Indonesian EFL Journal is published twice a year in the months of July and December, this journal presents articles on English language teaching and learning, linguistics, and literature.

Chief Editor: Yazid Basthomi
Managing Editor: Hari Prastyo

Reviewers:
Rick Arruda, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia
Peter Mickan, University of Adelaide, Australia
Didi Sukyadi, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia
Mohammad Adnan Latief, Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia
Joko Nurkamto, Universitas Sebelas Maret Solo, Indonesia
Slamet Setiawan, Universitas Negeri Surabaya, Indonesia
Like Rascova Oktaberlina, UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang, Indonesia
Dedi Sulaeman, UIN Sunan Gunung Jati Bandung, Indonesia
Tien Rafida, UIN Sumatra Utara, Indonesia
Abdul Gafur Marzuki, IAIN, Palu, Indonesia

Editor and Administration Address:
Language Center of Institute for Islamic Studies of Uluwiyah Mojokerto, Indonesia
Jalan Raya Mojokerto Mojosari KM. 4 Mojokerto Tlp 0321-592783

Indonesian EFL Journal invites articles that have never been published elsewhere. Please see Guidelines for Article Contributors on the inside back cover of this Journal, and the Checklist for Article Writers provided at the back pages of this Journal.

Indonesian EFL Journal is published by Language Center of Institute for Islamic Studies of Uluwiyah Mojokerto, Indonesia
# TABLE OF CONTENT

**BETWEEN SCHOOL AND CAMPUS: PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ EXPERIENCES AT TEACHING PRACTICUM**  
Wakhid Nashruddin

01-19

**ANALYZING THE PATTERN OF L1 SOUNDS ON L2 SOUNDS PRODUCED BY JAVANESE STUDENTS OF STKIP PGRI JOMBANG**  
Daning Hentasmaka

20-30

**APPLYING PQ4R STRATEGY FOR TEACHING READING**  
Moh. Rodli

31-41

**TELLING A STORY FROM WATCHING A MOVIE POTENTIALLY IMPROVING STUDENTS’ ORAL COMMUNICATION**  
Lia Agustina

42-53

**TEACHING REPORT TEXT USING SPEAKING PROMPT**  
Sunarti

54-67

**STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION OF ENGLISH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES AND STRATEGIES**  
Fetty Poerwita Sary

68-81

---

**Acknowledgements**

**Guidelines for Contributors**
PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ EXPERIENCES AT TEACHING PRACTICUM

Wakhid Nashruddin
wahid1n@yahoo.co.id

IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon, Indonesia

Abstract: For many years, the teaching and learning English (as a foreign language) in Indonesia has been considered unfruitful for students’ low ability in using the language in communication. For many times, government (as the leader of schools) and campus (as teacher producer) do not sit together to discuss this problem. This results to gaps between school and campus. I am interested in seeing this problem by viewing gaps occur in the process of campus preparing qualified English teachers. This paper will tell the result of my interviews with pre-service teachers about their experiences at teaching practicum program.

Key words: gaps between school and campus, pre-service teachers’ experiences, teaching practicum

Introduction

The emergence of new curriculum in Indonesia, the curriculum 2013, emerges some queries from many sides; teachers, parents, educational practitioners, and even students. Some reasons come up, such as the claim that schools failed to implement the school based curriculum, the lack of supports in the teaching and learning, and the low quality of teachers. These reasons bring further analysis, that teachers were mostly blamed for their failure to develop the school based curriculum. Teachers were just regarded to be too lazy to adapt the standards of content and to produce the correct indicators for the objective of the teaching and learning. On the other side, teachers, then, blamed the government for it does not support the teachers to understand the curriculum. Teachers get confused for the changes of the curriculum from time to time. Then the two sides blame each other. This is just an example how the emergence of the new curriculum brings up some issues.

Indonesia, unlike some other countries, is centralistic, mainly in the area of education policy. Curriculum is designed by government and then applied by schools in the country. This is different with what other countries apply. United States, for example, let the states provide their standards of curriculum, which is known as Common Core State Standards (CCSS) (Yardley, 2013). These standards can be referred by schools as much as they need.
In US, there are also schools which set up their own standards or curriculum. So, unlike US government, the government of the Republic of Indonesia controls the standards, the goals, and the curriculum at schools.

The claim that schools, also the teachers, are not serious in applying the school based curriculum has been raised by some sides. Wahidah (2013), for instance, says that she has never seen a real school based curriculum, as schools just take the curriculum from teachers’ union, or from disreputable and unclear sources. This brings to the fact that school based curriculum fails to attain its main purpose, that is incorporating school’s need into the curriculum. Different schools have different background, culture, and situations that different schools need a slightly different curriculum. It becomes hard to implement curriculum from one school to different schools as what it is.

Teacher, as the main core of the implementation of school based curriculum, are forced to design the curriculum. Teachers’ creativity was a must in the implementation of the school based curriculum. So, high qualified teachers are needed as they play the most important role in the teaching and learning process.

Some attentions have been paid to the area of English teachers’ professional development. Saukah (2009) pays a great attention to the new Laws & Regulations Affecting English Language Teacher Education, they are the National System of Education Act No. 20/2003, the Government Regulation No. 19/2005 on the National Standards of Education, the Teachers and Lecturers Act No. 14, 2005, the Government Regulation No. 74/2008 on Teachers, and he Minister of National Education Decree No. 8/2009 on Teachers’ Professional Education Program. These, according to him, bring to a very crucial move on “standardizing English language teacher education in Indonesia.” Saukah believes that many universities running English language education do not have standards in producing qualified English teachers.

Rukmini (2009), on the other hand, was curious with the real quality of graduates of English language education program. She was interested in portraying the junior high school English teachers’ linguistic competence. The teachers in Rukmini’s study failed in the teacher’s certification program. She regards that their “linguistic competence does not tend to be satisfactory.” Her analysis was that “this is mostly caused by their choice of lexical items and grammar used to create the texts. While the sociocultural competence, the generic structures of the texts are likely to be satisfactory.” In relation to Saukah’s idea, it can be seen that the standards of English teachers in Indonesia is still questionable.

There are some ways in improving teachers’ competence in teaching English. For teachers, they can take graduate degrees, join workshops, participate in seminars, and
participate in conferences. For pre-service teachers, in the beginning stage, it can be by being involved in teaching practicum, the pre-service teachers’ first experiences involved in the real teaching and learning process and activities at school. This makes teaching practicum becomes important in teachers’ training.

A study conducted by Riesky (2013) was about pre-service teachers’ difficulties in teaching practicum. She did interviews with her respondents and concludes that there are three types of problems faced by preservice teachers in their teaching practicum. The problems are related to students at the schools where the teaching practicum were held, to the supervising teachers at the schools where the teaching practicum were held, and to the preservice teachers themselves (Riesky, 2013: 250). Furthermore, she reported that “from the total of forty teaching difficulties reported, 25 of them (62.5%) are related to the students they teach; 12 of them (30%) are related to their personal competence; and 3 of them (7.5%) are related to their supervising teachers at schools” (Riesky, 2013: 256). This study shows that pre-service teachers should prepare themselves in facing different kinds of problems when they get into teaching practicum program.

I was also interested in learning from my own teaching practicum program. I reflected on a teaching practice session when I took my masters’ degree. I found out that teaching practicum program gave many lessons for the participant (Nashruddin, 2010). “Lesson plan, trainee’s mastery of the lesson, trainee’s teaching techniques / performance, trainee’s classroom management, trainee’s use of English should be considered for the sake of quality of the teaching and learning activity” (Nashruddin, 2010). In my previous study, the teaching practicum was in form of peer teaching.

The current study sees teaching practicum in the form of pre-service teachers involved at activities at schools, facing real situations at school. They met members of schools, a headmaster, teachers (purposively English teachers), students, and other elements around schools. This teaching practicum program surely provided rich experience and familiarity with the real state of being teachers. This research does not only discuss pre-service teachers’ problems (as Riesky (2013) did), but also the lessons they got from teaching practicum.

Looking into Riesky’s study (2013), it seems to me that, when looking at the findings of this study, there are gaps between school and campus. In my understanding, there must be “something wrong” with campus, or with school. However, looking into the results of my previous study (Nashruddin, 2010), teaching practicum (in this current study is school) can provide lessons for pre-service teachers. In sum, I would like to address the gaps between school and campus.
The question raised in this research was “What gaps occur between school and campus?” So, the purpose of the study is to understand and to clarify gaps occur between school and campus. The usefulness of this study is to get a better understanding on the relationship between school and campus.

I limited this research only at the pre-service teachers’ experience during a teaching practicum program. For now, I do not have enough chance to broaden the discussion from other sides’ perspective. I did not talk to headmasters and English teachers in which the pre-service teachers did the teaching practicum. Perhaps further study can study deeply from these sides’ perspectives.

To clarify terms used in this paper, some definitions need clarifications; they are school, campus, pre-service teachers, and teaching practicum program.

School is a place for students of high schools to learn and get education, in term of skills and knowledge (in this paper, skills and knowledge are in English language learning).

In this paper, campus refers to refers to schools of education of universities or institutes of education where the students learn and prepare themselves to be teachers, in this case English teachers.

Pre-service teachers or learner teachers or student teachers refer to students of schools of education of universities or institutes of education. These terms will be used interchangeably with students, respectively.

Teaching practicum program is a program prepared by campus (schools of education of universities or institutes of education), in cooperation with schools, to provide learner teachers to work in a real situation and condition as real teachers.

**SCHOOL AND CAMPUS**

School and campus are two sides that should have mutual relationship and partnership. Schools need campuses as the “producers” of teachers, and campuses need school as the “users” of campuses’ products. However, this view is not the only view of this kind of relationship. Schools, on the other hand, are the places for campuses to understand better the real situation in the teaching and learning process.

School can be defined as a place where formal education takes place. School is “a place where children go to be educated” (CALD, 2008: 1273). So, the purpose of schooling is to get educated. It is the job of the school to ensure that the teaching and learning run well and come to the parents and the students’ expectations.

Campus can be described as a place for students, after graduating from high school, to continue their studies and gain a degree. Hornby (1995: 161) defines campus as “(US) a
university or branch of a university” (OALD, 1995: 161). It can also refer to an institution which its job is to produce scholars in the areas of concern.

In this study, campus is seen as an institution which provides future teachers. Campus is responsible for the quality insurance of future teachers. In this way, campus should work on ensuring how the process of producing good teachers could happen.

TEACHING PRACTICUM

Teaching practicum is very important in giving learner teachers a chance to work as real teachers. As Richards & Schmidt (2010: 589) define it, teaching practicum is “(in teacher education) opportunities provided for a student teacher to gain teaching experience, usually through working with an experienced teacher –the co-operating teacher– for a period of time by teaching that teacher’s class). This kind of internship supplies learner teachers the real conditions of the classroom; the atmosphere, the students, and real problems in classroom management. These experiences can be different with what they learn at campus.

Teaching practicum is a compulsory subject in school of education. Normally, there are some other courses that relate and are requisite before students taking teaching practicum. Those subjects may be method of teaching, TEFL, curriculum and material development, testing language proficiency, educational psychology, and microteaching. These subjects are foundations before students taking teaching practicum subject.

In teaching practicum, students are placed at schools and learn to live as real teachers, with almost all loaded that teachers have. Of course, pre-service teachers only practice working with those loaded, while the responsibility of the completion of the teachers’ jobs is still at the teacher’s hands. Teaching, receptionist shifting, organizing students’ unions, and managing the library are some of the teachers’ jobs to fulfill.

METHOD

The respondents in this study were students from English Language Education Department of a state institute in Cirebon. They had taken all subjects taught in campus, including method of TEFL, curriculum development, and testing language proficiency. The students’ names are Ara, Olive, Lisna, and Rofi. They had undergone three-month experience in teaching practicum from January to March 2013.

This study is qualitative in nature, which it seeks for description of a case. The data gathered in this study were from interview with the four students who did teaching practicum in four schools. The interviews were conducted from 9 to 13 June 2013.
There were ten questions raised to the students. The questions and answers were delivered in Bahasa Indonesia. The purpose of this is to ease students’ express what they have in their mind.

The questions raised were about their feelings during the teaching practicum program, the benefits they can take from the program, interesting things during the teaching practicum program, the subject which they took or did not take at campus, the gaps between school and campus, and other things they wanted to note. The detail question in English version is provided in the Appendix 1.

In this article, the data, i.e. the answers of the questions in the interviews, will be discussed in form of description and interpretation of the students’ answers. It will mainly quote what students told about things related to the teaching practicum program; how they felt, the benefits they took, and other things referring to the questions raised.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Students’ Feeling in the Teaching Practicum Program at School

Overall, the respondents think that the teaching practicum program is good, interesting, and fruitful for them. Furthermore, when they were asked about their feeling in the beginning, during, and in the end of the teaching practicum program, they felt three different phases; anxiety, settle down, and relief. The three phases are internalized in students’ experience.

In the beginning, the pre-service teachers feel afraid, worried, and nervous; as described by Lisna, Ara, and Olive.

“Deg-degan, gemeter, karena belum pernah ngajar sebelumnya.” (Lisna)
(My heart beat fast; I was shaking, because I’ve never taught before.)

“In the beginning, my heart beat fast, I also am nervous, ... because I’ve never been a teacher before.” (Ara)

“Awal pasti deg-degan, grogi, nervous, karena menghadapi orang-orang baru, lingkungan gurunya, anak-anaknya juga baru. Terus selain deg-degan juga ada rasa penasaran dan exited, seneng, pengen ngajar, sampe kebawanya gugup, jadi demam panggung” (Olive)
(In the beginning, my heart beat fast, worried, nervous, because I was going to see new people, teachers, environment, and the kids are also new. Besides, I was also curious and exited, happy, wanted to teach, until I became nervous, and become stage fright.)
All respondents in this research feel anxious, worried, and nervous in facing teaching practicum program at school. This is mainly because they never teach high school students. Two of them had ever taught English, but not in formal schools. All of them might have done some presentations, but only in front of their classmates, friends they are familiar with.

However, after they started their first days, they felt settle down with the condition at schools. Schools are cooperative in making students feel comfortable. As Lisna described:

“Allak kalau sudah terbiasa. ... Udas sering liat materinya, anak-anaknya sudah kenal, karakternya.” (Lisna)
(It’s nice when we get used to, ... After I often see the materials, the kids and I had known each other, their characters.)

In the end, the students felt relief after completing their teaching practicum program. They felt that they had accomplished a journey in shaping their teaching.

“Secara keseluruhan seneng.” (Lisna)
(Overall, I feel happy.)

Benefits from the Teaching Practicum Program

When the students were asked to describe what benefits they can take from the teaching practicum program, getting lots of experience is an answer that all respondents agree on. Experiences that they got range from experiences of facing different kinds of students, teachers, and other people related to schools—places they will work.

“Untuk melatih kita sebelum jadi guru, latihan” (Lisna)
(To train us before becoming teachers, to practice.)

“Kita terjun ke dunia yang nantinya kita disana, disini tuh kaya dikarantina dulu ibaratnya, terus disana baru dicoba” (Olive)
(We went into the world where we will live, so it is like being quarantined first, then out there we will be tested.)

“Kita latihan disini, teman-temannya udah pada pinter” (Lisna)
(When we practiced here at campus, our friends are smart.)

So the main point from teaching practicum is to provide time for pre-service teachers to engage with the real situation of being real teachers. The fact that experience is the main concern that the students really care about is undeniable. Therefore, teaching practicum
becomes a very important program that cannot be dropped from the curriculum of English language education department.

**Interesting Things during the Teaching Practicum Program**

Students spotted different kinds of interesting problems, or mainly problems, in some areas, they are the uneven distribution of pre-service teachers’ place for practicum and the different lesson plan formats. These two things get their attention. Ara discussed the first issue by saying:

“Komplain sekolah terhadap kampus adalah mengenai penempatan mahasiswa ... sedangkan sekolah itu sudah bosan dengan prodi bahasa Arab dan bahasa Inggris, pengennya prodi yang lain ... kampusnya membaginya kurang rata” (Ara)

(School’s complain on campus was about the students placement at schools ... in fact that school had enough with students from Arabic and English education department, they want to have students from other departments ... the campus did not distribute the students evenly.)

On the other hand, Olive and Lisna paid attention to the second thing, as they portrayed:

“Di kampus tuh RPP begini, disana guru pamong dan dosen pembimbing beda.” (Olive)

(At campus, the format of the lesson plan is in a certain format, at school, the teacher showed a different format and the lecturer also used a different format of the lesson plan.)

