### Vol. 1 No. 2 August 2020 P-ISSN: 2715-7512; E-ISSN: 2716-0246



English Education Department Graduates' Job Preferences: A Case Study of English Language Learning Center Teachers Aji Budi Rinekso, Nurin Afifah, Ari Nur Widyantoro

A Study of Indonesian Lecturers' Perception on Student Plagiarism I Gede Nyoman Arya Risaldi Dwi Nugraha, Made Hery Santosa, Anak Agung Gede Yudha Paramartha

The Impact of Individual Student Mentoring for Teacher Professionalism in English Pre-Service Teacher Education Mega Wati

Students' Perceptions Toward the Effectiveness of Collaborative Brainstorming in Academic Writing Classes Rendhi Rakasiwi, Listyani

Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis to the Language Use and Display in Whitening Cosmetic Product Advertisements Melania Priska Mendrofa

Undergraduate Students' Perception Towards Grammar Assessment in the EFL Classroom Fadhlur Rahman

The Effect of Using 3-2-1 Strategy on Students' Reading Comprehension Achievement **Zhenita Deliany, Erfan, Wiwiek Eko Bindarti** 

Published by: ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND HUMANITIES UNIVERSITAS KRISTEN DUTA WACANA YOGYAKARTA



SAGA	Val 1	No 2	Pages Yogyakarta,		P-ISSN	E-ISSN
	Vol. 1	No. 2	67-144	August 2020	2715-7512	2716-0246



Vol. 1 No. 2 August 2020

saga, VOL 1 NO 2, 2020

saga (P-ISSN: 2715-7512; E-ISSN: 2716-0246)

**SAGA: Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics** (P-ISSN: 2715-7512, E-ISSN: 2716-0246) is a scientific journal published by the English Language Education Department of Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana (UKDW), Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

It publishes articles twice a year, in February and August.

### ©All Right Reserved

No parts of this publication may be reproduced in any form without prior written permission from **saga**, to whom all requests to reproduce copyright materials should be redirected. **saga** grants authorisation for individuals to photocopy copyright materials for private use. This authorisation does not extend to any other kind of copying, in any form, and for any purpose other than private research use.

### **Open Access Information**

**saga** provides immediate open access to its content on the principle that making research freely available to the public supports a greater global exchange of knowledge. The journal provides full contents at: http:///saga.ukdw.ac.id/index.php/SAGA

### **Mailing Address**

Saga Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics English Language Education Department Faculty of Education and Humanities Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana (UKDW) Jl. dr. Wahidin 5-25, Yogyakarta 55224 e-mail: saga@staff.ukdw.ac.id website: http://saga.ukdw.ac.id/index.php/SAGA



**Saga**, VOL 1 NO 2, 2020

#### **EDITOR IN CHIEF**

Adaninggar Septi Subekti, M.Sc.

#### **EDITORS**

Dr. Fransisca Endang Lestariningsih (UKDW, Indonesia) Ignatius Tri Endarto, M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia) Paulus Widiatmoko, M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia) Andreas Winardi, M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia) Lemmuela Alvita Kurniawati, M.Hum. (UKDW, Indonesia)

### **EXTERNAL REVIEWERS**

Lusia Marliana Nurani, Ph.D. (Bandung Institute of Technology, Indonesia) Joseph Ernest Mambu, Ph.D. (Satya Wacana Christian University, Indonesia) Peter Suwarno, Ph.D. (Arizona State University, USA) Narin Loa, M.TESOL (Arizona State University, USA) Ali Garib, M.A. (Lebanese American University, Lebanon)

#### **COVER DESIGN and LAYOUT**

Sumantyo Kartika Nugroho

#### **SECRETARY and DISTRIBUTION**

Dini Susanti Tri Yanuartin

#### **TECHNICAL SUPPORT**

Antonius Rachmat C., S.Kom., M.Cs.



# CONTENTS

English Education Department Graduates' Job Preferences:	
A Case Study of English Language Learning Center Teachers	
Aji Budi Rinekso, Nurin Afifah, Ari Nur Widyantoro	
A Study of Inonesian Lecturers' Perception on Student Plagiar	ism
I Gede Nyoman Arya Risaldi Dwi Nugraha, Made Hery Santosa,	13111
	91.04
Anak Agung Gede Yudha Paramartha	
The Impact of Individual Student Mentoring for Teacher Profe	ssionalism in English
Pre-Service Teacher Education	8
Mega Wati	
Stadents' Dense Company data Effective and a Collective Co	. D
Students' Perceptions Toward the Effectiveness of Collaborativ	e Brainstorming
in Academic Writing Classes	
Rendhi Rakasiwi, Listyani	109-118
Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis to the Language Use and I	Display
in Whitening Cosmetic Product Advertisements	y-py
Melania Priska Mendrofa	
<b>Undergraduate Students' Perception Towards Grammar Asses</b>	sment
in the EFL Classroom	
Fadhlur Rahman	
The Effect of Using 3-2-1 Strategy on Students' Reading Comp	
Zhenita Deliany, Erfan, Wiwiek Eko Bindarti	



# ENGLISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT GRADUATES' JOB PREFERENCES: A CASE STUDY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING CENTER TEACHERS

Aji Budi Rinekso<sup>1</sup>, Nurin Afifah<sup>2</sup>, Ari Nur Widyantoro<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia <sup>2,3</sup>Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta <sup>1</sup>ajibudirinekso@upi.edu

Received: 3 May 2020

Accepted: 6 July 2020

#### Abstract

The demands of English as an international language keep increasing along the time. Through time, the needs for learning English vary for different purposes. Then, the realization comes to the surface that not all groups of learners need to learn general English. Thus, the design of English courses is developed for specific purposes as they are best known as English for Specific Purpose (ESP). The needs for learning English in specific purpose enable English teachers to pose themselves in different challenges other than in formal education. This paper aims at investigating the motivation of some English Education Department graduates for working as English instructors at English courses. The qualitative data was obtained by conducting an interview to some English instructors in an English course in Yogyakarta. After analyzing the data, it was found that despite its challenges, some English Education graduates prefer to work in English courses to regular schools. With all privileges of working in an English course, some general motives underlie their working preferences. Among of the factors are flexible teaching situation, more chances for improving personal competence, higher salary and moderate career prospect.

**Keywords**: English Education Department Graduates, Working Preferences, English Courses

#### **INTRODUCTION**

In Indonesian context, English is considered as a foreign language that should be mastered by students. The need for learning English is essentially affected by the advancement of technology and more globalized era (Brown et al., 2008). Moreover, English proficiency is required in some affairs such as for entering universities, applying for scholarships and applying for jobs. This condition forces Indonesian students to learn English. Otherwise, they cannot compete

