that students do not concentrate in learning English, otherwise, they will do their best and get good scores.

Students' lack of discipline. Discipline issue was linked to the classification of the students' class. As P1 described that such issue is not encountered in class E, in which it is the class of smart students, yet it is faced the other classes (Class A, B, C, and D). Copland, Garton, and Burns (2014) found that discipline problems were related to "the age and sex of students, differentiation, parental attitudes, inexperience, not sharing the learners' first language, and keeping the students motivated" (p. 746).

Students' boredom. P2 argued that some of her students get bored in studying English when she teaches a certain topic of the subject. It is because some of her students have already studied that in their primary schools and private courses. Ajibola (2010) and Khajloo (2013) indicated that these students have higher academic level than others and when they listen to repetitive low-level content for them, they find it unattractive and boring.

Speaking problem. The comments about getting students to speak were stated by two participants. P3 and P4 similarly stated that making students speak is quite difficult. Each of them mentioned students' problems in speaking performance.

Pronunciation problem. P3 put forward, "most of

students commit errors in pronouncing words." This corresponds to Mukattash (1983) who found that most inaccuracies done regarding the pronunciation, morphology, syntax, and spelling. This is also strengthened by Khan (2011) that "specific problem connected to pronunciation, stress, and intonation become problem for students" (p. 72).

Confidence issue. Students are timid in performing their speaking skill. P3 argued, "...when I ask my students to retell what they have written in their diary and speak in front of their classmates, they get timid." This was also reinforced by P4 that "students' speaking skill is not improved since most of students are timid." Copland, Garton, and Burns (2014) that many children are timid in front of their classmates, particularly in speaking a foreign language since it can be face-threatening. Another thing is that most of students are afraid of making mistakes, especially in pronouncing or spelling incorrect words. P4 stated, "...there is no improvement in students' speaking skill because they are mostly afraid of making mistakes." This finding goes hand in hand with the statement of P2 in which there are some students who have studied English outside the school which can make other students are afraid. Fatiloro (2015) said that the presence of a competitive student in the classroom make other students have awful attitude.

Teachers' side. Challenges in teaching English are also faced because of teachers' limited teaching knowledge and development. English teaching challenges from teachers' perspectives including shortage of training, limited mastery of teaching methods, unfamiliarity to IT, and lack of professional development.

Shortage of teachers' training. The most common comments were about the shortage of trainings

experienced by all participants. They all were in agreement that English teaching training is in dire need. P1 said, "...if I may conclude, my English teaching training experience is insufficient." It was also argued by P3 that "although I have joined a number of training, it is still not enough." Most of teachers in poor or rural area find themselves teaching English without sufficient English training (Copland, Garton, & Burns, 2014).

Meanwhile, P2 showed dissatisfaction with herself in which she asserted, "...perhaps I am the one who does not develop myself through joining training and updating English teaching innovation in education." It was also stated by P1, "I sometimes feel unconfident in what and how I teach." These are corresponding with the study done by Emery (2012) that English teaching process tends to be challenging when it comes to the teachers' teaching qualification, language proficiency level, and training since these points can cause teachers' confidence.

Limited mastery of teaching methods. Applying various teaching methods is tough for P1 and P2. One of them argued that her teaching method is monotonous. "...my teaching method is monotonous. I enter the class, I teach, I close the class by giving them suggestion to join study club. That is all." Implementing various teaching methods and techniques is difficult because the teachers do not merely think of how to transfer four language skills, but also how to remain students' motivation and enthusiasm in learning and practicing English (Ansari, 2012).

Unfamiliarity to IT. One participant admitted that she did not involve electronic devices when she was teaching in the classroom. P2 stated, "...to be honest, I have no idea how to use electronic devices,

such as LCD projector, laptop, online stuff, and so on." Conley (2010) says that "teachers often struggle with an inadequate knowledge of specific technology, technology-supported pedagogy, and technology-related-classroom management."

Teacher's lack of professional development. Developing English teaching ability really depends on the teacher's motivation. It was only P2 who reflected her teaching ability during interview. She admitted, "...perhaps, I do not try to develop and enrich myself with training and innovation in English language teaching." In addition, she described the difficulty she faced in teaching songs to students. In K13 (Curriculum of 2013) there is a topic about songs in which she sometimes does not teach it because she cannot sing. Another thing is that regarding teacher's unfamiliarity to IT, P2 found it reluctant to practice or take TOEFL test.