“Kita biasanya buat sesuai guru pamong.” (Lisna)

(We normally made the lesson plan according to the format from the teacher.)

The format of the lesson plan was finally taken from the teachers at school. This fact shows that teachers at school should be up to date as they become examples for pre-service teachers. If the teachers are left behind, in some aspects, they will teach wrong or inappropriate examples.

Talking about the headmasters, students were of the opinion that the headmasters at their teaching practicum places are nice. They had good impression on the headmaster welcoming them. Olive, Lisna, and Ara described what they feel. Lisna and Olive a little bit doubt on commenting the headmasters, except they told me that the headmasters are kindhearted. Olive and Lisna said that the headmasters were rarely seen at school:

“Kepala sekolahnya jarang ke sekolah.” (Olive, Lisna)

(The headmaster rarely came to school.)

“Dateng pagi, belum siang sudah pulang. Ngga sempet ngobrol banyak.” (Lisna)
(He came early in the morning, but not long time at school, he went off. We did not have chances to talk.)

Ara, on the other hand, thinks that the headmaster was very kind. She often met the headmaster as the pre-service teachers at this school were asked to submit the lesson plans they had made. Here is what Ara experienced, contrasting Olive and Lisna’s experiences:

“Ngga, saya sering. Kan RPP harus ditandatangani kepala sekolah. ... Satu hari sebelum mengajar RPP harus sudah selesai. Jadi sering ketemu sama Pak Kepala Sekolahnya, sering dikasih motivasi.” (Ara)
(No, I often see him. In fact, the lesson plan should be signed by the headmaster....A day before teaching, the lesson plan should have already made. So, I often met the headmaster, he motivated me.)

Responding to Ara’s explanation, Lisna talked about her experience with the vice headmaster as he often reminded the pre-service teachers when they did not do their jobs. For example:

“Kalau jam 7 belum ada yang piket, sama wakasek dimarahin,ditelepon.” (Lisna)
(If the clock said 7 o’clock in the morning, the vice of headmaster would be angry, he even would phone us.)

At this point, the role of a headmaster is crucial in the formation of pre-service teachers’ characters. Showing good examples by meeting the pre-service teachers will leave good impression while showing bad examples by rarely meeting the pre-service teachers may leave two different impressions; the headmaster is kind or the headmaster seems to be do not care with the presence of pre-service teachers at teaching practicum program. The second one is not expected, of course.

The teachers have their own place in the pre-service teachers’ hearts as different teachers behaved differently. Most teachers felt happy with the presence of the pre-service teachers as pre-service teachers, in this case, would be able to help the teachers in doing their jobs. In fact, many teachers let the pre-service teachers entered the class without supervising the pre-service teachers. Lisna described her experience as follow:

“Waktu saya nggak pernah memantau. Kalau saya ngajar ya dibiarin aja masuk. Kata beliau udah lah, kan udah bisa dihandle.” (Lisna)
(In my practicum time, he never observed me teaching. When my schedule to teach came, he would just let me go to the class. He said: “go on, you can handle the class, can’t you?”)
Olive had unique experience, as she replaced the job of the teacher after a-month supervision. The teacher was pregnant, and after one month supervising Olive, she took a maternity leave. Here is what Olive said:

“Satu bulan masih ada bimbingan, itu juga nggga di kelas. Dua bulannya, cuti hamil. Malah saya ngelanjutin ngegantiin satu bulan setengah.” (Olive)
(In the first month, she guided me, though it was not at class. The next two months, she took a maternity leave. In fact, I replaced her while she was absent for the next one and a half month.)

It seems to me that school felt helped by the presence of pre-service teachers doing teaching practicum at school. Despite the fact that pre-service teachers are immature to handle the students, they were, in Olive’s case, trusted to handle students in some classes. The benefits can be taken from the two sides. The first, the school was assisted by the pre-service teacher’s existence, and the second, the pre-service teachers can get more time to practice their teaching and to learn more. This is good for school and pre-service teachers.

At the case with their friends, the pre-service teachers expressed their opinion by telling that some of them had problems with their friends. The main problem, in this case, was pre-service teachers’ discipline. Some of them did not do their jobs well, in relation to the activities that had been scheduled. Olive described her experience:

“Paling masalah piket, jarang masuk apalgi yang cowok.” (Olive)
(It’s all about the receptionist shift, my friends rarely came, mainly the boys.)

Different with Olive, Ara thinks that her friends were very cooperative that they did their jobs with good discipline.

“Rajin-rajin. Di saya mah setiap hari dijadwal.” (Ara)
(My friends were diligent. At the school, the schedule was for everyday.)

Talking about problems with themselves, the pre-service teachers in this study did not tell anything about it. They felt confident or perhaps too shy to admit their problems. In fact, the participant said that they did not have any problems from inside of themselves. This finding is not the same with the result of Riesky’s study (2013). In her study, the pre-service teachers found some problems related to themselves.

Other things they spotted were that the students, in the pre-service teachers’ experience, did not want to study seriously. The students just wanted to come and play without a clear purpose for learning at school. This is, of course, something that should
become our concern as the respondents in this study found that high school students, many of them, are not serious in attending schools. Or perhaps, they were too bored with the way the their teachers or pre-service teachers taught them.

“Anak-anaknya mintanya mainan terus. Games Bu, games.” (Lisna)
(The students asked to play games anytime. Ma’am, games!)

“Kalau 1 jam nggak usah masuk lagi Bu..kaya Bu N*** *.” (Lisna)
(If the time is only one session, you don’t need to come Ma’am, just like Ms. N****.)

The next thing spotted by Ara, and also agreed by all respondents, was that the fact that they were always compared to pre-service teachers from different campus. This can results to two ways; the first is that the pre-service teachers would feel down and do their jobs not seriously, or the second is that they will do their best as they do not want to be left behind. The second one is the expected outcome of such comparison. However, campus should be alert with such “competition,” that it should benefit in positive ways. Ara sharply said that:

“Kita tuh dibanding-bandgingin.” (Ara)
(We were often compared (with pre-service teachers from another campus).)

Another interesting problem is discipline in a private school. It was found out that in a school, the discipline is low. Olive described her experience:

(Olive)
(At the school, the class started at 12.40. If I wanted to come to the class, the students were not there, if I came at 13, the students said: Ma’am, don’t come to the school too early. So, I came to the class at 13.15, in fact, the class should end at 14.)

Useful Subjects during the Teaching Practicum

The respondents mention some subjects they took on campus, from English skills and components to methods of TEFL and curriculum and material development when they were asked about useful subjects during the teaching practicum. Rofi, Olive, Ara, and Lisna expresses their ideas:

“Iya, kaya listening, speaking, grammar.” (Rofi)
(Yup, just like listening, speaking, grammar.)
“Method of Teaching, TEFL, Curriculum, Psikologi Pendidikan.” (Rofi, Olive, Ara, Lisna)  
(Method of Teaching, TEFL, Curriculum, Educational Psychology.)

However, an interesting point was delivered by Lisna, telling that psycholinguistics subject was not delivered appropriately as she expected. The subject did not talk about the process of second language acquisition in which this is the most important discussion to be in the subject. Lisna expressed her disappointment:

“Psycholinguistics membahas language dari otak kanan, otak kiri, terus dyslexia.”  
(Lisna)  
(Psycholinguistics discussed language from the aspects of right brain, left brain, and dyslexia.)

In this case, it seems to me that the lecturer did not prepare the course very well, as the lecturer failed to meet pre-service teachers’ expectation in the study. In fact, need analysis is a very crucial component in preparing a subject. What students’ needs should be the materials in the subject.

**Fruitless Subjects in the Teaching Practicum**

It is interesting to note that some subjects in their study on campus do not directly useful during the teaching practicum program. These subjects are from the institution level, those form identity of graduates from the institution. As the students learn at an Islamic institute, there are some subjects that are used to understand Islam, and these subjects are not directly useful in the teaching practicum program. Nevertheless, the subjects are regarded beneficial to form the students’ characters as Muslims.

Different with other respondents that claimed that Islamic subjects were not useful, Olive felt that the subjects about Islam were beneficial for her. She replaced absent teachers and taught the subjects about Islamic education. She said that:

“Ketika harus ngegantiin..sering..tiga kali kayaknya. PAI pernah, matematika pernah.” (Olive)  
(When I had to replace absent teachers..often..three times, as I remember. Islamic education subject, also mathematics.)

Beneficial or not, subjects taken at campus are beneficial in different context. Those subjects, in which discuss Islamic education, can from, shape, and mold pre-service teachers’ characteristics. Religious teacher and teaching is in fact needed in nowadays
education at school (Chodijah, 2013). Teaching any subjects in Indonesia should include moral and religious teachings, although the second is still debatable (Chodijah, 2013). In fact, religious teaching is important to mold and shape students with “religious beliefs and practices” (Ornstein, Levine, Gutek, & Vocke, 2011: 88).

**Subjects Needed For Teaching Practicum**

Some subjects are needed to strengthen the students’ readiness in facing the teaching practicum program. Information technology, current issues in psychology (for understanding students), current curriculum, and library science are four subjects that, in the students’ minds, are necessary for them in their teaching lives.

“Kayaknya mengetahui karakteristik anak, pendekatan sama anak.” (Lisna)  
(I think to know and understand the students’ characteristics, how to approach students.)

Lisna, added one more subject that should be mastered by pre-service teachers. Information technology was very important as she was obliged to teach IT. She said that:

“Kalau Sabtu wajib ngajar TIK.” (Lisna)  
(On Saturday, it is a mandatory to teach IT.)

Rofi, added one more subject to be studied at campus. Library science is a subject that she found out to be needed at school. Schools have libraries, but many of them did not function properly. She replied about this enthusiastically:

“Perpustakaan!” (Rofi)  
(Library science!)

So here we can see that some subject should be considered to be included in the curriculum of English language education department. These subjects are needed by pre-service teachers in the real lives as real teachers. The inclusion of these subjects should be regarded on the basis of the pre-service teachers’ need.
Gaps between School and Campus

Gaps identified by pre-service teachers are in terms of insufficient practical preparation process in campus. Some subjects are identified to be needed by them. The subjects, as have been identified in the previous section, are information technology in language teaching, current issues in psychology, current curriculum, and library science.

Cooperation and collaboration between campus and school should also be intensified, as teaching practicum involves the two sides. Campus cannot do teaching practicum without the cooperation with school as the “owner” of the real situation of the teaching and learning process at formal school. In reality, pre-service teachers felt that what they had at campus did not provide real descriptions on what actually happened at school. Olive explained this by saying:

(Theory and practice. At campus, the theory said this, in practice I was confused. Unexpected facts. For instance, how to handle the students.)

Lisna added her comments on what she experienced at school:

“RPP nggak harus detail. Misalnya, mengabsen kan nggak usah, kita kan sudah tahu yang nggak berangkat siapa aja, bisa lihat agenda.” (Lisna)
(The lesson plan should not be detail. For example, calling out students' names for checking students' presence is not necessary, we know which students present or absent, just see the class agenda book.)

What I learned from these comments is that campus should learn more from schools. What campus had in the past might have changed. So, campus needs to update the knowledge of anything related to the real conditions at school.

Suggestions in Relation to the Gaps that Pre-Service Teachers Had Identified

Suggestions came up was about the length of the teaching practicum and the preparation towards it. Olive asserted that:

“Perbanyak microteaching. Pas PPL I cuma dua hari.” (Olive)
(Provide more time for microteaching sessions. I just had two days for it.)

What I learn from this is that the preparation should be longer than the real action. Pre-service teachers should be prepared well before they go into the teaching practicum
program. The teaching practicum may be not as long as three months, as it possibly will hinder the real teachers’ programs.

Has Campus Provided Everything which Students Need as a Teacher?

Most students think that campus has already provided anything that they need for being teachers. They think that, when they have problems in their teaching practicum, it is about how they can use and apply the knowledge they got from campus. In this sense, the maturity is a possible cause on what makes the pre-service teachers fail to incorporate their knowledge into practice.

Olive, Ara, and Lisna felt confused when they were asked to identify whether or not campus has already provided everything they need as teachers.

“Kalau komplit kayaknya belum.” (Olive, Lisna)
(I don’t think so.)

“Apa ya, bingung.” (Olive)
(I don’t know; I get confused.)

Rofi, on the other hand, identified that what they need had been explained when they talked about subject needed and gaps between school and campus. So, again, the preparation should be perfect to make pre-service teachers feel more confident in going through teaching practicum program.

Notes on the Teaching Practicum Program

Closing the interview, the respondents in this study paid attention to the length of the teaching practicum program, the pre-service teachers’ distribution to schools, and the feeling after experiencing teaching practicum. Lisna describes her feeling:

(It’s nice, for the three month practicing, since I’ve never taught before. However, leaving home at 5:30 or 5 in the morning, I felt tired. Going home at 4 or 5 p.m, if I taught English club. In the evening, I should make the lesson plan, prepare the materials. The real teachers don’t do things like that seriously. If they had things to do, just gave the students assignments. Giving assignments without checking them.)
Lisna’s response is very interesting that she tried to open my eyes that the real teachers did her jobs not seriously. She talked about a big weakness of real teachers, that they were not as serious as they were in the beginning of their teaching career. They neglected their jobs without feeling guilty. Being questioned about what of teacher she would like to be; a real teacher or just a pre-service teacher, she said:

“Pengen jadi guru PPL, tapi digaji.” (Lisna)
(I want to be pre-service teachers, but paid.)

Rofi and Olive paid attention to different thing. They thought that the duration of teaching practicum was too long. They said that:

“PPL-nya tiga bulan kelamaan. Mungkin satu bulan cukup” (Rofi)
(Three-month teaching practicum was too long. Perhaps a month will be enough.)

“Mungkin tiga bulan kelamaan. Apa mungkin karena saya empat bulan sendiri ya?” (Olive)
(Perhaps three months are too long. Or perhaps because I did it in four months?)

However, Lisna disagree with Olive and Rofi’s statements. It seems to me that Lisna enjoyed her stayed at the school very much. She said:

“Nggak, nggak terasa kok.” (Lisna)
(Not really, I didn’t realize it had passed as that long.)

Olive talked about the pre-service teachers’ distribution that it should regard the distance between schools and the pre-service teachers’ current residence. She said that:

“Penyebaran sekolahnya kalau bisa disesuaikan dengan jarak rumah. Kasihan yang dari ujung sana ke ujung situ. Ada yang dari Majalengka ke Japura.” (Olive)
(The school distribution should be based on home distance to school. Too bad for students living in that side going to this side. I had a friend from Majalengka taught at Jepura (about 30 to 40 kms))

Closing the interview, Ara wrapped up her talk by saying about her feeling after joining teaching practicum program. She said that:

“Kesannya enak. … Ilmu-ilmu dari PPL bisa bermanfaat untuk kedepannya.” (Ara)
(I think it was nice…Our experience from teaching practicum can be beneficial in the future.)

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

To sum up, I think I can see the gaps between school and campus. The first thing I notice is that campus should learn from schools about the current conditions of students at school. The next thing I notice is that Saukah’s (2009) idea on standardizing English language education department is really an important and urgent. The third thing is that
campus should be serious in preparing the future teachers by providing subjects they need and eliminate the burdens that pre-service teachers have from unimportant subjects. By doing this, what Rukmini (2009) found, that is the low quality of English teacher, will not be met again. The fourth is that teaching practicum is a fun activity because pre-service teachers learned many things as real teachers that this program should not be dropped from the curriculum of English language education department. This is in line with the finding of my previous research (Nashruddin, 2010).

Suggestions I can deliver are related to the conclusion above. School and campus should work hand in hand so that the purposes of education can be reached. Preparing pre-service teachers as well prepared teachers is urgent in this era. There should be a simultaneous discussion in which both sides can listen to each other so that the two sides can have mutual understanding between them. For further research, I think more respondents are necessary to be added to enrich the data for portraying the real gaps between school and campus. Headmasters, teachers, and students at the schools where teaching practicum program are held can be potential sources of data for further follow up research.

REFERENCES


56th TEFLIN International Conference. Batu-Malang: TEFLIN & UIN Maliki, 8-10 December.


Appendix:
Interview guide: The questions raised in the interview with pre-service teachers in English version.