#### Aji Budi Rinekso, Nurin Afifah, and Ari Nur Widyantoro

with others in this globalization era. Since learning English is a necessity, the nonformal education sectors, especially English language learning centers growth rapidly across some cities in Indonesian including the Special Region of Yogyakarta. In line with this fact, Carron and Carr-Hill (1991) also claimed that nonformal education programs proliferate rapidly over the past few decades and radically entering the field of education. The English language learning centers commonly have some programs such general English or conversation class, TOEFL preparation and simulation, IELTS preparation and simulation, English for kids. Even some of English language learning centers are available for doing translation, proofreading and interpreting. Categorized as nonformal education, English language learning centers play an important role in the field of English language teaching. Many people believe that the existence English language learning centers contribute to the success of achieving English proficiency by providing specific and relevant materials, link and match of teaching methodologies and qualified teachers. Rogers (2004) defined non formal education as broad and rich of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which are acquired outside schools. Moreover, the terminology of non-formal education also refers to 'flexible learning', 'alternative learning', 'complementary learning', 'supplementary education', 'second chance education' and 'extracurricular activities' (Yasunaga, 2014). These terms amplify the image of English language learning centers as nonformal education, commonly known as the place for students to upgrade their English performance after studying at schools. The English language learning centers also play a role as complementary learning or supplementary education which can support the better students' achievement. Moreover, the teaching approach in English language centers seem to be different from schools since they are often claimed as more learner centered than most formal education institutions (Etling, 1993). Another feature distinguishing English language learning centers to the formal education is that they have more flexible learning materials. Students can request to learn only certain materials that they want without following the sequence/the level of the materials. Of course, there are also some considerations and justifications done by English language learning centers to allow students moving to a certain material. In line with this, Dib (1988) argued that the education process in non-formal education is characterized as using flexible curricula, applying flexible methodology and also adapting to the needs or interests of students more dominantly. English language learning centers can also be categorized as English for specific program in terms of the offered programs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that a course is established to meet the needs of various groups. In this case, English language learning centers provide any programs based on their students' needs such as TOEFL/IELTS preparation program and English for kids. Thus, as an ESP, English language learning centers provide different challenges for English teachers to take into account (Basturkmen, 2010).

Recruitment for new teachers' position in English language learning centers is held almost every year in June until August. Announcement of job vacancy for English teachers is often posted along with some requirements such as holding a bachelor's degree of English department, getting GPA minimum 3.00/ above, and having TOEFL PBT score 500/ above or IELTS score 5.5/ above. This situation corresponds with English department graduates who are seeking for a job. Meanwhile, schools as formal education also need additional English teachers to replace the retired teachers or furlough teachers. Recruiting new English teachers is expected to fulfill the vacant English teacher positions. However, issue on the decrease of English education department graduates willing to apply for school teachers' position is getting raised. Actually, they have reasons why they are not really interested to apply for that position because not all teachers have the same preferences in deciding where to work (Boyd et al., 2013). Moreover, to make job decisions based on their preferences, teachers must feel like they already have plan and choices about where they want to work (Cannata & Penaloza, 2012). This is also influenced by their beliefs since belief is a kind of personal judgment that is subjective and experienced-based (Pehkonen & Pietilä, 2003; Raymond, 1997).

Some studies investigating teachers' job preferences have been conducted. Cannata (2010) conducted a study about investigating the teacher job search process. The findings reveal that most of the teachers focus on district rather than the school when they are identifying the open positions. In addition, they also emphasize on their feelings and familiarity when deciding to apply for teacher job position. In line with this, Cannata and Penaloza (2012) conducted a study on the job choices and preferences of charter school teachers. The results showed that charter schools teachers are generally less experienced teachers with lack of certification and they have greater preferences for working in any schools where they agree with the school mission. In addition, charter school teachers also perform less preference for working a school with a great deal of job security. Meanwhile they tend to find schools which are close to where they live. Since the previous studies focus on investigating teachers job preferences generally, this study will focus on specifically investigating the job preferences of some English education department graduates for working as English teachers at English language learning centers rather than at schools. Thus, this study deals with two research questions presented as follows.

- 1. How do the English education department graduates compare the working situation between English language learning centers and schools?
- 2. How do the English education department graduates make judgments about their job preferences?

### **METHOD**

This study employed a qualitative case study. Several reasons support this study to be classified as a case study. Firstly, a case study positioned the researchers to be the instrument within the context of a unique, special or interesting case in order to understand the social phenomena naturally (Creswell, 2009; Neale et al., 2006; Merriam, 2009). In this case, job preferences of English education department graduates become the specific case explored in this study. Another important reason is that a case study answers "how" and "why" questions (Yin, 2003, p.1). Thus, this study provided two research questions in form of how and why questions. Moreover, this study involved four English education department graduates who are currently working as English teacher in one of the most popular English language learning centers in Yogyakarta. From the four participants, two of them were junior teachers, as they only had two years teaching experiences while the rest participants were senior teachers holding for more than 5 years of teaching experiences. Furthermore, in terms of the teaching classification, the formers were responsible for beginner students while the latter handled intermediate-advanced students. The data were collected through semi-structured interview and questionnaire. Then, the collected data were analyzed by following the three steps, namely (1) data reduction, (2) data display and (3) drawing and verifying conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

From the interview and questionnaire, the researchers gained rich information related to the job preferences of some English education department graduates who are currently working as teachers of an English language learning center. The findings are presented in accordance with the two research questions mentioned earlier.

### The comparison of working at English language learning centers and schools

The result of the questionnaire led the researchers to identify what aspects considered by the participants to teach at the English language learning center. There were 13 statements classified into eight categories covering personal reasons (number 1, 2), teaching experience (number 3, 4), salary (number 5, 6), career prospect (number 7, 8), time flexibility (number 9, 10), location (number 11, 12), working workload (number 13, 14), and students' motivation (number 15, 16). From the eight categories, the researchers found that career prospect and location do not become the participants' considerations for teaching at the English language learning center.

No.	Statements/Questions		Responses		
		SA	А	D	SD
1.	I enjoy teaching at English language learning centers.	3	1		
2.	I am used to teach at English language learning centers.	1	2		
3.	I know that teaching at English language learning centers is different	2	2		
	from teaching at schools.				
4.	I do not find any problems teaching English at English language learning	1	3		
	centers.				
5.	English language learning centers offer attractive salary.	1	3		
6.	In terms of salary, it is possible that schools and English language learning	2	2		
	centers offer different salary.				
7.	English language learning centers offer potential career prospect and		4		
	professional development opportunity.				
8.	English language learning centers give better career prospect than schools.			2	2
9.	Working time flexibility becomes my consideration to teach at English	1	3		
	language learning centers.				
10.	Schools have more fixed working time schedule.	2	2		
11.	Location becomes my consideration to teach at English language learning		1	3	
	centers (e.g. your home is near your office).				
12.	I put the highest priority for working at offices near my house.			2	2
13.	Workload also become my consideration to teach at English at English	2	2		
	language learning centers.				
14.	Commonly, schools have more complex administration.	3	1		
15.	I enjoy interacting with the students at English at English language learning	1	3		
	centers.				
16.	Students at English at English language learning centers perform higher	2	2		
	learning motivation than at schools.				

After doing the data analysis process, the researchers classify the eight categories into two main categories, namely internal factors and external factors. The internal factors refer to any factors coming from the participants themselves. Meanwhile, the external factors relate to any factors coming from the outside of the participants. In this case, the external factors become the aspects for comparing between the working situation at English language learning centers and at schools. Since career prospect and location are not considered by the participants as the reasons for teaching at the English language learning center, therefore, these two aspects are excluded in Table 2. However, those aspects are discussed at the last section.

Table 2. Factors Influencing the Job Preferences				
Internal factors Personal reason				
	Teaching experience			
External factors	Salary			
	Time flexibility			
	Administration systems/workload			
	Students' motivation			

The internal factors play a role as the participants' foundation for conceptualizing their perceptions for comparing the working situation between at the English language learning center and at schools. Firstly, the personal reason relates with their own motivation for teaching English at their institution (English language learning center). Two participants stated that they chose the English language learning center because they already started teaching English since they were still studying in the bachelor's degree. Thus, generally English language learning centers allow senior English education department students (minimum at the 5th semester) to apply for parttime English teacher positions. Conversely, schools only employ the ones who already hold the bachelor's degree (S1) for filling out the English teacher position. The rest of the participants only stated that they taught in the English language learning center because their positions. The rest of the participants students learning English and to practice their teaching skills.