Facilities issue. In facilities issue, it covers not only about the things concern with facilities provided and time devoted, but also the support facilitated by students' parents to learn English.

Inadequate resources and facilities. P3 described that the availability of K13-based books were barely provided, especially books for the seventh grade students. Additionally, all participants agreed that the available facilities in the school did not support English teaching and learning process. P1 and P4 mentioned that devices such as LCD projector and sound system were very limited in which there was only one device that could be used by all teachers. Such inadequacy "constitutes a challenge to the teaching of English in which large numbers of students require a large number of resources" (Ajibola, 2010, p. 97). Ajibola (2010) also added that ensuring the availability of sufficient textbooks, computers, listening devices, hands-on tools, and other

teaching instruments is a challenging assignment.

Time constraint. Three participants considered that the time provided was not enough to apply teaching ideas in the classroom as well as to improve their own professional development. Time provided to teach English was only two hours for each meeting, to be exact, 40 minutes in every meeting, whereas, these participants expect that the ideal time to teach English is 90 minutes for each meeting.

"...teaching English within two hours seems not possible because it requires extra effort to explain the lesson under the lack of books" said P1. Khajloo (2013) in which "some experts complain about the amount of time devoted to the course and believe that in many cases teachers cannot teach all subjects in this limited time" (p. 56).

Likewise, P4 often planned to play games in his class but due to the time constraint, only few of them were implemented. Moreover, related to professional development, P2 is the one who was unfamiliar to high-tech cannot learn IT well since she only has 30 minutes for recess and such amount of time might be used to either correcting students' assignments or doing personal stuffs. On the other hand, P4 was the only teacher who had many responsibilities since he was the students' supervisor in which he had to teach and be involved in students' extracurricular activities. P4 stated, "as soon as I wanted to take an online TOEFL test, I had to postpone it because I have students' parents to meet, students' problems to solve, and students' activities to attend."

THE SOLUTIONS IMPLEMENTED

Reforming attitude. Reforming attitude can be done through the efforts of students, teachers, and

school in improving English teaching and learning. Fatiloro (2015) argues that an absolute commitment to comprehend English language should be made among teachers and students. P4 explained the effort done by the school in facilitating students to learn English through holding study club as well as facilitating teachers through workshop or training in which the school invited speakers from Mataram, including IAIN Mataram (State Islamic University of Mataram) and *Lembaga Penjamin Mutu Pendidikan* (Education Quality Assurance Agency) to give a lecture and training about teaching materials, media, and teaching methods. Ajibola (2010) states one way to overcome shortage of teachers' training is holding professional development activity for teachers by having partnership with universities and experts.

Applying various teaching methods and techniques. Three participants varied their teaching methods and techniques in the classroom. Fatiloro (2015) asserts that "in handling English teaching problems, teachers must use a variety of methods for teaching English language" (p. 29). P1 used pictures and role-plays in teaching since "students often feel more attracted towards images and photographs" (Mishra, 2015, p. 42) and teachers are advised to use role play activity in order to motivate students and to help the less motivated learners take part in the lesson (Alexenoamen, 2010). P3 and P4 implemented monthly diary writing and applied various games to improve their students' vocabulary mastery. In addition, based on the Virginia Department of Education (2006), understanding English for students can be done through managing classroom. P1 described that if she finds students do not concentrate, she would point them out and tell them to stop their activity. Brewster,

Ellis, and Girad (2002), when a teacher wants to gain students' attention, it can be done through "firmly name the children who still talking and say *stop talking please* and maintain eye contact" (p. 221). Another thing P1 would do for disciplined and misbehaved students were control and give them punishment. Additionally, P2 would not hesitate to involve smart students; those who have learned English outside the school to help her in teaching certain topic of the subject. Furthermore, in dealing with students' lack of vocabulary mastery, two participants ask students to bring dictionary when they have English class or study club activity in the school. In fact, P3 would provide the list of vocabulary behind the copies of the materials she is about to teach. Fatiloro (2015) says that dictionaries, grammar guides, and the web should always be as the tool for consultation when teaching and learning English. Another way is, as the three participants argued that they always look for suitable teaching materials and methods in order to solve students' challenges in learning English. P4 uses dialogues in order to teach pronunciation and structures that ha have searched. Meanwhile, in teaching listening, P3 let students listen to the songs she has downloaded. P2 would search for songs on the internet although she does not know how to sing them.