1. How did you feel when you did the teaching practicum program at school?
   a. In the beginning? Why?
   b. During the practicum? Why?
   c. In the end? Why?
   d. Overall? Why?
2. What benefits can you take from the teaching practicum program?
3. Did you spot interesting things (e.g. problems) during the teaching practicum program?
   a. With campus?
   b. With the headmaster?
   c. With the teachers?
   d. With your friends?
   e. With yourself?
   f. Other things?
4. What subjects, which you take at campus, are useful during the teaching practicum?
5. What subjects, which you take at campus, are not useful during the teaching practicum?
6. What subjects, which you did not take at campus, did you need for teaching practicum?
7. Do you see gaps between school and campus? In what aspects?
8. Do you have any suggestions in relation to those gaps?
9. Do you think campus has provided everything you need as a teacher? Please describe what you think about this.
10. Do you want to say anything about the teaching practicum program?
ANALYZING THE PATTERN OF L1 SOUNDS ON L2 SOUNDS
PRODUCED BY JAVANESE STUDENTS OF STKIP PGRI JOMBANG

Daning Hentasmaka
d.hentasmaka@gmail.com
STKIP PGRI Jombang, Indonesia

Abstract: The study concerns on an analysis on the tendency of first language (L1) sound patterning on second language (L2) sounds done by Javanese students. Focusing on the consonant sounds, the data were collected by recording students’ pronunciation of English words during the pronunciation test. The data then analysed through three activities: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. The result showed that the patterning of L1 sounds happened on L2 sounds especially on eleven consonant sounds: the fricatives \([v, \theta, \delta, \jmath, \zeta]\), the voiceless stops \([p, t, k]\), and the voiced stops \([b, d, g]\). Those patterning cases emerged mostly due to the difference in the existence of consonant sounds and rules of consonant distribution. Besides, one of the cases was caused by the difference in consonant clusters between L1 and L2.

Keywords: sound pattern, L1 sound, L2 sound, sound production

Introduction

During the teaching-learning process in her class, the writer found that her students tended to produce their second or foreign language which has typical accent to their first language that is Javanese. When the writer paid more attention to her students’ pronunciation, she found that the Javanese accent occurred clearly in some particular sounds especially consonantal sounds. For example, some of the students tended to pronounce \([b, d, g]\) in English words such as because, don’t, or good with heavier accent as in Javanese words bapa, dada, and gaga.

Dulay (1982, p.97) stated that the first language has been considered the villain in second language learning as the major cause of a learner’s problem in mastery the new language. Contrastive analysis (CA) took the position that a learner’s first language “interferes” with his or her acquisition of a second language. The major claim of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is that all L2 errors can be predicted by identifying
differences between L1 and L2 forms and patterns. The CA hypothesis held that where structures in the L1 differed from those in L2, errors that reflected the structure of the L1 would be produced.

The previous study by Bada (2001, p.1) described the phonological analysis through the English phonemic production of Japanese speakers who learned English. It concluded that some learners found difficulties in producing some sounds that attributable to the L1. For example, Japanese learners tend to use voiceless alveolar stop [t] to replace voiceless dental fricative [θ] and substitute the voiced dental fricative [ð] with the voiced alveolar stop [d].

Similar study conducted by Prananingrum and Kwary (2006, p.1) proved that Indonesian learners also faced difficulties in producing English sounds since English and Indonesian have different sounds distribution. They found seven English consonants pronounced incorrectly by the learners. They are [k], [z], [v], [f], [θ], [ð], [n] and [d]. The study shows that the interference of L1 to L2 does exist. The interference indicates that there is the first language (L1) background that is involved in learning a second language (L2).

Sounds, linguistically, are called phones or speech sounds. Most of sounds occur as the result of movements of the tongue and lips. They are audible since involving pushing air out of the lungs while producing a noise in the throat or mouth. The noises are changed by the actions of the tongue and lips (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2011, p.2). Sounds could be studied from segmental features and suprasegmental features. Segmental features are the sounds that consist of vowel and consonantal sounds. English has twenty one vowels including several diphthongs. They are: [i:], [i] or [t], [e], [æ], [ə], [A], [ə:], [aː], [u], [o], [ə:], [ei], [ai], [ɔi], [aʊ], [ɔa], [au], [eə], and [ou]. On the other hand, there are only ten vowel sounds identified in Javanese vowel system, [i], [i], [u], [U], [ɛ], [e], [o], [ɔ], and [a] (Wedhawati et al., 2006, p. 65-96) and eight diphthongs, [ay], [ai], [au], [oi], [uə], [ua], and [uɔ]. There are also noticeable differences in consonantal distribution between English and Javanese. English has twenty four consonants: [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g], [m], [n], [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [ʤ], [h], [ŋ], [l], [r], [w], and [j]. On the other hand, Javanese has twenty three consonants. They are: [p], [b], [m], [f], [w], [t], [d], [n], [l], [r], [t], [d], [s], [z], [c], [j], [ŋ], [k], [g], [ŋ], [h], and [ŋ] where the [f] and sounds only found in the words adopted from other languages. It means that Javanese origin words do not have the [f] and [z] sounds.

For the suprasegmental features, in English, degrees of stress, intonation and pitch, and also pause determine the meaning of the word or sentence. However, in Javanese, the
segmental features play more important role in determining the meaning than the
suprasegmental. There are only intonation and pause which determine the meaning of the
sentence.

The finding and the studies above interest the writer to carry out a similar research
to know the tendency of first language (L1) sound patterning on second language (L2)
sounds done by Javanese students of STKIP PGRI Jombang especially the students of
English Department. The study focuses on the oral production of sounds especially
consonant sounds.

METHODS

This study employed a qualitative design as it concerned with the process rather than
simply with outcomes or products (Bogdan and Biklen in Sugiyono, 2008, p.21). The
primary phenomenon observed was the oral production of consonant sounds of English
Department students, STKIP PGRI Jombang. The recordings of five students’ oral
production during pronunciation test become the data. The students were selected as
respondents of the study since they satisfy the following criteria: 1. They are English
Department students of STKIP PGRI Jombang, batch 2012; 2. Their first language is
Javanese; 3. They have Javanese accent on the production of English sounds. The data
were collected through three phases: 1. Description; 2. Reduction; 3. Selection (Spradley in
Sugiyono, 2011, p.230). The writer then analyzed the data by selecting and transcribing
students’ oral production of consonant sounds which patterned their first language. The
procedures of data analysis in this study included some activities. They are: data reduction,
data display, and conclusion drawing/ verification (Miles and Huberman in Sugiyono,
2011, p.246).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Findings

Substitution

The first patterning cases found by the writer was the tendency of students to
substitute some English consonant sounds with Javanese consonant sounds. This case
occurred especially on the sounds which do not exist in their first language. The
substitutions found are: the substitution of [f] for [v], the substitution of [d] for [ð], the
substitution of [t] for [θ], the substitution of [s] for [z], [ʃ], and [ʒ], and the substitution of [t]
for [d].
The substitution occurred for the sound [v] in the beginning of the word, word-medial, and word-final position replaced by the sound [f]. For example, respondents 1 and 3 pronounced the words various and veryas [feriʊs], [feri] instead of [veriʊs] and [very]. Respondents 2, 4, and 5 pronounced [v] in the word various and very correctly, but they tended to pronounce the words believe, developed, beloved, and everything with [f] sound instead of [v] sound as [bɔːlɪf], [dɹfɔːlp], [bɪlɪf], and [efrɪtɪŋ]. It was also done by respondents 1 and 3.

The next case was the substitution of [d] for [θ] sound in the beginning or middle position of words. The examples are the words those, these, they which pronounced as [dɔʊs], [dɪːs], and [dɛt] by respondents 1, 2, and 3; and the word brother which was pronounced as [brʌðər] by all respondents.

The writer also found substitution of [t] for [θ] sound which was done by respondent 1 in pronouncing the words thank and think. Respondent 1 pronounced them as [teŋ] and [tɪŋ] instead of [θæŋk] and [θɪŋk]. All of respondents also did the same substitution when they pronounced something, everything, and nothing as [sʌmtɪŋ], [efrɪtɪŋ], and [nʌθɪŋ], instead of [sʌmθɪŋ], [evriθɪŋ], and [nʌθɪŋ].

Besides the substitution of [t] for [θ] sound, the writer also found substitution of [s] for [z], [ʃ], and [ʒ]. The substitution of [s] for [z] especially happened when [z] occur in word-final position as in the words those, and these. The rules of English consonant distribution stated that S letter at the end of the words is pronounced as [z] after voiced sounds. It means that the words those and these should be pronounced as [ðɔʊz] and [ðɪːz], yet the respondents felt difficult to pronounced [z] sound at the end of the words and tended to pronounce them as [dɔʊs] and [dɪːs]. The substitution of [s] for [ʃ] happened in the pronunciation of mission [mɪʃən] and nation [næʃən] while the substitution of [s] for [ʒ] happened in the pronunciation of the words vision [vɪʒən] and decision [dɪsəˈʃən]. Since the sounds [ʃ] and [ʒ] do not exist in Javanese, all of respondents felt difficult to pronounce the sounds. They substituted the sounds with the fricative sound which is closest to [ʃ] and [ʒ] that is [s] and pronounced the words as [mɪʃən], [næʃən], [vɪʒən], and [dɪsəˈʃən].

The last substitution is substitution of [t] for [d] sound especially when it occurs in word-final position. The examples are [d] sound in the words read, afraid, and need which were pronounced as [rɪd], [əfərɪt], and [niːd] by all of respondents.

Aspiration

The writer found two kinds of tendencies related with aspiration. The first was the tendency to pronounce the aspirated voiceless stops [pʰ], [tʰ], [kʰ] un-aspirated, and the
second was the tendency of pronouncing the un-aspirated voiced stops [b], [d], [g] aspirated.

Based on the rules for English consonant allophones by Ladefoged, the English voiceless stops [p], [t], [k] are aspirated when they are syllable initial. But based on the data, the researcher found that all respondents tend to pronounce those voiceless stops un-aspirated. For example when respondents pronounced [pʰ] sound in the words *people, point, impossible, and planned*; [tʰ] sound in the words *time, team, turning, and sometimes*; and [kʰ] sound in the words *country, culture, networking, and cancel*, they pronounced them un-aspirated [p] as [piːpl], [pɔɪn], [ɪmpɔsəbl], [plen]; un-aspirated [t] as [tæm], [tiːm], [tᵻːni], and [sæmtaɪms]; and un-aspirated [k] as [kʌntri], [kʌltʃər], [netwɔːkɪŋ], and [kensəl].

Different from the English voiceless stops [p], [t], [k] which are pronounced aspirated as [pʰ], [tʰ], [kʰ] when they are initial syllable, the English voiced stops [b], [d], and [g] should be pronounced un-aspirated. But the rules of respondents’ first language are the other way around. The Javanese voiced stops [b], [d], and [g] are pronounced aspirated as [bʰ], [dʰ], and [gʰ] when they are distributed in the beginning of word or syllable. The rules of respondents’ first language influence them in pronouncing some words which the syllables are started with the voiced stop [b], [d], and [g]. The respondents tend to pronounce the sounds aspirated. The example is the [b] sound in the words *believe* and *best* which pronounced aspirated by respondent 1 as [bʰəlɪf] and [bʰes]. The [d] sound in the words *dream* and *directly* was pronounced aspirated by respondents 1 and 3 as [dʰriːm] and [dʰaɪrekli]. Respondents 1, 3, and 4 also tended to pronounce [g] sound in the words *great* and *agree* aspirated as [ɡʰret] and [əɡʰriː].

**Deletion**

There were three English consonant sounds that tended to be omitted by the respondents. The sounds were [d], [t], and [k], especially when they were in clusters.

The first deletion was the sound [d] in cluster-final position. The [d] sound in the end of words should be pronounced more like a plosive sound than a clear [d] sound. Since consonant clusters never exist in Javanese, the respondents found it hard to produce the plosive sound or [d] sound at the end of words and they tended to omit it. All of respondents omitted [d] sound in the words *friend, trend,* and *beloved* which should be pronounced as [frend], [trend], and [bɹʌvd] and pronounced them as[fren], [tren], and [bɹʌf].
The next deletion was the deletion of sound [t]. The words *thirst, most, point, best,* and *developed* contain [t] sound in the words’ final position, but all respondents tend to delete it. They pronounced those words as [tʰɜːs], [məst], [pɔɪnt], [bɛst], and [dɪˈveɪp]. From the data analysis the researcher figured out that, similar to the case of deletion of [d] sound, the respondents tend to omit [t] sound because they found difficulties in pronouncing it and they wanted to make the pronunciation simple.

Another deletion case was the omission of [k] sound in the words *thank* and *think* where the respondents pronounced them as [tɛŋ] and [tɪŋ] instead of [θæŋk] and [θɪŋk].

**Discussions**

From the findings displayed it can be seen that first language sounds patterning on the production of second language sounds does occur. Dulay (1982, p. 96) said that the first language has long been considered as the major cause of a learner’s problems with the new language. And the results of the study suggest that the major impact of first language may have to do with accent, not with grammar or syntax.

Dulay (1982, p. 97) also said that the Contrastive analysis (CA) took the position that a learner’s first language interferes his or her acquisition of a new language. This hypothesis is in accordance with the findings which show that the respondent’s first language, Javanese, tend to interfere their production of English sounds. The term interference is used by psychological to refer to the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned. This process is labelled as negative transfer (Dulay, 1982, p. 97-98). The writer figured out that actually the phenomena happened as there are some differences in Javanese and English consonant rules. This situation, of course, affects the students’ pronunciation of English consonantal sounds. The differences are in the existence of consonant sounds, the rules of consonant distribution, and the difference in consonant clusters.

**The Difference in the Existence of Consonant Sounds**

English has twenty four consonant sounds: [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g], [m], [n], [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [ʧ], [ʤ], [h], [ŋ], [l], [r], [w], and [j] or [y] (Yule, 2010:28-30). Whereas Javanese has twenty three consonant sounds. They are: [p], [b], [m], [f], [w], [t], [d], [n], [l], [r], [ɭ], [ɭ], [s], [z], [c] or [tʃ], [j] or [dʒ], [n̥], [y] or [j], [k], [g], [ŋ], [h], and [ʔ] (Wedhawati et al., 2006:73). Even though English and Javanese have almost the same amount of consonant sounds, if we pay more attention to the sounds, actually English has some consonant sounds which do not exist in Javanese and Javanese itself also has some consonant sounds which do not exist in English.
English has five consonant sounds which do not exist in Javanese. The first sound is voiced labiodental fricative \( [v] \). For example the \( [v] \) sound in the words \( v an \) \( [væn] \) and \( f i v e \) \( [fəv] \). The second and third sounds are the dental fricatives \( [θ] \), which is voiceless, and \( [ð] \), which is voiced. The example of the words containing those sounds are \( t h i n \) \( [θɪn] \), \( t h i n k \) \( [θɪŋk] \), \( t h a t \) \( [ðæt] \), and \( t h o s e \) \( [ðoʊz] \). And the last sounds which exist in English but not in Javanese are the voiceless palatal fricative \( [ʃ] \), and the voiced palatal fricative \( [ʒ] \). The example of the use are the words \( s h e \) \( [ʃiː] \), \( s h o e \) \( [ʃuː] \), \( t r e a s u r e \) \( [tɹeʒər] \), and \( p l e a s u r e \) \( [pɬeʒər] \).

The consonant sounds that exist in Javanese but not English are: \( [t̚] \), \( [d̚] \), and \( [n̚] \). The sounds \( [t̚] \), \( [d̚] \) and the sounds \( [t] \), \( [d] \) in Javanese are different since the organ of speech used to produce the sounds are different too. In producing \( [t̚] \) and \( [d̚] \) sounds the tip of our tongue touches the hard palate (Apico-palatal stop) results thicker sounds while in producing \( [t] \) and \( [d] \) sounds the tip of our tongue touches the back part of the upper teeth (Apiko-dental stop) and the sounds arise are slight (Wedhawati et al., 2006:58). The examples of use are the words \( t h u k u l \) \( [tukʊl] \) and \( d h a d h a \) \( [dɔdɔ] \) for sounds \( [t̚] \), \( [d̚] \) and the words \( t a l i \) \( [tali] \) and \( d i n o \) \( [dino] \) for \( [t] \), \( [d] \) sounds. The next sound is the medio-palatal nasal \( [n̚] \). The sound \( [n̚] \) only exists in Javanese words, such as \( n y a t a \) \( [n̚iuta] \) and \( b a n y u \) \( [ba̞nu] \), but not in English words. As the addition, the sounds \( [f] \) and \( [z] \) are actually not exist in Javanese original words, but since some of Javanese words are adopted from English and Arabic those sounds then appeared. For example, the words \( f o t o \) \( [fotɔ] \) is adopted from English and \( t a f s i r \) \( [tafɔɾ] \) and \( z a k a t \) \( [zakat] \) are adopted from Arabic.