Actually, this is not the only English language learning centers that I have joined. I ever taught in some other English language learning centers since I was in bachelor's degree. The reason is that I want to find as many as possible teaching experiences since I was a student of bachelor's degree and usually English language learning centers accept any senior students who are willing to teach English. Therefore, I choose English language learning centers to start my career.

Interviewee 1

Because I already worked in since I was a student of bachelor's degree. At that time, my friend offered me for teaching English here. Therefore, I think it's good for me to find teaching experiences here. Well I enjoyed teaching in this institution.

Interviewee 2

The reason why I am teaching here is that I want to help everyone to learn English. I want to make everyone love English.

Interviewee 3

The reason of why I work in nonformal educational institution is that this institution still in line with my expertise, I mean teaching English. Besides, I can practice what I have learned in my campus as well as get the salary from this institution.

Interviewee 4

Secondly, teaching experience also becomes the factor influencing how the participants shape their minds about the issue of teaching English at schools and English language learning cen-

ters. Two of the participants admitted teaching at schools while the rest did not. Those having experiences to teach at schools also worked as senior English teachers at English language learning centers. Therefore, they could give more detail comparison of their perception in teaching at both institutions as they already experienced teaching English in both formal education and nonformal education. However, the voices of the junior teachers should also be considered since they are fresh graduates and may have different perspective regarding to the job preferences.

*Yes. I ever taught in two schools. One is for around 2 years while the other is 3 years.* 

Interviewee 1 Never. But I have done the teaching practicum/internship teaching at a school. Interviewee 2 Yes. I ever worked as a teaching in one of junior high schools in Yogyakarta for around 2 years. Interviewee 3

Never. Ya I never worked as an English teacher at formal schools. Interviewee 4

Moving to the external factors of choosing to teach at English learning centers rather than schools, the participants mostly highlighted the aspects of salary, time flexibility, and administration systems. Talking about salary, it is undeniable that that almost all of teachers around the world prefer to work with high salaries. The high salary becomes the significant factor in influencing the teacher job preferences since higher salaries perform dual benefits as retaining and attracting the effective distribution of teachers (Hendricks, 2015). From the four participants, most of them acknowledged that mostly English language learning centers gave higher salary than formal schools. Moreover, schools usually set the fixed monthly salary for their teachers without giving any additional fees. While, the salary system in English language learning centers is counted per meeting and is also influenced by the teachers' performances and the number of classes they handle. Accordingly, schools or educational institutions' situation such as pay scale, working hours, work load, class size number, attitude of students, awareness and mentality of parents affect the teachers job satisfaction (Chamundeswari, 2013). They also get additional fees if they reach the teaching target. However, the participants realized that every school and every English language learning center may have different salary system and different salary standard. It is quite hard to justify the level of English teachers' salary between schools and English language learning center accurately, but at least they can compare them by common facts. Moreover, the workload also becomes the consideration in which most of the participants perceived that schools give more workload than the English language learning center. In schools, teachers are demanded to be more responsible for taking care of their students. The level of teacher salary may also affect a wide range of teachers' life situation since high salary improves teachers' satisfaction of their income, reduces the possibility of holding outside (non-teacher) jobs, and reduces self-reported financial stress (De Ree et al., 2017).

Based on my experience, commonly English language learning center offers higher salary than schools. I can say this because in schools we have more workload than in English language learning center. In schools, we have to work full time and be responsible for taking care of the children such as we should waiting for the children until their parents pick up them.

Interviewee 1

I think it is a bit higher in English language learning center, but ya it's not that high.

Interviewee 2

In schools, the salary is commonly fixed while here the salary is based on how many classes that teachers handle. So it may be a bit higher than the schools. Interviewee 3

Of course, the salary is possibly different. I may say if in a school we get Rp X while in English language learning center we can get three times or four times. Personally, I prefer the salary in nonformal education just like in this institution.

Interviewee 4

The second aspect is time flexibility. Most of the participants claimed that they preferred to teach English at English language learning center because of the time flexibility. Compared to schools, English language learning centers do not insist their teachers to always stay at the office. They only need to come to office when they have classes.

Yes. I like to teach here because of the time flexibility. I only come to the office when I have the scheduled classes. It is not necessary to standby the whole day at the office, so it's more efficient, I think.

Interviewee 1

Yes, of course.

Interviewee 2

Firstly, I don't know that English language learning center provides more flexible working time. But later It know it and I like it. I can do other businesses when I don't have classes here.

Interviewee 3

Ya I like the flexibility of the working time. Even, I have plan to work both in schools and in this institution (English language learning center). I can work the whole day at schools and I work here at evening.

Interviewee 4

The third is administration system. Both English language learning centers and schools focus on educational field. However, the nature of the administration system is a bit different. In this case, the administration system related to the working culture affects positively to the teachers' job satisfaction as well as their teaching performance (Arifin, 2015). Schools have more complex administration system as the teachers need to make lesson plan, syllabus, semester plan (program semester), annual plan (program tahunan), additional materials, attendance list, assessment procedure, teachers' journal, score reports, remedial programs etc. Moreover, they must refer to the national curriculum. In comparison, English language learning centers mandate simpler administration for the teachers such as lesson plan and students' progress report. They do not use the national curriculum, but they design their curriculum system based on the students' needs. On this aspect, Kleis et al., (1973) claim that the learning content in nonformal education learning is adjusted with the students' needs in order to maximize and achieve the learning goals. In addition, the number of students allowed in a class is different. Commonly, schools have 20-30 students for every class while the English language learning centers only have 7-10 students for each class. In short, job characteristics also become an important factor in choosing a job since they are potentially affecting worker turnover not only through preferences but also other job opportunities (Bonhomme et al., 2016).

Based on my experience, schools demand more administrations than English language learning center. Sometimes, the curriculum does not really match to the students' development. For example, sometimes a student's cognitive level is higher than materials suggested by the curriculum. As a result, we need to create teacher-made materials.

Interviewee 1

Well, it is quite different since commonly schools have 20-30 students for each class. But here, there are only 7 students allowed for a class. Besides, commonly we need lesson plan, syllabus, etc. while here I only need to follow the module suggested by this institution. It is quite simple.

Interviewee 2 Here, any teaching materials are already prepared, so I just use it for teaching. It is quite simple.

Interviewee 3 If we are teaching at schools, we have more students in a class. It will affect the teacher focus. I like to teach here because I only handle fewer students in a class and I can give more focus for each of student.

Interviewee 4

The last external factor, students' motivation in learning, admittedly contributes to the teachers' decision to teach at schools or English language learning centers. Generally, the elements of teaching practices such as interaction with students, professional autonomy, and self-growth affect to the teachers' satisfaction. Meanwhile, the issue related to school structures and policy making are perceived as the teachers' dissatisfaction (Karavas, 2010; Day, 2002; Day et al., 2006; Shann, 1998). It could be inferred that students' interaction with teachers revealing their motivation to learn English influences the teachers' satisfaction to their job as teachers. Low level of job satisfaction may lead to the teachers' motivation for leaving teaching profession (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Most of the participants claimed that students in English language learning centers showed higher learning motivation than students in schools. Most students choose English language learning centers because of their motivation to learn English. On this issue, nonformal education seems better than formal education in term of satisfying students' needs (Dib, 1988). In short, the students have higher awareness of learning English.

Based on my experience, the students here are really enthusiastic to ask for learning materials which are used to support their materials at schools. Interviewee 1

Ya, I think it is different. Since learning at schools is like a must, sometimes the students are bored. While in English language learning center, they come

here based on their willingness to learn English.

Interviewee 2

Of course, it's different. I think the communication and interaction between teachers and students are more fun here (English language learning center) than at schools. The students who are learning here are because they really need and want to learn English.