Improving resources and facilities. Regarding the shortage of books, P2 whose job was also as the financial manager of *Bantuan Operasional Sekolah* (School Operational Assistance) stated that every year, the school always made efforts to complete and provided books in the library and free WiFi. Special efforts should be made for ensuring that teachers receive proper teaching facilities, including space, books, and teaching aids (Pande, 2013).

Matching students' proficiency level and learning

situation. The way to match students' level and learning circumstance can be done by lesson planning (Roberts, 2007). All participants admitted that they did some revision in lesson plan. P3 focused on simplifying learning objectives which was more easily to be understood by students. P1 tended to consider availability of real examples around them that could be used in English teaching. Meanwhile, P1 and P2 would select simple words and diction to be used in teaching English when they explain the material. On the other hand, P3 and P4 consented to consider students' social and financial circumstances in which they would not give homework that would spend money.

Making use of available resources and facilities. P1 and P2 were in agreement that they made use of available books in order to solve the shortage of K13 (Curriculum of 2013) books. They also argued that they still use KTSP (School-Based Curriculum) books if the topic discussed was similar. Furthermore, P2 preferred to use anything provided in the classroom i.e. chairs, whiteboard, window, and so on to be learning tools. On the other hand, since there was very limited device of sound system, P3 teaches listening only through her own voice. Mishra (2015) that "rural areas lack in the required ambience, teachers can make much use of the easily available resources" (p. 42).

Providing motivational feedback. The way to improve students' motivation in learning English was by giving them motivational feedback. Three participants frequently did that. P2 said, "...regarding students' interest towards English, I keep giving them advices to keep studying" (P2.21). P3 also added, "...for passive students, I often give them motivational feedback" (P3.40). Likewise, P4 stated, "...the first thing I do for students whose motiva-

tion is low is motivating them orally" (P4.10).

Teachers' self-reflection. Christodoulou (2010) puts forward that one of the most important aspects of teaching are self-reflection and self-evaluation since they are included in essential teaching skill. P2 reflected that students' interests toward English depended on her teaching methods. "I think students' interests really depend on teaching methods and techniques that I use, yet the fact is I have limited teaching methods mastery" she said. In addition, since she realized that her technology ability was low, she would try to learn it independently. P1 and P3 concern more on their language proficiency in which they sometime spent time to listen to songs to improve their vocabulary mastery and took online TOEFL.

CONCLUSION

This research has highlighted a wide range of issues faced in teaching English at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia. This study shows that the teachers were challenged by their lack of training, limited mastery of teaching methods, unfamiliarity to IT, lack of professional development, inadequate facilities and resources, and time constraint. On the other hand, the other challenges coming from students' side including lack of vocabulary mastery, low concentration, lack of discipline, students' boredom, and speaking problem.

In order to face these issues, this study also found the strategies implemented by the participants of the research. Each of them had his/her own strategies in overcoming their teaching challenges in classroom, such as reforming attitude that is done by the school and the teachers at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia including holding study club and teachers' training as well as improving facilities and re-

sources. The other strategies implemented by the participants when teaching in the classroom were applying various teaching methods and techniques, matching students' proficiency level and learning situation, managing classroom, making use of available resources, giving motivational feedback, and doing self-reflection.

Nevertheless, the readers should evaluate the results of this study. The findings of the present study cannot be generalized because the findings suggest localized challenges in teaching English, which is at MTsN Taliwang, Indonesia. Even in the school's context, each English teacher encounters different challenges. Therefore, for teachers, the findings can be whether applicable in teaching process or not based on the readers' real environment. In addition, the absence of one participant in the current study might affect the findings in which the researcher was unable to investigate broad perspectives of the teacher.

Furthermore, future investigation into challenges in teaching English might usefully focus on students' attitude diversity in classrooms and training that participants have joined in. Despite the fact that not all students have discipline issue in learning English, in this case, it is only encountered in class A, B, C, and D, as well as not all training support and empower teachers' teaching ability in the classroom, i.e. some of the participants mentioned the teaching training of *Musyawah Guru Mata Pelajaran* (MGMP) that, to some extent, does not support teachers in teaching English. This indicates that there are tendencies to be studied in more detail.

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