The condition where some consonant sounds exist in one language but not in the other language is the cause of substitution done by the respondents in which they tended to replace the English sounds with the closest sounds from their first language, Javanese. For example, the respondents substituted \( [f] \) for \( [v] \) in the words \( v i n e \), \( v e s t \), and \( v e i l \). Since the voiced labiodental fricative \( [v] \) never exists in Javanese vocabularies, they found difficulty to pronounce it and tend to substitute the sound with the other labiodental fricative sound which exist in Javanese, that is the voiceless labiodental fricative \( [f] \).

Another case found was the substitution for the English dental fricatives \( [θ] \) and \( [ð] \). Both of the sounds do not exist in Javanese. The condition makes the respondents felt difficult to pronounce \( [θ] \) sound in the words \( t h i c k \) and \( t h a n k s \), and \( [ð] \) sound in the words \( t h e y \), \( t h a n \), and \( t h e s e \). Since Javanese does not have any dental fricatives sounds, respondents tended to replace the sounds with their closest sound, they are \( [t] \) and \( [d] \) sounds. The tendency of replacing the \( [θ] \) and \( [ð] \) sounds with \( [t] \) and \( [d] \) sounds is caused
by the similarity in the place of articulation. It means the organs of speech used to produce the sounds [θ], [ð], [t], and [d] are the same. The English consonants [θ] and [ð] are dental sounds which are formed by touching the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth (Yule, 2010:28) while the Javanese consonants [t] and [d] are apico-dental sounds which happen when the active articulator is the tip of the tongue and the passive articulator is the upper teeth (Wedhawati et al., 2006:58).

Javanese does not have either [ʃ] or [ʒ] in its consonant sounds list. This condition became the cause of respondents’ difficulty in pronouncing the words mission and nation which contain [ʃ] sound and the words vision and decision which contain [ʒ] sound. The respondents substituted those sounds with another fricative sound that exists in their first language that is [s] sound.

**The difference in the Rules of Consonant Distribution**

Besides the difference in the existence of consonant sounds, the other cause is the difference in the rules of consonant distribution. This kind of difference is the main cause of substitution for final [z] sound, un-aspirated [p], [t], [k], and aspirated [b̩], [d̩], [g̩].

The first case caused by the difference in the rules of consonant distribution is the substitution of [s] for final [z]. There are three different ways in pronouncing S letter at the end of English words. It can be pronounced as [s], [z], or [ɪz]. The ending S is pronounced [s] after voiceless sounds as in the words helps and looks; it is pronounced [z] after voiced sounds as in words and gloves; and it is pronounced [ɪz] after sibilant sounds as in buses and bridges. While S in Javanese phonological rules is pronounced in the same way whether it is occur in the beginning, middle, or at the end of the words. On the contrary, the sound [z] in Javanese does not occur at the end of words. The condition causes problem for the respondents in pronouncing the final [z] in the words those and these.

The next cases are the aspirated stop [p̩], [t̩], [k̩] which were pronounced un-aspirated as [p], [t], [k] and the un-aspirated stop [b], [d], [g] which were pronounced as [b̩], [d̩], [g̩] by both of respondents. According to Ladefoged and Johnson (2011, p.73) the English voiceless stops [p], [t], [k] are aspirated when they are in the initial syllable, but the voiced stops [b], [d], [g] are un-aspirated. Let us see the set of examples given by Ladefoged. They are pie, tie, kye, which are pronounced as [pʰaɪ], [tʰaɪ], [kʰaɪ], and buy, die, guy, which are pronounced as [bɑɪ], [dɑɪ], and [ɡaɪ]. If we put our hand in front of our lips while saying the first set of example (pie, tie, kye) we will feel the burst of air comes out from our mouth. But in pronouncing the second set (buy, dye, guy) we cannot feel any burst of air. The burst of air is called aspiration. On the other hand Javanese has the opposite rules for the voiceless stops and the voiced stops. Different from English whose
voiceless stops are aspirated, the aspiration in Javanese accompanies the pronunciation of voiced stops [b], [d], [g] in the initial position of words or syllables (Wedhawati et. al., 2006, p.77, 83, 92). For example the sounds [b], [d], [g] in the words bapa, dada, and gaga are pronounced as [b̪h̬p̪a], [d̪h̬d̪a], and [g̪h̬g̪a]. If we put our hand in front of our lips while pronouncing those words, we will feel the burst of air hits our hand. But the burst of air, or we call it as aspiration, will not exist when we pronounce the [p], [t], [k] sounds (Wedhawati et. al., 2006, p.75, 81, 91). The example of the words are palu, tatu, and kaku which are pronounced as [palu], [tatu], and [kaku]. Since Javanese is respondents’ first language, its pronunciation rules of voiced and voiceless stops which contradicts the English influence their pronunciation of English words containing those sounds. The respondents tended to pronounce the English voiceless stops [p], [t], [k] in the words people, point, impossible, planned, time, team, turning, sometimes, country, culture, networking, and cancel, un-aspirated, and on the other hand tended to pronounce English voiced stops [b], [d], [g] in the words believe, best, dream, directly, great, and agree aspirated.

The Difference in the Consonant Clusters

A consonant cluster is a combination of two or more consonants pronounced in close succession (Syaeefi, 1988, p.19) without any vowels occur among them (Wedhawati et. al., 2006, p.97). The cluster can be a combination of two consonants (CC), three consonants (CCC), and even four consonants (CCCC). English and Javanese have different rules in the consonant cluster.

The English consonant clusters consist of combination of two consonants, three consonants, and four consonants. According to Syaeefi (1988, p.19-20), the clusters may occur at the beginning of words (i.e: cluster /pr/ in the word prefer, /tr/ in the word true, /skw/ in the word square, and /spr/ in the word spring), in the middle of words (i.e: cluster /ft/ in the word lifting, /ts/ in the word itself, /mpl/ in the word complete, and /str/ in the word administration), and at the end of words (i.e: cluster /ps/ in the word perhaps, /kst/ in the word next, and /mpts/ in the word attempts). Different from English consonant clusters, based on Wedhawatiet. al (2006, p.97-101), Javanese only has two kinds of clusters: combination of two consonants (i.e: /br/, /cl/, /gy/, /dw/ etc.) and combination of three consonants (i.e: /spr/, /skr/, and /str/). The examples are the words driji, sprej, dluwang, kyambak, kwaci, abrit, ajrih, anjlog, kesliyo, and wanodya. Accordingly the examples above, Javanese clusters appear only in the initial and medial position and never in the final position. This condition affects the respondents’ pronunciation very much, especially
in pronouncing the English words containing consonant cluster at the end of the words. The examples are the words *friend, trend, beloved, thirst, most, point, best, developed, thank* and *think*. The consonant clusters at the end of those words are /nd/, /vd/, /stl/, /ntl/, /pd/, and /ŋk/. As the consonant clusters at the end of the words never exist in respondents’ first language, the respondents found difficulties in pronouncing the clusters and tended to omit or delete one of consonant sounds in the clusters.

### CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

#### Conclusions

Referring to the findings and discussion it can be concluded that the patterning of first language (L1) sounds on second language (L2) sounds happened especially on eleven consonant sounds. They are the fricatives [v, θ, ð, ʃ, ʒ] which tend to be substitute with [f, t, d, s]; the voiceless stops [p, t, k] which should be pronounced aspirated in the words initial position tend to be pronounced un-aspirated; and the voiced stops [b, d, g] which should be pronounced un-aspirated tend to be pronounced aspirated; the alveolar stops [t, d] and voiceless velar stop [k] at the end of clusters located at the end of words tend to be omitted; and the voiced alveolar stop [d] at the end of words tends to be substituted with voiceless alveolar stop [t]. Those patterning case emerged mostly due to the difference in the existence of consonant sounds and rules of consonant distribution and the difference in consonant clusters between English and Javanese as their first language.

#### Suggestions

The writer realizes that there are weaknesses and incomplete information and data in the research. It is because of the limitation of the time, the writer’s knowledge and perspective. However, this research is expected to encourage teachers and lecturers to help students to pronounce English words with appropriate sounds by doing more practice and drill especially for English consonantal sounds which have different way of production from Javanese and for English consonantal sounds which do not exist in Javanese. It is necessary for teachers to pay a great deal of attention to students in learning English as foreign language and share their knowledge to their students.

This study is also expected to encourage students to be aware of their pronunciation of English words. It is necessary for students to be more aware of their production of English words since, in English words, different sound can make different meaning. A continuous practice and drill in pronouncing English sounds is needed in order to reach an appropriate pronunciation.
Finally, this study is expected to provide a valuable reference particularly for those who are interested in conducting research in the same field.

REFERENCES


APPLYING PQ4R STRATEGY FOR TEACHING READING

Moh. Rodli
rodli2002@gmail.com

English Teacher in MAN Mojokerto, Indonesia

Abstract: Despite receiving more attention than other language skills in English classroom, the result of students’ reading comprehension achievement is still far from expectation. To help students comprehend English reading texts and have better achievement in reading skill, PQ4R strategy can be an alternative to offer. The PQ4R (also well known as SQ4R) strategy of comprehending reading material is an extension of SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, and Review). This method involves previewing the reading material, questioning the reading, reading to answer the questions, reflecting upon the reading, reciting the reading, and reviewing the material. This method is useful for improving students’ reading effectiveness in addition to help students better remember what they read. This paper highlights the PQ4R strategy and its use as an alternative to improve students’ reading comprehension achievement.

Key words: reading comprehension, PQ4R Strategy

Introduction

Reading is one of English language skills that are considered important for one’s growth as an individual in many aspects of life. Every day we cannot escape from this activity. We read newspaper, report, messages, books, notes, and many other writings. That is why students are taught reading skill in English at school. By reading, the students will know how English is actually used in printed and written forms. According to Rivers (1981: 259) the most important activity in any language class is reading. Reading is not only a source of information and a pleasurable activity, but also a means of consolidating one’s knowledge of a language. In other words, reading activities can bring many benefits for students such as to get information, pleasure and knowledge.

Furthermore, according to Burns et al (1996: 5) the ability to read is vital to functioning effectively in a literate society. However, students who do not understand the importance of learning to read will not be motivated to learn. Djiwandono (1996: 62) states reading is an important activity and becomes more important in this modern world, where the development in every life aspect occurs very quickly. Besides, according to the
National Research Council (Almaguer: 2005) reading is essential for success in our society. Reading is also central to students’ experiences in schools and everyday life. Thus, teaching students to read is a major task for English teachers today. Since students arrive at schools at different reading developmental stages, English teachers are faced with helping less capable readers improve their reading skills by providing the best reading instruction possible.

According to Bruder and Henderson (1988), the ability to read can be affected by some factors, such as linguistic aspects, prior knowledge, and reading strategy. Dealing with the linguistic aspects, mastering relevant vocabularies and structures becomes a basis for which a student decodes meaning from the text, and in turn, incorporates with what he or she already knows. Another factor is prior knowledge that students bring into reading. When students are reading a text, they are not passive; instead, they bring their prior knowledge to incorporate with new information within a text. Meanwhile, the use of strategy in reading brings about some benefits for which the students might as adjust their purpose for reading and as well become aware of what they were reading.

In case of the importance of reading, the students should be well prepared with the skill as early as possible in order that they are accustomed to comprehend what they read in their daily life. Leipzig (2001) states that in reading activity we are not only reading the text, but also trying to understand what we are reading. Reading requires words recognition, comprehension, and fluency. Djiwandono (1996) also states that to understand all types of information in an array of the text, it requires not only the reading activity, but also ability to understand the content. In addition, he states that without the ability to understand the content, one cannot absorb or comprehend a lot of information quickly, accurately, and easily. Accordingly, on the basis of the importance of reading, reading should become the main emphasis in English teaching program in Indonesia, particularly for the senior high school students. Yet it does not mean that the other skills of English like listening, speaking, and writing are not important.

Unfortunately, reading at the secondary and higher school still becomes problem for students. Alderson (1984) states that when the students are confronted with a reading text, they seem to read with limited understanding. Furthermore, Day and Bamford (2000) also claim that in general the students learning to read English as a foreign language find it a difficult process, and as a result, they do not enjoy it. Even if they are avid readers in their first language, all too often they do not become efficient readers of English. In relation to the insufficient reading ability of the students, some researchers claim that the students’ proficiency in comprehending English materials is still far from being sufficient.
(Sadtono, 1995). He finds that the weakness of senior high school students in reading comprehension is they do not know the essential information needed to understand a word, including how a word is combined with other words to make lexical grammatical patterns. They still have a habit of word-by-word reading, relying too heavily or individual word meaning.

Considering the above causes, it is necessary to implement a strategy that can help solve the students’ problems in reading. One of the strategies that helps students understand reading materials is PQ4R (Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite and Review). PQ4R is the effective variation of SQ3R strategy which was developed by Thomas and Robinson (1972). It is step by step procedure used for reading through a text. It constitutes an analytical reading procedure to lead the students through the study of texts systematically (Hayes: 1992). It shows students how to cope with texts through a procedure of Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite, and Review.

According to Logsdon (2007), PQ4R is a strategy that helps students focus on organizing information in their minds and make it meaningful. Furthermore, she points out that the PQ4R strategy is a good study skill that improves the students’ understanding of the text and improves recall of facts by as much as 70%. This strategy can be adapted for students of all ages. In line with Logsdon, Hayes (1992: 48) maintains that PQ4R strategy can be applied for high school and college classes to make substantial use of textual materials and it can be used with individual students, small groups, and whole classes. Furthermore, he affirms that using PQ4R, students will gain experience with a strategy they can apply when they study on their own. Besides, Eanes (1997: 581) states that PQ4R strategy, the effective variation of SQ3R, will guide students in reading to fulfill purposes for reading and help students to identify important and meaningful information.

**Reading Comprehension**

Reading is the process of recognizing, interpreting, and perceiving the written or printed material. According Braunger and Lewis (2001: 4) reading is a complex and purposeful socio-cultural, cognitive, and linguistic process in which readers simultaneously use their knowledge of spoken and written language, their knowledge of the topic of the text, and their knowledge of their culture to construct meaning with text.

Comprehension is necessary if one wishes to learn from textbooks and manuals, enjoy great literature, or simply follow directions in a cookbook. It constitutes an activity of associating or connecting a reader’s ideas or thoughts with what an author states in print. Blair-Larsen and Williams (1999: 37) state that comprehension is a multidimensional
thinking process; it is the interaction of the reader, the text, and the context. They further point out that comprehension occurs when readers make critical connections between their prior knowledge and new-found knowledge in the text. While reading a text, readers activate their prior knowledge or schemata about a topic. In other words, when a reader or student encounters a reading text, he tries to associate his prior knowledge and what has been written in print. If this happens, it can be said that reading conveys understanding. Otherwise, reading without comprehension cannot be associated as reading since reading is directed to achieve comprehension.

Models of Reading Process

To understand the content of a particular text, one must go through a process. During the reading process, a reader might use one, two, or combination of the two models. The models of reading process are bottom-up, top-down, and interactive model.

Bottom-up Model

The bottom-up model of reading ability is primarily concerned with the recognition of individual letters, phonemes and words. Gough, La Berge and Samuels as quoted by Cox (1999) state that bottom-up reading model views reading as a part to whole process. First, the reader learns to recognize letters, followed by words, and then words in context, until he or she finally begins to understand what is read. This model believes that the reading process begins with individual recognition of letter and phonemic counterparts. This knowledge then leads to the recognition of individual words of the text presented to the reader. Meaning of the whole text is a process of building understanding of individual letters to the word level, then to the sentential level, and finally the text level.

Top-down Model

The top-down model of reading process places the emphasis on the reader’s active participation in the reconstruction of the meaning in the text. Stanovichas quoted by O’Malley and Pierce (1996) states that the model by starting with the reader’s hypotheses and predictions about the text and his or her attempts to confirm them by working down to the smallest units of the printed page. Similarly, Cox (1999: 270) states that top-down reading views reading as part of language development and a process of hypothesis testing in which the reader’s job is to make predictions about the meaning of what is being read.

Interactive Model

Cox (1999: 270) points out that interactive model views the reading process as an interaction between the reader and the text. The model allows for both bottom-up and top-down processing and is reflected in teaching approaches that emphasize direct reading.
instruction of word identification skills, vocabulary, and word meaning and comprehension. Interactive model is suitable for skilled readers. For them, both bottom-up and top-down models of reading can occur simultaneously. It means that when such readers are confronted with the reading texts, they must activate both their linguistic competences and their schemata related to the text contents.