#### Interviewee 3

Commonly students who are learning here (English language learning center) are because they need English. The come with their willingness. Even, some students look more active to ask questions to me when they have some problems. It is really different from schools which commonly students are hesitate to ask questions to their teachers.

#### Interviewee 4

The other two aspects which were not considered by the participants as the reasons for teaching at English language learning centers were career opportunities and the location of workplace. English language learning centers give potential career prospect as well as schools. It is hard to justify that English language learning centers give better career prospect than schools. The participants gave various responses. However, most of them generally argue that both schools and English language learning centers provide the same potential career opportunity.

I think both schools and English language learning centers offer the same career opportunity. The most important thing is that the management systems in the institutions whether the management is subjective or objective to assess the teachers' performances.

Interviewee 1

Ya. I think almost the same. But if we are working at English language learning centers, we can have more opportunity to widen relationships. For example, we often do collaboration with other institutions to conduct TOEFL test and in-house training. So, we can get more challenging experiences.

Interviewee 2

We need to see from various aspects. Let say if we want to have more enjoyable and fun working environment, we can choose English language learning centers. We will get lower level of stress here than working at schools. But if we think about the long-term teaching career, we may choose schools.

Interviewee 3

It depends on the status of the teacher itself. If we are permanent teachers, ya it's good enough, I think. But if we are only contracted teachers, I think we need to perform higher achievement, so we can get the permanent teachers' status. This also happens for schools. So, I think both schools and English language learning centers have the same career prospect.

Interviewee 4

Lastly, the location did not become the participants' reasons for teaching at English language learning centers although some of them like to work near with their house. In this case, they did not put the location as the highest consideration for choosing the workplace.

Actually, I don't have problems with the location of my office. But I also enjoy to work at office which is near to my house. However, it is not the highest priority.

Interviewee 1 I think it doesn't influence my job preferences because my house is a bit far from this office.

Interviewee 2 Ya it is one aspect that I consider. But it is not the most important considerations for me to teach here.

Interviewee 3 I think location is not the most considered aspect for me to choose a job. If I enjoy to work in an office, I will work there although the office is not near my house.

Interviewee 4

To sum up how the participants compared working as English teachers at schools and at English language learning centers, table 3 below presents a brief description of schools and English language learning centers working situation based on several aspects.

Aspects	Schools	English language learning centers
Salary	• Fixed salary.	• Commonly offers higher salary.
	• No additional fees.	• The salary is counted per meeting and based on how many classes handled by the teachers.
		<ul> <li>The salary is also based on the teachers' teaching performances.</li> </ul>
Time flexibility	• Not flexible.	Relatively flexible.
	<ul> <li>Teachers should work</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>Teachers only come to the office when they</li> </ul>
	full time in a fixed working hour.	have classes.
Administration systems/ workload	<ul> <li>Demand more complex administrations.</li> </ul>	• Use simpler administrations.
	• A class consists of 20-30 students.	• A class consists of 7-10 students.
Students' motivation	• Not always motivated because learning at schools is an obligatory.	• Perform higher motivation because the students come to the English language learning center based on their willingness, their needs and their wants to learn English.
		• Students are more active to ask questions.

Table 3. The Comparison of Schools and English Language Learning Centers Working Situation

### The judgment of the job preferences

After comparing the working situation between schools and English language learning centers, the participants also stated their judgment about their job preferences. They have various perspective in judging their job preferences. As presented in the following interview results, two participants judged their job preferences generally by following their passion. Meanwhile, the rest of the participants argued that working as teachers should be the choice of English language education department graduates. It is their responsibility as the graduates of a teacher training department.

In my perspective, we need to follow our passion when are choosing for a job. Just follow your passion because it makes you enjoy every single step of your working experiences. You know, some of my friends who are graduating from English language education department become entrepreneurships instead of teaching English. However, I personally recommend to the English language education department graduates to be teachers. Wherever we teach is okay, the most important thing is sharing our knowledge to our students.

Interviewee 1

I suggest to fresh graduate of English language education department to join many job fair events. There will be various job vacancies that they can try to apply. I think it's not a must for them to choose educational job. They may choose any kinds of jobs as long as they enjoy it and have passion on it.

Interviewee 2

As English language education department graduates, prioritizing the jobs which can improve of English skills is a must. It is not only the matter of gaining the high salary but also the matter of enhancing our professional skills. In addition, if you are fresh graduates, just find a job that you enjoy it. Later, you can try to be more selective to find jobs including the salary when you are already having a lot of working experiences and qualified professional skills. Interviewee 3

I think working both at schools and at English language learning centers is good. Whenever you have chance to teach either at schools or at English language learning centers, just take it. Even, if you can teach both at schools and at English language learning centers, you are excellent. I highlight that the most important thing here is to be a teacher since we are the graduates of English language education department.

Interviewee 4

#### CONCLUSION

This study investigated English language education department graduates' job preferences for working at English language learning centers than at schools. The findings reveal some factors influencing the participants' considerations for choosing to work at English language learning centers. They are categorized into internal factors and external factors. The internal factors covering personal reasons and teaching experiences play a role as the foundation for the participants to conceptualize their minds in comparing the working situation between at schools and at English language learning centers. Personal reasons refer to their willingness and their possibility to teach at the English language learning centers since they were taking their bachelor's degree. Moreover, teaching experiences describe their experiences in teaching English either at schools or English language learning centers. Meanwhile, external factors comprising salary, time flexibility, administration systems/workload and students' motivation become the aspects for comparing the situation between working at schools and at English language learning centers. Higher salary, less administrations, fewer number of students in a class, more flexible working time and higher students' learning motivation admittedly become the participants' consideration for teaching at English language learning centers. Thus, labor market theory claims that the relative costs and benefits will be the consideration of teachers in making decision for searching a job (Petrongolo & Pissarides, 2001). Besides, the participants judge their job preferences based on their passion and the linearity between their major and the job field. In other words, the participants work by following their passion and relating their major (English language education department) to their job field (as English teachers, English instructors or English lecturers).

As this study is quite specific and contextual, the results cannot be generalized for Indonesian, likewise international context. In addition, the results of this study were based on some English language education department graduates' voices about their job preferences which may be quite subjective or personal. However, this study comes up with its contribution in form of the pedagogical implications. The pedagogical implication of this study is related to the issue of proliferating the teacher identity of English language education department graduates. The findings of the study provide relevant insights for the fresh graduate of English language education department to be always prioritizing the English teacher/instructor/lecturer profession as their job choices. Lastly, the researchers suggested for further research which may focus on the issue of teacher identity. The topics may discuss why some English language education departments prefer to work as English teachers.

### REFERENCES

- Arifin, H. M. (2015). The Influence of competence, motivation, and organisational culture to high school teacher job satisfaction and performance. International Education Studies, 8(1), 38–45.
- Basturkmen, H. (2010). Developing courses in English for specific purposes. Springer.
- Bonhomme, S., Jolivet, G., & Leuven, E. (2016). School characteristics and teacher turnover: Assessing the role of preferences and opportunities. The Economic Journal, 126(594), 1342–1371.
- Boyd, D., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2013). Analyzing the determinants of the matching of public school teachers to jobs: Disentangling the preferences of teachers and employers. Journal of Labor Economics, 31(1), 83–117.
- Brown, P., Lauder, H., Ashton, D., & Tholen, G. (2008). Education, globalisation and the knowledge economy, a commentary for the ESRC Teaching and Learning Research Programme (TLRP). TLRP.
- Cannata, M. (2010). Understanding the teacher job search process: Espoused preferences and preferences in use. Teachers College Record, 112(12), 2889–2934.
- Cannata, M., & Penaloza, R. (2012). Who are charter school teachers? Comparing teacher characteristics, job choices, and job preferences. Education Policy Analysis Archives/ Archivos Analíticos de Políticas Educativas, 20, 1–21.
- Carron, G., & Carr-Hill, R. A. (1991). Non-formal education: information and planning issues. International Institute for Educational Planning Paris.
- Chamundeswari, S. 2013. (2013). Job satisfaction and performance of school teachers. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 3(5), 420.
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2009). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Sage publications.
- Day, C. (2002). The challenge to be the best: Reckless curiosity and mischievous motivation. Teachers and Teaching, 8(3), 421–434.
- Day, C., Stobart, G., Sammons, P., & Kington, A. (2006). Variations in the work and lives of teachers: Relative and relational effectiveness. Teachers and Teaching, 12(2), 169–192.