**Levels of Reading Comprehension**

To know to what extent students have understood the content of the text, some experts have proposed some levels of reading comprehension. Four levels of comprehension as identified by Burns, Roe, and Ross (1996) are discussed. They are reading the lines (literal comprehension), reading between the lines (interpretive or inferential comprehension), reading for evaluation (critical reading), and reading beyond the lines (creative comprehension) each of which can be described in the following section.

*Literal Comprehension*

Burns et. al. (1996:255) explain that literal reading comprehension involves acquiring information that is directly stated in the text. It is a prerequisite for higher level understanding. To be better in this comprehension one should have a thorough understanding of vocabulary, sentence meaning, and paragraph meaning.

They also say that the basis of the literal comprehension is recognizing stated main idea and details. Details in reading mean the specific explicitly-stated parts of a paragraph or passage that contains the basic information. Main idea is the central thought around which a whole paragraph is organized. It is often expressed in a topic sentence.

Moreover, it is stated that recognizing and understanding the cause and effect relationship as well as sequence in a written passage is also important to be the basis of literal reading comprehension. Finding out the cause and effect relationship in the reading text is considered as literal skill when the relationship is explicitly stated. Sequence, the order in which events in a paragraph or passage occur, can be identified by time-order words, for example now, before, when, while, yet, after, and so on.

Further, they say that the next basis for literal reading comprehension is direction. The ability to read and follow directions is prerequisite for successful school work. It involves understanding details and sequence; therefore, the exercises under the headings are appropriate to use in teaching students to follow written direction.

*Interpretive/inferential Reading Comprehension*

Based on Burn et.al’sopinion (1996:263), interpretive reading involves making inference or reading between the lines. Moreover, they explain that it is the process of
deriving ideas that are implicitly stated. Skills included in this comprehension are 1) inferring the implicit main idea of the passages, 2) inferring cause and effect relationship which are not directly stated, 3) inferring referents of pronouns, 4) inferring referents of adverbs, 5) inferring omitted words, 6) detecting mood, 7) detecting the author’s purpose in writing, and 8) drawing conclusions.

**Critical Reading Comprehension**

Critical reading is evaluating written material – comparing the ideas discovered in the material with known standards and drawing conclusions about their accuracy, appropriateness, and timeliness. The critical reader must be an active reader, questioning, searching for facts, and suspending judgment until he or she has considered all the material. Critical reading depends on both literal and interpretive comprehension, and grasping implied ideas is especially important.

**Creative Reading Comprehension**

Creative reading involves going beyond the material presented by the author. Like critical reading, creative reading requires readers to think as they read, and it also requires them to use their imagination. Such reading results in the production of new ideas. To go beyond the material in the text, readers must make use of their background schemata, combining this prior knowledge with ideas from the text to produce a new response based on, but not completely dictated by, the text. Therefore creative readers must be skilled in the following areas: a) predicting outcomes, b) visualization, c) solving problems, d) improving story presentation, and e) producing new creations (Burn et.al, 1996:293-296).

**The Nature of PQ4R Strategy**

According to Hayes (1992), PQ4R is an analytical reading procedure for leading students through the study of texts systematically. A variation of SQ3R, the PQ4R method shows students how to deal with texts through a procedure of Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite, and Review. Students actively process the text content by an approach that closely resembles study routines traditionally advocated for studying texts independently. Practicing this approach in class, students gain experience with a strategy they can apply when they study on their own.

As an analytical reading procedure, PQ4R has students approach the study of a text as a set of tasks to be undertaken in a set routine. These tasks account for essential conditions of learning and effective problem solving. Students gain an understanding of the material presented, raise questions, read for information, ponder the information, restate it in their own words, and review their thinking about the material. PQ4R is for high school
and college classes that make substantial use of textual materials. It may be used with individual students, small groups, and whole classes.

**Procedures of PQ4R Strategy**

According to Logsdon (2007), there are six procedures in implementing PQ4R strategy in teaching reading, *Preview, Question, Read, Reflect, Recite, and Review.*

*Preview* is a step involves previewing a reading, scan the title, section headings, and visual aids. Read the first and last paragraphs. This should give the reader a general idea of the purpose of the text and the major concepts to be covered. The information gleaned from the preview is used in the next step.

*Question* is a step involves predicting questions that may be answered in the text. Convert headings into questions or draw upon past experiences to form questions. Look for answers to the questions while reading in the next step.

*Read* is a step involves reading the complete text carefully, recording notes in the margin or underlining important information that answers the predicted questions.

*Reflect* is a step when information from the passage or article is linked together. The reader should attempt to develop insight into the topic and make associations among the important material noted while reading.

*Recite* is a step involves summarizing the main points and supporting details of the complete text. To involve more senses and improve understanding, say the summary aloud or write it down using an information organization tool like flowcharts and outlines.

*Review* entails highlighting key points of the text. Make sure the predicted questions have been answered and that the author's purpose is fully understood.

**Benefits of PQ4R Strategy**

According to Logsdon (2007), PQ4R strategy is useful in improving the students’ understanding of the text. Besides it also improves recall of facts by as much as 70%. Furthermore, the strategy is also useful for students with specific learning disabilities in *basic reading,* *reading comprehension,* and *dyslexia* need effective strategies to understand what they read and to remember details of what they've read. This strategy can also help non-disabled students improve reading comprehension and retention.

Hayes (1992) states that using PQ4R strategy; students actively process the text content by an approach that closely resembles study routines traditionally advocated for studying texts independently. Practicing this approach in class, students gain experience with a strategy they can apply when they study on their own. Moreover, he points out that
PQ4R is essential for effective problem solving. Besides, Students gain an understanding of the material presented, raise questions, read for information, ponder the information, restate it in their own words, and review their thinking about the material. It may be used with individual students, small groups, and whole classes.

**PQ4R Strategy in Teaching Reading**

A model of PQ4R strategy for the teaching of reading can be developed into pre, while, and post reading activities (See Table 1 below).

**Table 1. Model of Teaching Reading Using PQ4R Strategy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Stage</th>
<th>Teacher’s Activities</th>
<th>Students’ Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-reading</strong></td>
<td>1. Introducing the theme.</td>
<td>1. Attentively listening to the theme mentioned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activating students’ prior knowledge</td>
<td>2. Showing topic-related pictures to students.</td>
<td>2. Paying attention to the pictures shown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Asking students about the pictures.</td>
<td>3. Answering the teacher’s question about the pictures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Connecting the pictures to students’ real life by asking some questions to the students.</td>
<td>4. Responding to the teacher’s questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Introducing the instructional objectives.</td>
<td>5. Paying attention to the instructional objectives stated by the teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* Preview Step</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Distributing the text to the students and ask them to survey the reading assignment by skimming the text for an overview of main ideas.</td>
<td>1. Reading the text to find out the main ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Asking the students to look at the heading and picture to try to identify what they will be reading about.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Question Step</td>
<td>1. Asking the students to make a list of questions they expect to be answered in the reading. Use heading to ask questions.</td>
<td>1. Making prediction about the text by looking at the heading and picture and writing a list of questions they expect to be answered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Giving time to the students to consider their questions, and let each student have an opportunity to write their question on their books.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Whilst Reading

* Read Step
1. Asking the students to read the text
2. Asking the students to look for the answer to the previously formulated questions

* Reflect Step
1. Asking the students to reflect what they have just read
2. Asking the students to write the unexpected ideas

* Recite Step
1. Asking the students’ to think about the material and discuss in pairs with their friends or write down the main points they learned.
2. Asking the students to explain it aloud or recite their notes aloud to their friends

Post-reading

* Review
1. Asking the students to reread to verify about their recite answer is correct and make sure they have main points of the text.
2. Asking the students to answer these questions’ to check their understanding of the text
3. Closing the meeting.

Conclusion

PQ4R (also referred to SQ4R) is one of reading comprehension methods that encompasses six activities – previewing or survey the reading material, questioning the reading, reading to answer the questions, reflecting upon the reading, reciting the reading and reviewing the material. This method appears to be the most appropriate for older students because it consists of the application of higher-level of metacognitive processes. Although this method is not a new method, it continues to be considered as an effective technique for helping students organize and retain information from texts (Anderson in Joseph, 2001). Furthermore, this method leads to a more active learning environment and deeper processing of information. Regarding the benefits, improving students’ reading comprehension will be possible to achieve using this method.
REFERENCES


TELLING A STORY FROM WATCHING A MOVIE
POTENTIALLY IMPROVING STUDENTS’ ORAL COMMUNICATION

Lia Agustina  
Lia_alfan2d@yahoo.com
State Polytechnic of Malang, Indonesia

Abstract: Watching a movie in a class has not always been really appreciated by administrators in education since they considered it as something used by teachers when teachers do not have anything better to do. But watching a movie in an appropriate way can be really useful for students since: a). students would learn English in a natural way and associating vocabulary to a context, as presenting vocabulary within a context is important. b). movies are a tool for communication; it is motivated than just doing exercises in students notebooks, c). students are motivated to express ideas and therefore they would feel important as being involve in class, d). movies offer a visual context aids, besides verbal language, there is also color, movement, and sound, the class would be livelier. Movie-viewing experiences and it also creates more student-teacher and student-student discussions.

Key words: telling a story, watching a film, improving, students’ oral communication

Introduction

Using movies to teach English can be an integral part of effective learning. English is much more than just spelling, grammar and punctuation (Leonard, 2014). Watching movies help develop critical comprehension and analysis skills. Movie is one of entertainments which cannot be separated in our life. It is also become a medium to describe about human life and all aspects of problem. By watching a movie, students will know about habit, culture or language in the world. And it can be particularly effective in teaching different kinds of learners. Many learners have revealed that movies used in EFL classroom can become an important part of the curriculum (Mirvan, 2013). This is based on the fact that movies provide exposures to “real language,” used in authentic settings and in the cultural context which the foreign language is spoken. They also have found that films catch the learners’ interest and it can positively affect learners motivation to learn (Kusumarasdyati, 2004; Luo, 2004). Movies are an enjoyable source of entertainment and language acquisition.
Some researchers has concluded that movie fragments help enhance memory and recovery of information in reading and reading (Pezdek, Lehrer, & Simon, 1984). Using the same pattern, they may help develop writing skills (Hanley, et al., 1995). Herron and Hanley (1992) concluded that using movies in EFL classroom offers background information that activates prior knowledge, which is essential in stimulating the four skills activities in the classroom. The main component of using the movies in the class is actually enabling the audience to picture or to visualize the events, characters, narration, story and words in the context. Movies are an enjoyable source of entertainment and language acquisition. For this reason, many students and EFL practitioners prefer to watch the movie. Ismaili, 2013, Mirvan, 2013 stated that practice has shown that reading an entire book can be tiresome and boring while an audio-visual experience can be more entertaining and engaging to students.

Movies Are Motivating

Watching a movie is motivating for EFL learners since it is a motion picture that picturing our everyday life. It is a tool for communication that creating a lot of ideas to be used as topics discussion. Learners would feel motivated to express ideas therefore they feel important as they are being involved in the classroom. Film, as a motivator, also makes the language learning process more entertaining and enjoyable.

The Contains Visual Context

A movie has rich of context that giving a chance to learn more about cultural, social and political issues in English speaking countries. Learners not only watch the gestures and expressions but also listen to the phrases and sentences that are being used. Learners tend to be more attentive to grasp the meaning in the little time provided by enabling them to listen to language exchanges and to see facial expressions and gestures simultaneously. These visual clues support the verbal message and provide a focus of attention.

Movies Used as Pedagogical Implications

Films are of a great help to develop an effective learning environment. Since movies supply additional background information, they can activate schema to aid reading comprehension (Mei-Ling Chen 2012). Based on the findings of the study, three pedagogical implications were emphasized. First, teachers can employ movie-based instruction to improve students’ reading and speaking skills. Second, teachers can increase students’ interests and learning motivation by incorporating movies in the reading
activities. Last but not least, activities derived from the films, such as dictation, group discussion, and oral presentation, can also enhance students’ reading and speaking skills.

**Movies show authentic speaking**

Movie exposes students to natural expressions and the natural flow of speech so learners would listen to authentic speech and come to the reality of everyday speech in the foreign language. It provides learners with the real-life language input.

**Advantages And Disadvantages Of Using Movies As A Supplementary Resource**

One of the advantages of using the movie is that visual images stimulate student’s perceptions directly, while written words can do this indirectly. Movies are more sensory experience than reading besides verbal language, there is also color, movement, and sound. Movie-viewing experiences to student-teacher and student-student discussions. Movies draw students’ attention and captured their interest. The benefits of using the movies in teaching and learning are unquestionable. Among advantages emphasized above, movies enhance student’s reading skills in a way that it strengths students' understanding of English context-bound expressions. It may also help learners practice pronunciation by repeating after the characters. On the other hand, it helps students’ to guess the words meanings from visual clues. It also helps develop other skills such as listening and writing skills.

Along with these skills, watching movies extends their thinking skills like comparing and contrasting, analyzing perspective, constructing support or error analysis. Among its positive sides there are some disadvantages as well, the most common disadvantages is that a movie must generally reduce events into two hours or so. Some students might resist viewing the movie without English subtitles. These movies take more effort to follow because of the need to read the subtitles and watch the scenes.

**Step on Implementing the Activities:**

a. Conduct a class discussion before the film viewing. It would help students to visualize the meaning of an idea.

b. Develop a check list. It would help students to focus on specific areas by developing a guideline check list for them to follow while the movie is playing.

c. Have periodic discussion breaks and force students to ask questions about what they have seen to increase both their listening and speech skills. Students must organize their thoughts to do the question and answer session.
d. Give an overview of what they have seen and talk.
e. Assignments implemented after watching the movie, are; a). an assignment sheet
   b). discussion questions, b). class projects such as improve the students' summary
   skills

**Other Alternative Activity,**

Viewing the movie, distribute the sheet containing the information below at the same

time, ask the learners to fill in and discuss with the class/the group after the movie has been

viewed;

a. Major Sequences of the Story

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor/actress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characters from the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actors/actressess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rising Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Failing Action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solution/Ending</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The whole answers are arranged into a short story and retell the story to the class/groups

b. Target Words and Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key-Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Students are asked to create some sentences based on the key words and phrases
   that the students can catch from the movie.
2. Discuss the assignment to see the grammar mistakes and other problems from the
   students’ assignment.
Story Telling as the follow Up Activity from Watching a Movie

Storytelling is an effective method of enriching EFL teaching. Storytelling is defined as the process whereby teachers present texts in the form of telling stories to facilitate comprehension or other definition is students retell texts in a new construction to develop integrative skills. Storytelling emphasizes a positive, collaborative, and supportive classroom climate in which students could develop skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Storytelling as a text presentation can turn the often dreary text lecturing into exciting and fruitful experiences in learning. Storytelling as a post-text activity is an example of learner-centered process that guides students to apply information and convey messages to others. Teaching by storytelling, teachers’ teaching brilliance is displayed to the fullest, because a storyteller plays the multi-role of a teacher, an artist and an actor. Storytelling as a pedagogical technique, whether applied alone or with other techniques, has been used by many teachers in the world. Modern teachers who employ this technique as a teaching tool are using a technique that has stood the test of time.

Storytelling as a teaching method has been extensively used in preschool and elementary school language teaching. Most children learn their first words and language patterns through listening to the stories told by their parents with picture books. Few people consider storytelling, as a practical method as the children grow into their teens. However, through some variations, certain teaching materials can be re-made into intriguing stories, grammatical structures deliberately demonstrated within the context of a narrative and then taught after they are comfortably received. As the teacher directs the story, the students listen and respond to the teacher’s guiding questions. Both parts work collaboratively to complete the task. Afterwards, some follow-up activities are designed to increase the students’ writing and speaking abilities. In the sense, storytelling not only develops the students’ listening comprehension skill but also improves their expressive language ability.

Theoretical Models

A critical concept for second-language development for students is comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). Comprehensible input means that students should be able to understand what is being said or presented to them. Students learn new language elements best when they receive input that is just a bit more difficult than they can easily understand. If there is “comprehensible input,” the learner has a low "affective filter"
(Krashen, 1982) and the language is used and repeated in interesting ways such as telling stories, then the learner will acquire the language.