- De Ree, J., Muralidharan, K., Pradhan, M., & Rogers, H. (2017). Double for nothing? experimental evidence on an unconditional teacher salary increase in indonesia. The World Bank.
- Dib, C. Z. (1988). Formal, non-formal and informal education: concepts/applicability. AIP Conference Proceedings, 173(1), 300–315.
- Etling, A. (1993). What is nonformal education. Journal of Agricultural Education, 34(4), 72–76.
- Hendricks, M. D. (2015). Towards an optimal teacher salary schedule: Designing base salary to attract and retain effective teachers. Economics of Education Review, 47, 143–167.
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). English for specific purposes. Cambridge university press.
- Karavas, E. (2010). How satisfied are Greek EFL teachers with their work? Investigating the motivation and job satisfaction levels of Greek EFL teachers. Retrieved from http://www.ugr.es/~portalin/articulos/PL\_numero14/4%20How%20Satisfied%20are%20Greek%20 EFL%20Teachers E%20Karavas.pdf
- Kleis, J., Lang, L., Mietus, J. R., & Tiapula, F. T. S. (1973). Toward a contextual definition of nonformal education. Nonformal Education Discussion Papers, East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, 3–6.
- Merriam, S. (2009). Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation San Fransisco: John Willey & Sons Inc.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook. sage.
- Neale, P., Thapa, S., & Boyce, C. (2006). Preparing a case study: A guide for designing and conducting a case study for evaluation input. Pathfinder international Massachusetts.
- Pehkonen, E., & Pietilä, A. (2003). On relationships between beliefs and knowledge in mathematics education. Proceedings of the CERME-3 (Bellaria) Meeting, 1–8.
- Petrongolo, B., & Pissarides, C. A. (2001). Looking into the black box: A survey of the matching function. Journal of Economic Literature, 39(2), 390–431.
- Raymond, A. M. (1997). Inconsistency between a beginning elementary school teacher's mathematics beliefs and teaching practice. Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 550–576.
- Rogers, A. (2004). Non-formal education: Flexible schooling or participatory education? Hong Kong. Comparative Education Research Centre Publ., University of Hong Kong Publ.
- Shann, M. H. (1998). Professional commitment and satisfaction among teachers in urban middle schools. The Journal of Educational Research, 92(2), 67–73.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). Teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession: Relations with school context, feeling of belonging, and emotional exhaustion. Teaching and Teacher Education, 27(6), 1029–1038.
- Yasunaga, M. (2014). Non-formal education as a means to meet learning needs of out-of-school children and adolescents. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). Case study research design and methods third edition. Applied Social Research Methods Series, 5.



## A STUDY OF INDONESIAN LECTURERS' PERCEPTION ON STUDENT PLAGIARISM

I Gede Nyoman Arya Risaldi Dwi Nugraha<sup>1</sup>, Made Hery Santosa, Anak Agung Gede Yudha Paramartha

*Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha* <sup>1</sup>arya.risaldi@gmail.com

Received: 30 May 2020

Accepted: 6 July 2020

#### Abstract

Cases of plagiarism exist universally. Although it is unacceptable, students are doing it purposively. Prior studies about students' perception on this academic misconduct have been done extensively, while studies about lecturers' perception with the same concern are limited. This research was done to fill this gap. The purpose of this study is to find out: (1) lecturer's perception on students' plagiarism and (2) solution to prevent students' plagiarism. Two instruments were used in order to collect the data, they are plagiarism questionnaire and an interview guide. Both instruments are divided into two dimensions, namely knowledge dimension and attitude dimension. The questionnaire has 12 statements with 4 possible responses in each dimension. Meanwhile, there are 3 questions in the interview guide consisting of 1 question about knowledge dimension and 2 questions about attitude dimension. Thirty seven English as a Foreign Language (EFL) lecturer participants from institutions in Indonesia joined the survey and 5 of which were selected for the interview session. Both results of survey and interview are positive. The results implied an indication of students doing academic dishonesty.

Keywords: EFL lecturers, perception, plagiarism

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Due to easy access of information by using the internet, plagiarism, one of academic misconduct, might happen. Plagiarism is major "threat and challenge" generally for educational integrity and quality (Park, 2003). Plagiarism is an action or instance of plagiarizing which means taking somebody else's ideas or words and use them as if they were one's owns. Saunders (1993), stated that plagiarism came from Latin word plagiarus which means thief or stealer. Plagiarism happens when one's work or idea is taken by someone else without giving credit to the owner or even put a reference of it (Kramer et al., 1995). It can be summarized that plagiarism is an action of retrieving someone's work and admitting it as one's work. Plagiarism has some classifications. Oakes and Kia (2004) classified plagiarism into 3 different types, namely direct, patchwork, and paraphrase plagiarism. Later, this classification was further developed by Shidarta (2011) into 5 types, those are: (1) verbatim plagiarism, (2) patchwork plagiarism, (3) paraphrase plagiarism, (4) keyword plagiarism, and (5) idea plagiarism. Every type has its own definition. Verbatim plagiarism, which is classified as the highest level of violation, is taking one's work exactly as it is. Second, patchwork plagiarism means taking several ideas or work without giving credit to the owner and then remake it into one's new idea or work. Third, paraphrase plagiarism means paraphrasing one's work without giving credit. Keyword plagiarism is an action of stealing keywords from one's work, then forming a new work without giving reference. Last, and the most hideous, is idea plagiarism. It is stealing one's idea and making new, different work that is usually having different sentence or even keyword in this new work.

There might be various reasons why people do plagiarism. A research done by Schneider (1999) stated that students had less time to do their tasks and an instant "cut and paste" action started to be a culture. Zalnur (2012) found two factors as the reasons why university students in an Islamic college in Indonesia did plagiarism. Those factors were (1) the development of technology that facilitates students to access any kind of necessary information needed in order to finish their work quicker and (2) high volume of tasks that burden the students and urge them to finish as soon as possible.

Doing plagiarism is clearly unacceptable. Santosa et al. (2019) studied EFL students' perception of plagiarism. They found out that these students were aware not to do plagiarism, but their lack of knowledge in doing the tasks urged them to do so. Thus, making student understands the concept of plagiarism, such as monitoring student's understanding of plagiarism, should be done (Ali et al., 2012). Mulyana (2010), in his research, found out some ways to prevent plagiarism in thesis writing, they are (1) identifying any plagiarism indication in student's task, (2) discussing it with the lecturer, (3) discussing the issue with the writer, (4) showing the the original source, and (5) asking the writer to change his/her thesis completely.

External factor provides higher opportunity to prevent this academic misconduct. Zulaekhah et al. (2013) advised educational-related government to give a frequent anti-plagiarism campaign and/or training in higher education institutions under its authority. In UK, University of Brad-ford has implemented a new regulation to prevent plagiarism known as Plagiarism Awareness Programme (PAP). The Vice Dean of Student Affairs in this university, in collaboration with the library, has been working on this program since 2008 with a "very useful program" feedback from the students (George et al., 2013).

Studies of plagiarism have been done by many researchers from time to time in many countries, such as in Indonesia (Absari, 2018; Mulyana, 2010; Santosa et al., 2019), New Zealand (Walker, 2010), Australia (Gullifer & Tyson, 2010), USA (Scanlon, 2010), Saudi Arabia (El, Menai, & Bagais, 2011), Turkey (Eret & Ok, 2014), China (Hu & Lei, 2014), UK (Ashworth, Bannister, & Thorne, 1997; Larkham & Manns, 2002), and in both China and UK (Zhang et al., 2014). Most of these studies focused on students' perception on plagiarism and very few on lecturers' perception. Therefore, conducting a study about lecturers' perception on students' plagiarism would fill this gap of literature. This study has 2 purposes (1) gaining information about lecturer's vorg-doing. Lecturers from some universities all around Indonesia took part in the survey to provide information about their perception on student's plagiarism and the solution.

### **METHODS**

### **Research design**

This study employed mixed-method research design. Mixed-method research design is the combination of elements in both qualitative and quantitative forms (Creswell, 2008). Specifically, this study employed explanatory sequential mixed-method. Explanatory Sequential (Creswell, 2012) is a sub-part of mixed-method design that begins with quantitative data collection, and then followed by qualitative data collection; it is known also as two-phased model (Creswell et al., 2011). In this design, qualitative data collection is needed to collect more detail, explain, or extend the descriptive statistical data in the first phase of data collection.

### **Participants**

This study involved 37 participants consisted of EFL lecturers from some universities in Indonesia. Participants were selected by using purposive sampling, specifically homogenous sampling. In the second phase of data collection (the interview), the number of participants was narrowed down into 5 participants. Those 5 participants were lecturers in Ganesha University of Education. The selection of these 5 participants was based on accessibility, time limitation, schedule, and supporting facility.

### Data collection

Two instruments were used in order to collect the data, they are plagiarism questionnaire and an interview guide. Both instruments were divided into two dimensions, namely knowledge dimension and attitude dimension. The questionnaire was adapted from some prior studies (Ehrich & Howard, 2014; Ehrich et al., 2014; Shirazi et al., 2010; Sutton et al., 2012). The guestionnaire was distributed online to the participants by sending the link to participants' e-mail. The participants were not given specific time and deadline to fill in questionnaire. The interview guide was developed right after the researchers analyzed the quantitative data.

### **Data analysis**

The responses from the questionnaire were analyzed by using categorization mean score. Striking findings resulted from the questionnaire responses were further analyzed and participants were selected and asked to be interviewed. Five lecturers who contributed to the striking findings in the questionnaire responses were interviewed. Interactive model of analysis was used to analyze interview results and support the quantitative data.

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

### Indonesian lecturers' perception on student's plagiarism

The results of the questionnaire were analyzed on this first phase. The score reached 40.86 out of 54 possible scores. The categorization of the score is shown in Table 1 below.

 Table 1. The Categorization of Mean Score of Plagiarism					
No	Criteria	Score	Qualification		
 1	$X \ge 54$	3	Very Positive		
2	$54 \ge X > 36$	2	Positive		
3	$36 \ge X > 18$	1	Negative		
4	X < 18	0	Very Negative		

The mean score for lecturer's perception on student's plagiarism is 40.86. The score is placed in the interval of  $54 \ge X > 36$ . Therefore, it can be categorized as a positive qualification. It means lecturers agreed that their students were indicated of doing plagiarism.

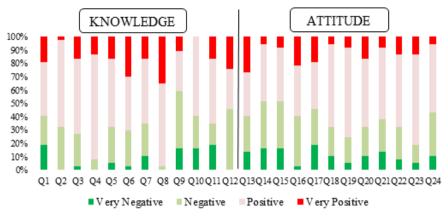


Figure 1. Frequency of Response in Each Item

From 24 statements showed in Figure 1, most lecturers gave positive response. Among those statements, there were 3 statements that most lecturers responded negatively. Those statements are statement number 9 (40.54%), 14 (48.65%), and 15 (48.65%). The positive response on those 3 questions did not reached 50%, which means more than half of the respondent did not agree with the given statement. Statement number 9 belongs to knowledge dimension while statement number 14 and 15 belong to attitude dimension.

 0			8	0
No	Criteria	Score	Qualification	
1	$X \ge 21$	3	Very Positive	
2	$21 \ge X > 18$	2	Positive	
3	$18 \ge X > 15$	1	Negative	
4	X < 15	0	Very Negative	

The mean score for lecturer's perception on student's plagiarism on knowledge dimension is 21.19. It is placed in the interval of  $X \ge 21$ . Therefore, it can be categorized as a very positive qualification. It means that the lecturers highly agreed that their students were indicated of having less knowledge on plagiarism.

There was one question in this dimension related to statement number 9 in the questionnaire. The question in this dimension is, "Do you feel that you have student who think that non-printed media (sound clip, movie clip, pictures, etc.) is not necessary to be put in a reference list?" There are five answers given from five interviewees for this question.

"Yes. Sound clip should be transcripted, then put it in student's assignment and referencing it."

"Yes ... A lot of students think that way, actually."

"I do."

"Yes. Maybe an amount of students think that way, right? Because they only know reference for printed media only, so they thought it was nothing much." "It is not just 'I feel'. It exists hahahaha."

Plagiarism knowledge, the first dimension in this study, is one's mindset related to educational policy considering one's knowledge on college's integrity (Jordan, 2001). It can be said as a way of a person think of educational policy based on his/her knowledge on honesty in university level. Based on the result of the questionnaire in this dimension, lecturers highly agreed that their students had less knowledge on plagiarism. It means that lecturers believe that their students did not have any ideas of what plagiarism is. This result is in line with previous research conducted by Ehrich et al. (2014) indicating that university level students had less knowledge of academic dishonesty regardless of their ethnicity.

An interview session about lecturers' perception on student's plagiarism was done with the 5 selected participants. They were asked to give their opinion about students who think that non-printed media (sound clip, movie clip, pictures, etc.) does not have to be included in a reference list. This question was adopted from a study conducted by Lukashenko et al. (2008). Their study found out that plagiarism may also exist in another media like image, video, or translated text. The EFL lecturers stated that students tend to think it is not necessary to put the source of the non-printed media in the reference list. One of the lecturers said:

"Because usually, in reference list, students put in researches like book or journal.... So when the students take, for example, learning media from You-Tube, they usually did not put it in the reference list but they will just put the screenshot of it."

He highlighted the point that students did not usually put proper reference for non-printed media. From this result, it can be concluded that students were practically doing plagiarism as they did not acknowledge the source of the non-printed media that they took.

 8			8
No	Criteria	Score	Qualification
1	$X \ge 21$	3	Very Positive
2	$21 \ge X > 18$	2	Positive
3	$18 \ge X > 15$	1	Negative
4	X < 15	0	Very Negative

 Table 3. The Categorization of Mean Score in Attitude Dimension of Plagiarism

The mean score for lecturers' perception on student's plagiarism on attitude dimension is 19.67. It is placed in the interval of  $21 \ge X > 18$ . Therefore, it can be categorized as a positive qualification. It means that the lecturers agreed that their students were indicated of performing academic misconduct, such as borrowing other's work and reusing one's work for the upcoming homework.

There were two questions in this dimension related to statement number 14 and 15 in the questionnaire. There were five slightly similar answers given from all five interviewees for each questions. The question related to statement number 14 is, "What would you say if your students think that, 'borrowing task/homework is not a plagiarism'?"