**Affective Filter**

The "affective filter" develops from a fears on the part of the students – fear of failure, fear of peers, and fear of appearing stupid. A number of variables affective second language acquisitions, including motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Learners learn better when they have high motivation, self-confidence and a low level of anxiety. In storytelling, the students' affective filter is kept at a low level by a relaxed classroom atmosphere, where the stress of response and being scored is kept to a minimum. To lower the "affective filter," the classroom must be an environment in which the students feels safe to learn, and does not fear using the language.

**The Students-behaviors are Gained By Doing Story Telling By Paul Richard Kuehn, 2015**

1. The students would gain self-confidence in speaking;
2. The students would be able to express themselves through body language;
3. The students would be able to work together with their classmates to role play a story;
4. The students would be able to work together with their classmates to write lines for actors in the story;
5. The students would be able to narrate the story in their own words;
6. The students would be able to understand the setting, plot, characters, and story line in a fairy tale; and
7. The students would be able to express language naturally.

**Record Keeping**

**A Simple Record Which Illustrates Genres, Levels, And Important Elements:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running Time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Major Sequences of the Story

Exposition
Rising Action
Problem Conflict
Climax
Failing Action
Solution/Ending

Target Words and Patterns

Key-Words
Phrases
Pattern

Copy of the Content

THE GHOST HUNTER

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, retrieved 12 January 2015

The Ghost Hunter is an award winning British children's drama series created for the BBC and based on the books The Ghost Hunter by Ivan Jones. It was first broadcast in January 2000 and the last series was first broadcast in 2002. Repeats continue to be shown on BBC and CBBC as well as in other countries. The first and second series were later reworked into two ninety minute films.

The Ghost Hunter series revolves around Roddy and Tessa Oliver, two ordinary children whose lives are turned upside down when William Povey, a shoeshine boy from Victorian England appears in Roddy's bedroom as a ghost and appeals to him for help. The Ghost Hunter is searching for William in order to obtain 'spectral energy' which is only obtainable from capturing ghosts.

At first she seems concerned only to "collect" ghosts, but later her intentions become clear. She wants to use their energy to pass through Time itself and thereby have everlasting life. William's energy is especially high which makes him more attractive to the Ghost Hunter. As Roddy has second sight (the ability to see ghosts) and is the only person initially who
can see William, he is the only person who can help him escape. Later, Tessa also finds she has second sight and can also see William. In their on-going battles, the two boys and Tessa, Roddy's sister, become firm friends and have many adventures together.

Although the series was a ground-breaking one for children's television and influenced other series which followed it, and although it had very high ratings, a fourth series was never commissioned, thus leaving some of the main protagonists, the Ghost Hunter and some of the children stuck in Victorian England.

Series One

The main action takes place in Roddy and Tessa's village and school where the Ghost Hunter is active. One of the Ghost Hunter's chief abilities is her sense of smell. She can sniff out a ghost effortlessly. But Roddy and Tessa do not know who the Ghost Hunter is. They set about trying to discover this so that they can protect William. One of their ruses is to put garlic all round Roddy's bedroom, where the ghost is hiding, as the smell is said to keep ghosts and evil away. Eventually, the children realise that the Ghost Hunter is Mrs Croker, but only when she arrives at Roddy's house with her "ghost immobilising vapour" (GIV) with which she tries to freeze William, shrink him and put him in a bottle. Thanks to Roddy's quick wittedness, William escapes and the police almost arrest Mrs Croker but she escapes. Mrs Croker is also, and always, on the look out for other ghosts and has a whole collection of bottled ghosts that is discovered by Roddy, William and Tessa when the two boys save the girl after she is kidnapped by De Sniff and left tied up and gagged in a secret hideout while Mrs Croker and De Sniff go back to the house to look for William. When she learns that there is to be an AGM (Annual Ghost Meeting) at Chillwood Castle, she and her side-kick DeSniff set up a powerful plan to bottle dozens of ghosts. Her plan is to use ghost-energy for her own wicked purposes, but the plan fails when she attacks the ghosts during a unique ghost celebration that allows them to assume their human bodies once again. Thanks to Roddy, Tessa and William, Mrs Croker falls from the battlements of Chillwood Castle, and is believed to have been killed. De Sniff escapes.

Create questions and answers, about the main ideas, the actors, the characters, and also the conflict of the story
1) Series Two
The tone changes and becomes more sinister. DeSniff has discovered Mrs Croker is not dead. She has survived her fall from the castle and returns to work in a strange old mansion, called Deadlock Hall. Here, her demonic energy kicks into action again and she creates a machine called a "specktrika" which pulls ghosts towards it like a magnet. With this she intends to catch enough ghosts to power her "time travelling machine." But by now the eccentric and foolish DeSniff has tasted power and he wants to time travel too. The Ghost Hunter manages to create a time hole in the fabric of the universe and both DeSniff and Croker are carried back to Victorian times.

Create questions and answers about the main ideas of the story and estimation stage for the next story.
2) Series Three

Mrs. Croker teams up with a Victorian scientist, Mr Darcy. They develop an elaborate plan together to catch masses of ghosts. Mrs Croker wants to use the ghost-energy so that she can become immortal. Returning to the modern era, 25 years have now passed since Roddy and Tessa last defeated Croker, and Roddy is a doctor with two children who are called Leo and Bex. Roddy is nervous when they question him about his old stories of the Ghost Hunter and William. William meets Roddy again, but Roddy can no longer see him, due to the loss of his second sight.

Using the time portal, Croker and Darcy make millions of pounds, and plan to buy Roddy's former school, and set up "THE GHOST SCHOOL", which is now derelict and abandoned, apart from the ghosts who reside there. The year in the future is 2027. Bex and Leo, having gone through the time portal to 1890, help a Victorian baby (Albert Povey) who is seriously ill, by bringing him back to 2027. Their father, Dr Roddy, gives the baby antibiotics which saves its life, but by doing so, changes the course of history. Albert grows up to be a successful doctor and in the future, is widely celebrated. Meanwhile, an angry DeSniff thwarts Croker's plans by withdrawing all of the money Croker and Darcy have saved. A final showdown between the pair sees DeSniff donating all of the money to the charity which has been set up and is celebrating Albert Povey Day.

Bex and Leo, back in Victorian times, where they have returned the baby Albert to its parents, get back to the Time Portal, only to find it is closed. William and his friends risk sacrificing themselves in order to re-open the portal. Bex and Leo return to the future and in doing so, the time portal closes, perhaps forever. Arriving at the place where the derelict school and The Ghost School had once stood, they see it is now a new hospital, dedicated to Albert Povey. Roddy comes out and tells them they are just in time to see a new ward opening up in honour of the man who donated so much to help... the DeSniff Ward. Back in Victorian times, two of the ghosts have emerged unscathed from the time machine, but William is nowhere to be seen. Roddy is seen in his office, where William makes his final goodbyes to him. Roddy is delighted he had the chance to see his friend one last time.

3) Questions and answers about the failing action, the solution and also the ending of the story
Compile all the answers (series 1 – 3), list the answers used as the key-ideas for summarizing assignment before the story retold and present in front of the class.

**CONCLUSION**

One of the advantages of using the movie is that visual images stimulate student’s perceptions directly, while written words can do this indirectly. Movies are more sensory experience than reading besides verbal language, there is also color, movement, and sound. Movie-viewing created more student-teacher and student-student discussions. Movies draw students’ attention and captured their interest. The benefits of using the Movies in teaching and learning are unquestionable. Among advantages emphasized above, Movies enhance student’s reading skills in a way that it strengths students' understanding of English context-bound expressions. It may also help learners practice pronunciation by repeating after the characters. On the other hand, by doing so, it helps students to guess the words meanings from visual clues. It also helps develop other skills such as listening and writing skills. Along with this skills, watching movies, extends their thinking skills like comparing and contrasting, analyzing perspective, constructing support or error analysis.

Furthermore, story retelling, as the implementation from watching movie provides EFL learners an opportunity to analyze stories and build oral language as they acquire related vocabulary (Schienkman, 2004). Using pictures and watching movies to retell a story can be highly beneficial to second language learners. It provides visual support that scaffolds comprehension as EFL learners learn new vocabulary. Retelling stories helps EFL learners begin to understand sequence, plot, and characterization as they build vocabulary and comprehension skills. But most important of all, it provides the fundamental skills for EFL learners to; 1). gain self-confidence in speaking; 2). be able to express themselves through body language; 3). be able to work together with their classmates to role play a story; 4). be able to work together with their classmates to write lines for actors in the story; 5). be able to narrate the story in their own words; 6). be able to understand the setting, plot, characters, and story line in a fairy tale; and 7). be able to express language naturally.

**REFERENCES**

Ismaili, Merita MA, 2013. The Effectiveness of Using Movies in the EFL Classroom – A Study Conducted at South East European University. E-ISSN 2281-4612

Kuehn, Paul Richard, 2015, *Story Telling Through Role Plays for ESL Students*.Copyright © 2015HubPages Inc. and respective owners. Other product and company names shown may be trademarks of their respective owners. HubPages® is a registered Service Mark of HubPages, Inc. HubPages and Hubbers (authors) may earn revenue on this page based on affiliate relationships and advertisements with partners including Amazon, eBay, Google, and others terms of use privacy policy (0.52 sec)


Mirvan, Xhemaili. 2013.*The Advantages of Using Films to Enhance Student’s Reading Skills in the EFL Classroom*.High Lector, Language Center, South East European University, Tetovo, Macedonia.Journal of Education and Practice www.iiste.org ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) Vol.4, No.13, 2013.E-mail: m.xhemaili@seeu.edu.mk 2013


TEACHING SPEAKING REPORT TEXT
USING SPEAKING PROMPT

Sunarti
sunartihindaryanto@gmail.com

State Senior High School of Kediri, Indonesia

Abstract: Learning a language means learning how to communicate either in oral or written way, that is how to listen, speak, read and write fluently, accurately and acceptably. However students find difficulties in learning them. In speaking session, the students can not express their idea well because they have problems in vocabulary, putting the words together in the correct structure, and pronouncing them besides they are lack of information or they don’t have enough background knowledge about the topic. Those problems makes the students don’t want to speak, or they need long time to prepare their speaking. Another problem is that they are accustomed to write before speaking and memorize it to perform their speaking task. Based on these problems it is necessary to use the teaching strategies, one of them is using speaking prompt. As pre activity, the teacher reviews the generic structure, the simple present tense, shows pictures related to the topic, introduces the facts which are classified based on the generic structure, and pronunciation practice. In the main activity, students describe the picture based on the facts that have been given. The sentence pattern of simple present tense is also shown. As the post activity, the students give comment on their performance each other. These activities in fact can solve their problems. Speaking prompt helps them in speaking. They don’t need to think about the background knowledge, the generic structure and the sentence pattern.

Key words: Report Text, Speaking Prompt

Introduction

English, like other languages in the world, is a means of communication. It is the language that mostly spoken in the world, that is why it becomes the international language. Learning English means learning to communicate, that is understanding either what people say or write and expressing ideas or feeling orally or in written way. In Indonesia, English is learned as a foreign language which is given in formal school from elementary level to the university. The objectives and the material is stated in Content Standard issued by BSNP (Board of National Standard on Education). In Senior High School, one of the objectives of teaching English is developing student communicative competence in the oral and written form to gain informational literacy level. It means that the students of Senior
High School must have the ability to listen and speak (oral communicative competence) and read as well as write (written communicative competence) which can be useful for accessing knowledge.

In order to communicate (listening, speaking, reading and writing) the students must know why and what to communicate (the different kinds of text) using accurate and acceptable vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and mechanics, how to communicate well (formal/informal, spoken/written) and keep the communication run well. These are called supporting competences, linguistic competence, sociocultural competence, strategic competence and discourse competence.

Oral communication plays an important role in people’s life. People communicate orally more than in written way. Most of their life is spent for listening and speaking. Speaking, which is one of the oral language competences, is the ability to express the meaning fluently, accurately and acceptably using oral language as stated by Florez, 1999 in Bailey, speaking is “an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information”. According to Chaney (1998, p. 13) speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts".

In reality some teachers spend more time in teaching written language, that is reading and writing. They don't give enough attention in teaching speaking, or sometimes they skip it. There are some problems in teaching speaking. These problems are caused either by the teachers or the students. From the teachers side, there are some factors that cause the teachers do that, such as:

1. They don’t have enough understanding or lack of understanding about teaching a language especially teaching speaking.
2. Teaching speaking takes a long time because it involves many aspects, fluency, accuracy and appropriacy. It also happens when the teacher has to test speaking. It can not be done at the same time, so they have to perform in pairs or individually.
3. They think that it is noisy in speaking class and it will disturb others. Especially when testing speaking, because when one student speaks, the other students don’t pay attention to him or her and they become noisy.
4. Speaking is not tested in national examination, so they think that speaking is not important, so they sometimes skip the speaking activity.

There are many problems that are caused by students. They are:

1. They keep silent during speaking class. This condition is caused by many reasons:
a. They don’t have any idea about what they want to express.
b. They don’t have enough vocabulary to help them expressing what they want to say.
c. They don’t have enough understanding about grammar, so they find difficulty in arranging words to make good sentences to be put together in a paragraph.
d. They don’t want to make mistakes when they speak because when they do so, their friends will laugh at them.

2. When they do the speaking task, they usually memorize what they have written, so they don’t really speak.

Based on these problems, it is necessary for the teachers to find solutions especially in teaching speaking such as finding teaching strategies, interesting teaching material and media which can improve the students’ ability in speaking. The teaching and learning process should be prepared and planned based on the students’ need and interest and suitable with their daily life context. There are many ways to help the students to speak by providing different activities such as describing pictures, role play, discussion etc. Speaking prompt is one way that can be used in teaching speaking. Speaking prompt will help the students in speaking. It gives them main information about the topic, generic structure as well as vocabulary which avoid them from memorizing. This will help them to be more confident.

**TEACHING SPEAKING**

Teaching and learning process involves two activities done by teachers and students: the teacher teaches and the students study. In order to achieve the learning objectives in English lesson, the communicative competence, there must be process of teaching. According to Richard (2006:3), communicative competence includes the following aspects of language knowledge:

- Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions
- Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication)
- Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations)
- Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one’s language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies)

In order to gain the communicative competence, the approach used is communicative approach. Approach, as stated by Edward Anthony in Richard (1986:15): ... An approach is
a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. We can say that approach deals with the language in general.

This approach has these kinds of features as stated by Finocchiaro and Brumfit in Richard (1986;67):

- Meaning is paramount.
- Dialog, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
- Contextualization is a basic premise.
- Language learning is learning to communicate.
- Effective communication is sought.
- Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
- Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
- Any device which helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
- Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
- Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
- Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
- Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
- The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
- Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
- Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
- Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.
- Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
- Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
- Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal; accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
- Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writing.
- The teacher can not know exactly what language the students will use.
- Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

The implementation of communicative approach in teaching and learning process is 2 cycles 4 steps, and the technique is three phase technique. The two cycles are oral cycle and written cycle. These cycles represent how the people communicate in daily life, oral communication and written communication. Oral cycle is meant to give the students opportunity to learn English as means of oral communication while written cycle is for written communication. Each cycle has 4 teaching steps; they are BKOF (Building Knowledge of the Field), MOT (Modelling of the Text), JCOT (Joint Construction of the
Text) and ICOT (Independent Construction of the Text). As implied in the name, three phase technique contains three main activities; pre-activities which is used to introduce the material which is going to discuss, the whilst activities which give practices on the material being discussed and post activities which is used to give feed back on the learning the material.

Oral cycle focuses on the teaching of oral language, they are listening and speaking. In this cycle the students are given chance to get exposure of oral language, how the words are pronounced, the intonation, how the words are reduced, how to take turn, how the expression is used in its real situation. The first step in this cycle is BKOF. This step is intended to give the students understanding about te text that is going to be taught, the social function of the text or why the text is produced, the generic structure of the text (how the text is constructed) and the language feature of the text (what forms the text, the tense used, the characteristic of the text). In this step, the teacher presents the material which introduces the text that is going to be taught, the grammar that is used and give some exercises in the use of it. The next step, MOT, is intended to give the students the model or the example of the text orally. It is the listening section. It is time for the students to listen the text, understand the text, the pronunciation, the intonation, the stress, how the sentences are put together in a text in the daily context. In this section, the teacher presents the text by playing the recording or video, or read the text. The third and the fourth steps are speaking sections. In these steps, the students are given chances to practice what they have got in the previous steps. In JCOT, the students are given chance to produce the text in group or in pair, it is hoped that by doing the task in group the students will feel more confident because when one of the group members has a problem, the other members will help him or her. Besides, the members of the group can give more ideas about what they want to speak so they will not keep silent. After the students have experience in speaking (in group), it is time to practice independently. In this step (ICOT), the students have to produce the text individually.