"We categorized it as a plagiarism act. The point of it is plagiarizing because academic honesty should let the writer mention who originally has the idea. So if he borrows an assignment, it means that he borrows someone else's idea."

"I think that is cheating. That is a part of plagiarism. .... Paraphrasing is fine

as long as he quote his friend's name because it is not the problem of the assignment, but the idea in it."

"Actually, there are many students do that. ... If there is any student who borrow other student's assignment, I have prepared the consequences."

"We actually expect and respect originality and creativity in university level of students, ... If any of them borrowed an assignment, it means that the idea does not come from himself."

"If they borrow it to see, 'Oh this is how it is done,' that is fine. ...if he just borrow it in order to find out, 'How to make this assignment?' 'Okay so this is how.' That is no big deal."

The second question, related to statement number 15 in the questionnaire, is, "What is your opinion to the students who use their old task/homework to finish their upcoming task/homework?" Various answers were obtained.

"That is autoplagiarising."

"That is a plagiarism act, in my opinion."

"In my opinion, those assignments will match their instructions. ... It does not matter for me. I think that is just fine, but there will be consequence." "Well, that is actually not allowed because that is considered as autoplagiarism, especially in academic field."

"... Here is the thing. It depends, alright? It will depend on the subject because each has different learning purposes. ... I will allow them to do so, but not 100% the same."

The second dimension in this study is plagiarism attitude. Plagiarism attitude is one's manner and quality control of doing assessment (Gururajan & Roberts, 2003). In other word, it means that plagiarism attitude is one's way of behaving toward his/her given assessment. Based on the result of the questionnaire in this dimension, most of the EFL lecturers agreed that their students were indicated of having low manner in doing their assignment, which resulted in plagiarism. It means that, in general, lecturers believed that their students were indicated of doing plagiarism. A study conducted by Gómez et al. (2013) showed that students were behaving negatively. They found out that students were aware of plagiarism, thus students reduced the amount of text that they copied necessarily. In other words, students knew about plagiarism but they were doing it purposively. Students also tended to think that academic dishonesty was not against their ethical value (Gururajan & Roberts, 2003), but loyalty to their friends was more important that the ethical value (Ashworth et al., 1997).

Positive result was showed in the survey results, specifically in plagiarism attitude dimension. This survey results were supported by the interview results about borrowing other's work. One of the EFL lecturers said:

"We categorized it as a plagiarism act. The point of it is plagiarizing because academic honesty should let the writer mention who originally has the idea. So if he borrows an assignment, it means that he borrows someone else's idea.." The results from one of the questions during the interview session supported the survey results about students' plagiarism. The interview results showed that students tended to reuse his/her previous work or assignments. Shidarta (2011) defined this act as "auto plagiarism", which means an act of reproducing one's prior work that has been published without properly referencing it. One of the EFL lecturer participants gave his thought of this matter. He said:

"Well, that is actually not allowed because that is considered as autoplagiarism, especially in academic field. When we have produced a work, and we want to take a part of it, we should refer it to ourself at that time. It is common for researcher to cite his own past work because, ethically speaking, it should be cited whatsoever."

### Indonesian lecturer's solution on student's plagiarism

The practice of students' plagiarism has been going on for years. This encouraged the researchers to find the solution on how to minimize students' plagiarism. The researchers found out 2 main solutions based on the interview session with the 5 EFL lecturers (during the second phase of data collection). The first solution given is stated as follow.

".... Some students asked me, even actually I am not their thesis supervisor, for supervision like, 'Sir, I want to ask. Is this one correct?' I take it as an obligation as a lecturer, as a teacher. I do know how to quote, so why don't I share it?"

"When lecturers teach, they should give an understanding or knowledge about plagiarism to their students."

This result is in line with a prior study conducted by George et al. (2013). The results of their study suggested that university should initiate an intensive course for students who had done academic dishonesty and an introduction to plagiarism for new students in order to prevent them from doing plagiarism. It is necessary to give an enormous possible amount of activities, such as seminars, campaign, and lecturing, to ensure the students understand the academic misconduct and its consequences (Ali et al., 2012).

The second solution from the EFL lecturers is making contract. A contract should be made at the beginning of the semester for each subject. This contract should consist of consequences or penalty resulted from plagiarism. One of the lecturers said:

"....What I will do is making a contract beforehand, give them instruction that they should make their assignment without any copy-paste from other's work. If there is, if they quote something, they should put it in their reference list. If there is any student who borrow other student's assignment, I have prepared the consequences. In case I found two or more assignments are similar one to another, I will only score the first one. The rest of them will be 0 whatsoever and I assume that those assignments copied the first one I read."

"That is one strategy to change their mindset that it is not allowed to do that. I teach them not to borrow other student's work." The result of research conducted by Santosa et al. (2019) suggested that lecturers should make a contract that contains consequences properly in order to prevent students from doing plagia-rism.

### CONCLUSION

This research involved 37 participants of EFL lecturers in Indonesia. Survey and interview were done in order to collect the data. The result was positive, which implied that lecturers perceived there was an indication of students' academic dishonesty. The findings of the research discussed two parts, namely lecturers' perception on students' plagiarism and lecturers' solutions on students' plagiarism.

To investigate lecturers' perception on students' plagiarism, an online survey was done and followed up by an interview. In general, positive result was gained. This result could be seen as how lecturers agreed that there was an indication of their students doing academic misconduct. The result of the interview supports the data gained from the survey. All participants agreed that their students were indicated of doing plagiarism.

An interview session was done in order to investigate lecturers' opinion of the solution on students' plagiarism. There are two solutions to minimize students' plagiarism resulted from the interview, namely 1) giving guidance and 2) making contract. The first one, giving guidance or supervision, this means lecturers should meet and talk to their student when they found out the students doing plagiarism. Lecturers should address their student about his/her misconduct and give advice and guidance. This is done in order to prevent the students from doing plagiarism. The second solution is more likely applied in the beginning of the semester, on the first meeting of the class. The second solution requires students to the consequences when they do plagiarism. By doing so, students are expected not to do academic dishonesty as they are already told about the penalty and consequences of doing such misconduct.

### REFERENCES

- Absari, R. M. (2018). Investigation of English as a foreign language (EFL) on plagiarism in an online world. Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha.
- Ali, W., Ismail, H., & Cheat, T. (2012). Plagiarism: To what extent it is understood? Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 59, 604–611. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.320
- Ashworth, P., Bannister, P., & Thorne, P. (1997). Guilty in whose eyes? University students' perceptions of cheating and plagiarism in academic work and assessment. Studies in Higher Education, 22(2), 187–203. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079712331381034

Creswell, J. (2008). The selection of a research design. SAGE.