This communicative approach is implemented in more detail methods and technique in the classroom. Method, as stated by Edward Anthony in Richard (1986:15), ... Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material no part of which contradicts and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a metod is procedural. So we can say that in implementing a communicative approach the teacher can use different kinds of methods as far as they are not contradict with the approach.
In the classroom, it is important to implement the method in order that the teaching objectives or teaching and learning indicators can be achieved. It needs strategy, or we usually call technique. as stated by Edward Anthony in Richard (1986:15)... A technique is implementational – that which actually taken place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, strategem or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Technique must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.

Teaching speaking plays an important role. Why teaching speaking? There are many reasons for it:

1. As stated above that people spend more their time to communicate orally such as have a chat with the family, neighbour and college, shopping, etc.

2. It is based on the Indonesian curriculum. It is stated that the objective learning English in Indonesia is to communicate either orally or in written way. The scopes that must be taught in Senior High School as stated in the Content Standard are:
   a. Actional Competence, that is the ability to understand and/or produce oral and/or written text expressed in four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing to achieve informational literacy level.
   b. The ability to produce various short functional, monolog and essay text in the form of procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, report, news item, analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, spoof, explanation, discussion, review, public speaking. The gradation of teaching material can be seen in the use of vocabulary, grammar and their rhetorical steps.
   c. Supporting competences; linguistic competence (using grammar, vocabulary, Pronunciation and mechanics), sociocultural competence (using acceptable expressions in different context of communication), strategic competence (maintaining the conversation run well) and discourse competence.

Teaching speaking means teaching the students to speak, that is producing different kinds of text to express their meaning. According to Nunan (2003) teaching speaking is to teach the learners:

- Produce the English speech sounds and sound patterns
- Use word and sentence stress, intonation patterns and the rhythm of the second language.
- Select appropriate words and sentences according to the proper social setting, audience, situation and subject matter.
- Organize their thoughts in a meaningful and logical sequence.
- Use language as a means of expressing values and judgments.
Use the language quickly and confidently with few unnatural pauses, which is called as fluency.

Speaking, according to Mary Spratt, Alan Purverness and Melanie Williams (2011, 48), involves several subskills:

a. Making use of grammar, vocabulary and function (a reason why we communicate)
b. Make use of register to speak appropriately
c. Using features of connected speech (sentence stress, contractions, intonation)
d. Using body language
e. Producing different text types
f. Oral fluency (normal speed, little hesitation or pausing, repetition and self correction)
g. Using interactive strategies

Because speaking involves several subskills, there possibilities that students especially foreign language learners find difficulties in speaking. Furthermore, Brown (2011, 270) stated that there are many things which makes speaking difficult:

a. Clustering (fluent speech is phrasal not word by word)
b. Redundancy (make meaning clearer)
c. Reduced forms (construction, weak vowels)
d. Performance variables (filler, hesitation)
e. Colloquial language (use idioms, informal words)
f. Rate of delivery (acceptable speed)
g. Stress, rhythm and intonation
h. Interaction (to whom they speak)

For the foreign language learners such as Indonesian students especially the teenagers (SMP or SMA students) speaking ability is influenced by three factors, long-term and short-term memory (that foreign language is stored in short term memory and it is easily forgotten), language fitness & agility (the more it is used or practised it will be easier to use) and authenticity (students will talk in a way that is true to their personality), Catherine Sheehy Skeffington, 2004). She also stated that there are many aspects which makes the students don’t speak in the classroom such as peer pressure (because of mistakes they make) lack of motivation (why they speak) and lack of support (the classroom atmosphere and linguistic support).

As stated by Mary Spratt, Alan Purverness and Melanie Williams (2011, 50) the pattern of speaking activities in speaking lesson is Lead-in, an introduction to the topic and activities focus on new language, Practice activities, and Post-task activities. These pattern of speaking activities is also called three phase technique because it contains three activities.
REPORT TEXT

The main English teaching material for the students in Senior High school is stated in Content Standard. It contains the competence standard and basic competence. Competence standards shows the language skills that the students must achieve, they are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Basic competences show the texts that the students must communicate. There are three kinds of text. They are transaction text (to get something done), functional text (texts which have certain function such as letter, invitation, announcement etc.), and monoloque text. Each semester, there are the same competence standards and basic competense but with different type of texts).

A text is a means of expressing meaning. Anderson and Anderson (1998,1) write ...When these words are put together to communicate a meaning, a piece of text is created. When you speak or write to communicate meaning, you are constructing a text. When you read, listen or view a piece of text, you are interpreting its meaning.

Report text belongs to monoloque texts. It is taught in the first semester of the eleventh grade. It also belongs to factual texts as stated by Anderson and Anderson (1998,2): Factual texts include advertisements, announcements, internet web sites, current affairs shows, debates, recipes, reports and instructions. They present information or ideas and aim to show, tell or persuade the audiences. The main types in this category are recount, response, explanation, discussion, information repost, exposition and procedure.

Different text type has different social function or purpose, generic structure and language features. Report text (informational report) is a text which is used to classify, describe or to present information about a subject. The structure of the text is: a) general opening statement, b) series of paragraph about the subject, and c) a concluding paragraph (optional). The language features of report text are: a) the use of technical language related to the subject, b) the use of generalised terms, and c) the use of the timeless present tense.

SPEAKING PROMPT

Designing teaching material is one of the teachers’ tasks. As professional teachers they have to be able to construct or choose the suitable teaching material with the teaching objectives and the students need. In designing teaching material or teaching activities especially for speaking, they have to recognize the different functions speaking perform in daily life and the different purposes for which the students need speaking skill. Brown and Yule (1983) made a useful distinction between the interactional functions of
speaking, in which it serves to establish and maintain social relations, and the transactional functions, which focus on the exchange of information.

According to Jack C Richard in his article *Developing Classroom Speaking Activities: from Theory to Practice*, he developed the function of speaking into three functions; they are:

1. Talk as interaction: it is also called conversation. It is used to make a good interaction between people. The characteristics of this kind of talk according to Brown and Yule (1983) are:
   a. Has a primarily social function
   b. Reflects role relationships
   c. Reflects speaker identity
   d. Maybe formal or casual
   e. Using conversational conventions
   f. Reflects degrees of politeness
   g. Employs many generic words
   h. Uses conversational registers
   i. Is jointly constructed

2. Talk as transction: it focuses on message or what people say, so they have to present it clearly to make other people understand. The characteristics of this kind of talk according to Brown and Yule (1983) are:
   a. It has primarily information focus
   b. The main focus is the message and not the participant
   c. Participants employ communication strategies to make themselves understood.
   d. There may be several questions repetitions and comprehension checks
   e. There may be negotiations and degressions
   f. Linguistic accuracy is not always important

3. Talk as performance: it is in the form of monoloque. The characteristics of this kind of talk according to Brown and Yule (1983) are:
   a. There is a focus on both message and audience.
   b. It reflects organization and sequencing.
   c. Form and accuracy is important
   d. Language is more like written language.
   e. It is often monologic

What is meant by speaking prompt in this paper is a set of information about thing that is going to be described by the students. The thing that is described in the lesson is animal. The information is about the general classification, the part of the body, the habitat, food etc. The information is not put in sentences but in words or phrases. This material is used either for transaction or performance. Therefore the teachers have to decide the material based on the function

This prompt has many advantages such as:
a. It improves the students interest because it provides pictures.
b. It helps the students to find vocabulary they need to speak.
c. It helps the students to organize their speaking.
d. It gives chance to the students to discuss with their friends to get data about the animal so they have enough material to speak so it can increase their confidence.
e. It avoids the students from memorizing.

TEACHING PROCEDURE

As stated above that speaking is taught after the students get the information about the text, the social function, the generic structure and its language features in BKOF and the examples of the text in MOT. It means that the students have been familiar with the text and it is time for them to construct their own text. The procedure in teaching speaking is as follow:

a. Pre speaking activities

In this step, students are introduced with the objective of the lesson. Then they are given a picture of an animal and discuss about them and let them ask their partner each other. They have to complete the table which contains facts or information needed about the pictures. This is the speaking prompt that is given. It can arouse their motivation and develop their vocabulary.

Based on their discussion the teacher shows the information or facts about the animal in the pictures. The class discuss difficult words and pronounce them with the help of the teacher. The teacher also reviews the organization of the text and the use of simple present tense because the students will need them to construct their text.

b. While speaking

The teacher gives chance to the students to describe the animal based on the information given. In JCOT step, the students play a role play. The students are asked to make a group of four. One will play as a guide and the others as visitors in the Safari Park. This activity is to give the students the situation where they have to use the text in the suitable context so they will get the understanding about the function of a certain text especially report text.

In ICOT step, it is time for the students to present the text individually. The activity given is the same as the previous step, that is they have to describe the animal in picture. Because they have to do it individually, the situation should be different. Here
the teacher ask the students to be an animal lover who concern much about lion. he
gives clear description about lion to the audience.
c. Post speaking
   The students can response their fiend’s performance by giving comment, asking
   questions related to the text.

Appendix 1: STUDENT WORKSHEET

WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT IT?

I. TASK I
   With your partner, observe the pictures and discuss the answer of the questions!

1. What pictures are they?
2. What do you call the male, the female and the young?
3. Complete the table!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification :</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Habitat :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food :</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prey on :</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TASK 2**

Let’s review about report text! Complete the table!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generic structure -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language feature -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TASK 3**

Role play:

Make group of four. One of you are the guide and your friends are the visitors in the Safari Park. You have to give a clear description about the animals to the visitors. Now you are in the area for lions. Based on the data that you have got in task 1, please tell the visitors about them, and answer their questions from the visitors.

**TASK 4**

Do it individually!

You are an animal lover. You concern much about lions. You describe the lion to the audience.
TASK 5
Make comment to your friends who perform in front of the classroom based on the note that you have made!

Rubric for observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
1 : needs improvement
2 : satisfactory
3 : good
4 : excelent

CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDATION

Teaching speaking means teaching the students to communicate so they can use English in their life. They have to express or produce the text fluently, accurately and acceptably. The teacher should help them to use words and phrases which are put together in sentences appropriately, the pronunciation, vocabulary. By knowing the advantages of speaking prompt, it is hope that it can help the students:

1. To get the idea about the things that they going to talk about.
2. Use the vocabulary they might need in producing the text
3. Get the chance to discuss with their friends to complete the form
4. To be interested with the material

To have a successful teaching especially in teaching speaking, it is recommended to the teacher that:

1. They understand the nature of a language especially English.
2. They understand the approach that is used in teaching English as a foreign language.
3. They use a suitable method and technique to teach speaking.
4. They use interesting media and material.
5. They use speaking prompt in their speaking class.
6. They can modify the subject according to the students need.

REFERENCES


Spratt, Mary, Pulverness, Alan, & Williams, Melanie. (2011). *The Teaching Knowledge Test Course, Modules 1,2,3*. Singapore, Cambrige University Press

http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/getting-teenagers-talking
STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION OF ENGLISH LEARNING DIFFICULTIES AND STRATEGIES

Fetty Poerwita Sary
f.poerwitasary@gmail.com
Telkom University, Bandung, Indonesia

Abstract: English is considered as important in this era, especially towards the implementation of the ASEAN free market known as the ASEAN Economic Community by the end of 2015, which means that competition in the job market will increase. Many universities open their international class to facilitate the need of prospective students (senior high school graduates). In fact, there are still problems facing by the students in learning English as a tool to understand other courses. Therefore, the research is aimed to know students’ perception of the difficulties they encounter in learning English as a foreign language, also the reasons underlying these difficulties, and strategies they use in accomplishing their linguistic tasks. This study used two questionnaires that are distributed to 45 new students of International ICT Business class, Telkom University Bandung Indonesia. The results showed that the 98% of respondents said that they have problem in English especially grammar. It was due to their lack of knowledge of the English linguistic rules, and they made use of various strategies; social and affective strategies mainly.

Key words: English learning, difficulties, strategies

Introduction
ASEAN free market does really open our eyes to be realistic in facing what happened in the job market. MasyarakatEkonomi ASEAN (MEA) or ASEAN Economic Community will be implemented by the end 2015. It means that whether we are ready or not, soon or later the time will come. It does not only open flow of goods or services, but also the labor market.MEA requires the elimination of rules that have plagued the recruitment of foreign labor. So in essence, MEA will give more opportunities of foreign workers to fill various positions and professions in Indonesia and also allow Indonesian workers to work abroad as well. (http://www.bbc.co.uk/indonesia/berita_indonesia, 2014)

Actually, this situation is realized by many people. The presence of international schools, from kindergarten to university level, is mushrooming in Indonesia (Sary, 2013) to anticipate it. Many people aware they need to get exposed to English language to make
them get used to it. To be the students in international class, English is very important to be prepared before they start to study in international class. It is because the class will be conducted in English. Otherwise, it will be very difficult for the students to understand other courses. From the pilot study using all population of new students of international ICT Business class 2014-2015, it can be summed up as follows:

**Table 1: Students’ Perception about English exposure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Do you have problems with English?</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Do you have opportunity to speak English outside the class?</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Do you have had enough exercises in primary and secondary school in the various language skills?</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do you think that those skills should be sharpened in higher education?</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When you do not like the topic of what you read, do you have problems in understanding what you read?</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before the students were accepted to be the international students, they should take TOEFL test and enclosed the certificate during the registration. Here is the result of the students’ score.

**Table 2: Students’ TOEFL Score**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOEFL Score</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 500</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>450-499</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400-449</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350-399</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Telkom University, the international students should get the TOEFL Score at least 500 to graduate. It means that still many students need to improve their English. Why the standard is so high? It is because they are going to need that for mastering other subjects. If they have problem in English, they will find problems in understanding the subject they are learning. Therefore, this study deals with the difficulties of the students when they learn English as a foreign language, and the reasons for these difficulties as perceived by the student themselves. This study tries to determine the difficulties faced by
the students when learning English whether they were due to the students’ lack of knowledge of language rules, lack of motivation for foreign language, or lack of training (Ghrib, 2004) which are affected by the language learning itself. The research is also dealing with the students’ use of strategies when they do their assignment especially when it is related to linguistic capability.

When it concerns about the learners strategies, Muslim in Sary (2009) stated that learning strategy that can develop students’ involvement in the teaching and learning process is pra learning activity, information delivery, students’ role, evaluation, and feedback. Meanwhile, learning strategies, according to Scarcella and Oxford (1992) in Oxford (2003), are “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques --such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task -- used by students to enhance their own learning”

There are four dimensions of learning style that are considered the most strongly associated with L2 or FL learning, namely: sensory preference, personality type, desired degree of generality, and biological difference.

**Sensory Preference**

Sensory preference can be defined as perceptual learning channel that the students find the most comfortable. It can be divided into four areas:


For this area, usually the students like to read and get the information from visual stimulation. Without any visual backup, the lecturers’ explanation can be quite confusing for the students.

b. Auditory

For auditory learners, it will be easily for them to understand the lecturers’ conversation and oral direction. They are interested in classroom interaction in role-plays or similar activity, but they will face problem in written work.

c. Kinesthetic (movement-oriented)

d. Tactile (touch-oriented).

Kinesthetic and tactile students are almost the same. What they like are lots of movement and enjoy working with tangible objects, collages, and flashcards. Sitting at a desk for very long will make them feel bored. They prefer to have frequent breaks and move around the room.
Personality Types

Personality type, often called psychological type, is a construct based on the work of psychologist Carl Jung. Ehrman and Oxford (1989, 1990) in Oxford (2003) found a number of significant relationships between personality type and language proficiency. There are four types of personality, namely:

a. extraverted vs. introverted

By definition, extraverts gain their greatest energy from the external world. They want interaction with people and have many friendships, some deep and some not. In contrast, introverts derive their energy from the internal world, seeking solitude and tending to have just a few friendships, which are often very deep. Extraverts and introverts can learn to work together with the help of the lecturer.

b. intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential;

Intuitive-random students tend to think in abstract, futuristic, large-scale, and non-sequential ways. They often like to have sudden insights, create theories and new possibilities, and prefer to guide their own learning. In contrast, sensing-sequential learners need guidance and specific instruction from the lecturers, and look for consistency. They like facts rather than theories.

c. thinking vs. feeling

Thinking learners are oriented toward the stark truth, even though it hurts some people’s feelings. They want to be viewed as competent and do not tend to offer praise easily—even though they might secretly desire to be praised themselves. In comparison, feeling learners value other people in very personal ways. They show empathy and compassion through words, not just behaviors, and say whatever is needed to smooth over difficult situations.

d. closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving.

Closure-oriented students want to reach judgments or completion quickly and want clarity as soon as possible. These students are serious, hardworking learners who like to be given written information and enjoy specific tasks with deadlines. In contrast, open learners’ language learning less seriously, treating it like a game to be enjoyed rather than a set of tasks to be completed. Open learners dislike deadlines; they want to have a good time and seem to soak up the information by osmosis rather than hard effort. Open learners sometimes do better than closure-oriented learners in developing fluency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989 in Oxford, 2003), but they are at a disadvantage in a traditional classroom setting. Closure-oriented and open learners provide a good
balance foreach other in the classroom. The former are the task-driven learners, and the latter knowhow to have fun.

**Desired Degree of Generality**

It emphasizes on the contrasts of the learner who focuses on the main idea or big picture with the learner who concentrates on details. Global or holistic students like socially interactive, communicative events in which they can emphasize the main idea and avoid analysis of grammatical detail. They are comfortable even when not having all the information. They feel free to guess from the context. Analytic students tend to concentrate on grammatical details and often avoid more free-flowing communicative activities. Because of their concern for precision, analytic learners typically do not take the risks necessary for guessing from the context unless they are fairly sure of the accuracy of their guesses. The global student and the analytic student have much to learn from each other. A balance between generality and specificity is very useful for learning.

**Biological Differences**

Differences in learning style can also be related to biological factors, such as biorhythm, sustenance, and location. Biorhythm refers to the times of day when students feel good and perform their best. For example some students will perform their best in the morning, meanwhile the others will feel afternoon or even evening is the best time to learn. Sustenance refers to the need for food or drink while learning. Quite a number of learners do not feel comfortable learning without snacking, but others are distracted from study by food and drink. Location involves the nature of the environment: temperature, lighting, sound, and even the firmness of the chairs. Students differ widely with regard to these environmental factors.

In Oxford study (1990), she synthesized the previous study and resulted in language learning strategy system. There are six categories include memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social. These categories are divided into two main types, namely: direct and indirect.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Main Strategy</th>
<th>Additional Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>1. Memory</td>
<td>A. Creating a mental engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B. Applying the image and sound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C. Reviewing well</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D. Using the action
E. Storing and recalling memory.

A. Practicing
B. Receiving and sending messages
C. Analyzing and providing reasons
D. Creating a structure for input and output
E. Understanding and producing a new language with many different ways

2. Cognitive

A. Guessing intelligently
B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

3. Compensation

Indirect

1. Metacognitive

A. Focusing on your learning
B. Organizing and planning your learning
C. Evaluating the results of your study
D. Controlling your own way of thinking.

2. Affective

A. Reducing your anxiety
B. Wandering your own
C. Setting your emotion, motivation, and attitude

3. Social

A. Asking questions
B. Working with others
C. Feeling empathy with others
D. Learning through interaction with others

These two strategies (direct and indirect) can be implemented into four skills of language learning—speaking, writing, listening, and reading.

O’Malley et al in Ghrib (2004) categorizes learning strategies into:

a. Metacognitive strategies, which may entail planning the organization of written/spoken discourse, previewing, preparation, monitoring, self-evaluation, etc.

b. Cognitive strategies, which may involve repetition, resourcing, ordering, grouping or classification or words and concepts, substitution, inferencing, elaboration, deduction/induction, transfer, translation, etc.

c. Social mediation/social and affective strategies, which may imply eliciting from a teacher/peer additional explanation, cooperation, working with peers, self-talk, etc.

Research Design and Methodology

Participants

In this research, there were 45 students; 23 female and 22 male students, who ranged in age from 16-20 years old, were almost all speakers are Indonesian. The participants voluntarily fill in the questionnaires.
Research Instruments

The research is based on two student questionnaires. The first questionnaire was modified from Grib’s study (2004). It is intended to explore more about the students’ socio economic and cultural background, their linguistic habits and preferences, their motivation for and attitudes towards the learning of English and other foreign languages. The students also need to rate from 1 to 5 based on their perceptions toward their English ability which 1 represented ‘bad’; 2 ‘below average’; 3 ‘average’; 4 ‘fairly good’; and 5 ‘good’. The students were asked about if they pose difficulties in learning English, and about the reasons underlying them. They were also asked about the strategies they used to solve some of their lexical and semantic problem.

The second questionnaire was about testing, and about their attitude towards the English learning, which they had to evaluate as well. The students should rate their ability in listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities. Each rating was on a 4-point scale where 1 represented ‘best’, and 4 ‘least good’. The students also have to indicate the order of difficulty of the various skills they had to learn on a 4-point scale where 1 represented the ‘easiest’ and 4 the ‘hardest’ skill. Besides that, the students were asked about the difficulties they faced when learning the skills in English language and the reason; they also need to inform about the learning strategies they used to solve their linguistic problem; namely, lexical and semantic.

Data Collection and Procedure

The data gathered from students’ responses were collected then grouped, classified, and analyzed in relation to the points under investigation. Some percentages and frequency counts were provided whenever needed, and whenever possible; sometimes the respondents gave more than one answer, so the total count of the answer/ scores was not the total number of students but all answers should be considered when calculating percentages.

The data presented and discussed in this study are in accordance with the following points:

a. Characteristics of Respondents
b. The student’s difficulties in English and the reason underlying them.
c. The students’ strategies.
Results and Data Analysis

Characteristics of Respondents

The respondents in this study can be categorized based on their age, sex, family background (parents’ occupation and level of instruction), and their habit in using English. The respondents’ range of age is between 16-20 years old or it can be categorized as teenagers. Most of them are 18 years old (82%). The sex of respondents is balanced between male (49%) and female (51%). Regarding to parents’ occupation, most of the respondents’ parents are working (96%) and the parents’ profession shows that the respondents are included in ‘the have’ family which means that they can afford their children to study in the international class. Parents’ educational background is also shows how parents want their children to be successful through education because parents usually want their children can achieve more (78% of them graduated from bachelor, master, or doctoral degree) than them and they realize that competition is getting harder for their children so that they put their children to study in the international class.

Learner’s difficulties in English and the Reason underlying them

44 respondents out of 45 of the total respondents stated that they had problems in English. When they were asked to give an order of difficulty for the various skills, respondents mentioned that listening and writing are the hardest skills, and speaking and reading among the easiest. This matches their ability order in the various skills and the researcher’s perception of the learners’ difficulties.

Difficulties with Writing Skills

75% of the respondents use Indonesian first before they start writing in English. The way they think is like when they speak Indonesian after that it is translated into English. According to survey conducted by www.englishclub.com, writing is the most difficult one among the four skills (Arale, 2005). The survey found that listening and reading are the skills for learners to 'collect' information. Meanwhile, speaking and writing are the skills to 'produce' the information that we have got from listening and reading. Thus, speaking and writing are more difficult than listening and reading.

Moreover, the respondents stated that the main difficulties in writing English because of lack of grammar knowledge, vocabularies, and organization of ideas and text. Topic, spelling, overall structure, argumentation, punctuation, capitalization, and reference were not given as much importance.
Table 4: Respondents’ main difficulties in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary and meaning</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Reasoning (organization of ideas and text)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content/topic.idea</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall structure</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argumentation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capitalization</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exemplification</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>104</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Difficulties with the Listening Skill

The respondents stated that vocabulary, accent/ pronunciation, grammar as their major problems encountered with the listening skills (as in table 5). As mentioned by the previous survey that listening skill is needed to collect information, so that how can the students get the information as much as possible when the lecturer give explanation if they still have problem with this skill (how can they understand the material).

Table 5: Respondents’ main difficulties in Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accent/Pronunciation</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (technical problems, such as bad audio)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>88</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Meanwhile, according to the respondents they like to listen to English program and records and watch the English program as well which means that the students actually do...
have this skill but for some reasons such as lack of material, equipment, training in how to use the equipment, real-life situations where language learners need to understand spoken English, finally it might not help the students to improve their listening skill.

Besides that, almost all of lecturers in the international class are actually from Indonesia. The lecturers produce the same sounds in different ways such as different dialects and accents, stresses, rhythms, intonations, and mispronunciations. It can happen because they are all from different region in Indonesia and usually in each region has its own accent or dialect. So that, it is difficult for the students to listen and understand what the lecturers’ explanation.

**Difficulties with Reading Skills**

Table 6 shows that lack of vocabulary and meaning was again the major problem for the respondents (36%). Other items such as argumentation, exemplification, idiom, lazy to read, scientific words, and reference were not given as much importance.

The results also revealed that some of the respondents are lack of motivation to read in English which will give an impact on the reading process (Ghrib, 2004). For instance, as a matter of fact that 33% of respondents mentioned that they did not know how to get the logical reasoning of what they read so that it is hard to understand the content/topic/idea. It must be also kept in mind that once the students have the difficulties with the themes and topic, it will influence their ability in reading textbook. They will consider that the book is not interesting or challenging which in turn they fail to understand the subjects/courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Reasoning (organization of ideas and text)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content/topic/ideas</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argumentation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exemplification</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (idiom, lazy to read, scientific words)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Difficulties with Speaking Skills

When asked about their difficulties in speaking English, the students said that most of their problems stemmed from their lack of grammar (see table 7); they also mentioned that expressing their thought directly in English as their second obstacle, and considered being shy as a third problem.

Table 7: Respondents’ main difficulties in Speaking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressing your thought directly in English</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being shy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content/topic</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (technical problems, such as bad audio)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents also mentioned that they do not have opportunity to speak English outside the class (87%). They will interact with their friend with Bahasa Indonesia instead of English even though that they are in the class. The lecturers should remind them over and over again to switch the language into English.

Reasons for Learners’ Difficulties

The students’ difficulties with the various skills/ tasks as revealed by the two questionnaires, indicates that:

a. The respondents considered that their problems were linguistics for most part. They admitted that they had difficulties with grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, themes, topics, meaning.

b. The students’ difficulties were also cognitive/ mental that they were not able to think in English directly and they relied on Indonesian. Moreover the students reported that they had difficulties with logical reasoning, argumentation.

c. The students mentioned that the primary and secondary school had not prepared them well with the exercises in order to sharpen their language skills. Therefore, they still need that the skills should be taught or given in higher school.
d. Students’ difficulties were also psychological and it results from lack of motivation to use English (to read, to speak, to write, and to listen) and shyness.

e. The students’ difficulties were sometimes technical and organizational such as spelling, capitalization, punctuation and with overall structure and paragraphing like organization of ideas and text.

What is interesting to note is that most of the factors underlying students’ problem were internal factors (problems that come from the students themselves) rather than external ones resulting from teaching and lack of exposure to the English language. Even though, the problems that the students face now are the result of the process of teaching and learning they got in primary and secondary school.

Learners’ Strategies

When the respondents answered the Questionnaire I, the respondents were asked about their strategies they used to solve lexical and/ semantic problems, provided the following examples, which were categorized as follows:

a. Social and Affective strategies: ‘I ask someone for help’

b. Resourcing: ‘I look up words in the textbook or in a dictionary’

c. Paraphrasing: ‘I use synonym, express idea differently by changing the structure’

d. Simplification: ‘I simplify my sentence’

e. Avoidance Strategy: ‘I give up’; ‘I leave a blank’

f. Translation: ‘I use an equivalent term in Indonesian language’

The result of respondents’ strategies in learning English will be presented in table 8 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Social and Affective Strategies</td>
<td>24.34%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Resourcing</td>
<td>21.57%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Paraphrasing</td>
<td>20.22%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Simplification</td>
<td>14.83%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>10.41%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Avoidance Strategy</td>
<td>8.63%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All the mentioned strategies were shared by the respondents since the all almost had background in common; what varied was the learners’ rank ordering and the frequency of use of each strategy. The respondents tend to ask their friends first if they do not know the answer or understand. After that, if their friend cannot answer their questions or if they think that their friends’ answer is not satisfying than they will look up dictionary. In writing, usually the respondents will try to rewrite their sentence by changing their sentence structure but still have the same idea or they use synonym. If they cannot write long sentence, they tend to write the sentence as simple as possible. If they do not know the vocabulary, they will borrow Indonesian language vocabulary or use equivalent term in Indonesian. At the end, if they totally do not know or understand how to express their idea, they will keep their answer blank.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

It can be concluded from this study that most respondents considered that grammar and vocabulary are the main problem they face when they want to use skill in English language. It influenced their writing skill because when they want to express their idea, they feel not confident since they are lack of grammar knowledge even though they have learned about it in primary and secondary school. It is recommended that for these students, additional English course or treatment is needed to support them to learn English.

The respondents also mentioned that writing and listening were the most difficult skill for them, so that exercises that emphasize to these skills should be considered important. Besides that, the institution also needs to give facilities such as English Self Learning Center where students can learn and improve their own English capability by themselves. Institution also has to support the material in this center such as movies, song, magazines, novel, or short stories which in turn can also improve their vocabulary. Lecturers also can give the student extra text to be read in the class or at home as a homework. Ask the students to summarize, paraphrase, and present it in front of the class.

To sum up, lecturers also could make language task more as ‘social activities’ and less as language exercise since more respondents tend to use this strategy. Make the students feel happy when they learn and without realizing that actually they are learning.
REFERENCE


______. (2014). *Apa Yang Harus Anda Ketahui Tentang Masyarakat Ekonomi ASEAN.*  
[http://www.bbc.co.uk/indonesia/berita_indonesia](http://www.bbc.co.uk/indonesia/berita_indonesia)

The articles in this present volume have undergone edit and review by the following reputable language experts:

1. Prof. Dr. Yazid Basthomi, M.A., Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia
2. Dr. Rick Arruda, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia
4. Prof. Dr. Didi Sukyadi, MA., Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia
5. Prof. Mohammad Adnan Latief, MA., P.hD., Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia
6. Prof. Dr. Joko Nurkamto, M.Pd., Universitas Sebelas Maret Solo, Indonesia
7. Drs. Slamet Setiawan, MA., P.hD., Universitas Negeri Surabaya, Indonesia
8. Dr. Like Rascova Oktaberlina, M.Ed., UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang, Indonesia
9. Dr. Dedi Sulaeman, M.Hum, UIN Sunan Gunung Jati Bandung, Indonesia
10. Dr. Tien Rafida, M.Hum, UIN Sumatra Utara, Indonesia
11. Dr. Abdul Gafur Marzuki, M.Pd., IAIN Palu, Indonesia

The Editor Board and Administrative Management of *Indonesian EFL Journal* would like to extend their gratitude and appreciation to them for their work in reading and reviewing the articles, and offering remarks and corrections for the betterment of the present issue. However, any possible deficiency and negligence are the responsibility of the Journal Management.
INDONESIAN EFL JOURNAL
GUIDELINES FOR ARTICLE CONTRIBUTORS

1. **INDONESIAN EFL JOURNAL** accepts articles on English language teaching and learning, linguistics, and literature, which have not been published or are under consideration elsewhere;

2. To be considered for publication, manuscripts should be typed in MS Word doc. Format; using 12 size Times New Roman fonts; left, right, top, and bottom margin are 2 cm; 1,5 cm-spaced on A4-size paper; 15-25 pages in English (excluding References);

3. Articles will be reviewed by subject reviewers, while the editors reserve the right to edit articles for format consistency without altering the substance;

4. Articles are to be written in essay style with a subheading for each part, except for the introduction.

   The subheading system is as follows:
   
   **LEVEL ONE** : ALL CAPITALS, BOLD, LEFT JUSTIFICATION
   
   **Level Two** : Capitals-lowercase, Bold, Left Justification
   
   **Level Three** : Capitals-lowercase, Italic-bold, Left Justification

5. Non-Research articles should include: (a) Title; (b) Full name of contributor(s) without title(s), email address, institution; (c) Abstract (max. 100 words); (d) Keywords; (e) Introduction without heading; (f) Body; (g) Conclusion, and (g) References;

6. Research articles should contain: (a) Title; (b) Full name of contributor(s) without title(s), email address, institution; (c) Abstract (max. 100 words); (d) Keywords; (e) Introduction without heading, which includes review of related literature and research purpose; (f) Method; (g) Findings and Discussions; (h) Conclusions and Suggestions; (i) References; and (j) Appendix, if any;

7. The references should be presented alphabetically and chronologically, and be written in accordance with APA style, e.g.


8. Manuscripts, as well as contributors’ brief CV, and a number of selected items to be included in the subject index (about 20 items) should be emailed to: indonesia_efljournal@yahoo.co.id