- Creswell, J. (2012). Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research. SAGE.
- Creswell, J., Klassen, A. C., Plano, V., & Smith, K. C. (2011). Best practices for mixed methods research in the health sciences. National Institutes of Health, 29, 1–39. https://doi. org/10.1002/mrd.1063
- Ehrich, J. F., & Howard, S. J. (2014). Measuring students' perceptions of plagiarism: Modification and Rasch validation of a plagiarism attitude scale. Journal of Applied Measurement, 15(4), 372–393.
- Ehrich, J., Howard, S. J., & Mu, C. (2014). A comparison of Chinese and Australian university

students' attitudes towards plagiarism. Studies in Higher Education, 41(2), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.927850

- El, M., Menai, B., & Bagais, M. (2011). APlag: A plagiarism checker for Arabic texts [Paper presentation]. 6th International Conference on Computer Science and Education.
- Eret, E., & Ok, A. (2014). Internet plagiarism in higher education: Tendencies, triggering factors and reasons among teacher candidates. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 39(8), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2014.880776
- George, S., Costigan, A. T., & O' Hara, M. (2013). Placing the library at the heart of plagiarism prevention: The University of Bradford experience. New Review of Academic Librarianship, 19(2), 141–160.
- Gómez, J., Salazar, I., & Vargas, P. (2013). Dishonest behavior and plagiarism by university students: An application to management studies. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 83, 766–770. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.144
- Gullifer, J. M., & Tyson, G. A. (2010). Exploring university students' perceptions of plagiarism: A focus group study. Studies in Higher Education, 35(4), 37–41. https://doi. org/10.1080/03075070903096508
- Gururajan, R., & Roberts, D. (2003). Attitude towards plagiarism in information systems in Australian universities.
- Hu, G., & Lei, J. (2014). Chinese university students' perceptions of plagiarism. Ethics and Behavior, 25, 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/10508422.2014.923313
- Jordan, A. E. (2001). College student cheating: The role of motivation, perceived norms, attitudes, and knowledge of institutional policy. Ethics and Behavior, 11(3), 233–247.
- Kramer, M., Leggett, G., & Mead, C. (1995). Prentice hall handbook for writers. Prentice Hall.
- Larkham, P. J., & Manns, S. (2002). Plagiarism and its treatment in higher education. Journal of Further and Higher Education, 26(4), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877022000021748
- Lukashenko, R., Graudina, V., & Grundspenkis, J. (2007, June 14-15). Computer-based plagiarism detection methods and tools [Paper presentation]. International Conference on Computer Systems and Technologies, Rousse, Bulgaria.
- Mulyana. (2010). Pencegahan tindak plagiarisme dalam penulisan skripsi: Upaya memperkuat pembentukan karakter di dunia akademik. Cakrawala Pendidikan: Jurnal Ilmiah Pendidikan, 3, 59–71.
- Oakes, E. H., & Kia, M. (2004). Social science resources in the electronic age. Greenwood Press.
- Park, C. (2003). In (other) people's words: plagiarism by university students-literature and lessons. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 28(5), 471–488. https://doi. org/10.1080/0260293032000120352
- Santosa, M. H., Paramartha, A. A. G. Y., & Absari, R. M. (2019). Indonesian English university students' perceptions on plagiarism in the online world era. Journal of ELT Research, 4(2), 100–114. https://doi.org/10.22236/JER
- Saunders, E. J. (1993). Confronting academic dishonesty. Journal of Social Work Education, 29(2), 224–231. https://doi.org/10.1080/10437797.1993.10778817
- Scanlon, P. M. (2010). Student online plagiarism: How do we respond? College Teaching, 51(4), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/87567550309596432
- Schneider, A. (1999). Why professors don't do more to stop students who cheat. Chronicle of Higher Education, 45(20).
- Shidarta. (2011). Plagiarisme dan otoplagiarisme. Jurnal Komunikasi Universitas Tarumanagara, 3(1), 45-54.

- Shirazi, B., Jafarey, A. M., & Moazam, F. (2010). Plagiarism and the medical fraternity: A study of knowledge and attitudes. Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association, 60(4), 269–273.
- Sutton, A., Taylor, D., & Johnston, C. (2012). A model for exploring student understandings of plagiarism. Journal of Further and Higher Education, 38(1), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.10 80/0309877X.2012.706807
- Walker, J. (2010). Measuring plagiarism: Researching what students do, not what they say they do. Studies in Higher Education, 35(1), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070902912994
- Zalnur, M. (2012). Tugas-tugas perkuliahan pada Fakultas Tarbiyah IAIN Imam Bonjol Padang. Jurnal Al-Ta'lim, 55–66.
- Zhang, D., Joy, M., Cosma, G., Boyatt, R., Sinclair, J., & Yau, J. (2014). Source-code plagiarism in universities: a comparative study of student perspectives in China and the UK. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 39(6), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1080/0 2602938.2013.870122
- Zulaekhah, S., Hijriwati, S. A., & Soeharto, A. (2013). Rekonstruksi norma pencegahan dan penanggulangan plagiarisme sebagai bentuk perlindungan hukum bagi penulis akademik [Reconstruction of plagiarism preventive and countermeasure norms as law protection for authors]. Jurnal Media Hukum, 20(2), 207-221.

### **APPENDICES**

### Appendix 1. The Questionnaire of Lecturer's Perception on Students' Plagiarism Act Questionnaire of Plagiarism Perception

We would like to invite you to participate in this questionnaire about lecturer's perception of student's plagiarism act. The purpose of this questionnaire is to gain information related with lecturer's perception toward student's misbehavior.

This survey will be classified as secret. Your identity will not be exposed in data display. Your participation is voluntary.

Thank you.

**INSTRUCTION:** 

- 1. Please read each statement carefully.
- 2. Choose one of four given options with a checkmark  $(\sqrt{)}$ .
- 3. Choose 0 if you Very Disagree with the statement
- 4. Choose 1 if you **Disagree** with the statement
- 5. Choose 2 if you Agree with the statement
- 6. Choose 3 if you **Very Agree** with the statement.

NUMBER **STATEMENT OPTIONS** 0 2 1 3 It seems that my students often copy sentences and 1. making small changes such as replacing or changing the order of the words without referencing the source. 2. There is an indication that some students are making assignments by taking short phrases of 10-15 words from different sources and adding original wording - referencing the sources correctly. 3. I feel that some students are taking a whole paragraph, put it in quotation marks and citing the source in the text, and then listing the article in reference list. 4. It seems that some students retrieve ideas from published works, and then use their own words to complete their task while referencing properly. When I give my students a task, they tend to propose 5. an idea or view without knowing this has been proposed by others previously and so not listing relevant articles in the reference list I think my students often read and use one's idea from 6. an article without checking the original source. While accessing information from internet-based 7. source, I believe some of my student thinks it is acceptable to copy and paste the relevant portions within quotations (without referencing original source).

8.	It seems that my students think of well-known facts
0.	(i.e. Jakarta is capital of Indonesia) as something that
	needs no reference.
9.	My students think that printed media is the only
	material that requires reference.
10.	As no copyright mentioned, my students feel free to
100	use media from certain websites.
11.	There is an indication that students are taking and
	modifying media from certain websites (pictures,
	clips, videos, etc.) without referencing as no copyright
	mentioned.
12.	Some of my students think that buying paperwork
	considered as plagiarism act.
13.	My students seem to feel aroused to plagiarize because
	other students are doing so.
14.	My students think there is nothing wrong with using
	one's paper with his/her permission.
15.	"It is okay to use something I have written in the
	past to fulfill a new assignment," is often thought by
	my students.
16.	When my student borrowed his friend's work and I
	caught him red-handed, he thinks his friend should be
	punished as well.
17.	There is an indication that students justified short
	deadlines and heavy workload as a right to plagiarize.
18.	There are many ways to tell things, so my students
	tend to think they cannot avoid using other's words.
19.	My students opine that using previous descriptions of
	a theory or concept is acceptable because they remain
	the same.
20.	My student likely thinks that self-plagiarism is not
	exists because it is not a "stealing act" if one does it
	to one's self.
21.	Some of my students think it is fine to use their
	previous work to complete current task without
	referencing.
22.	My students think that self-plagiarism should not have
22	the same punishment as the other plagiarism acts.
23.	I believe there are students who use some parts of
	published works to represent certain topic for their task
2.4	when they are not familiar with the topic.
24.	My students tend to think that as the paper owner
	gives permission, the idea of borrowing paperwork is
	acceptable.

### Appendix 2. The Interview Guide of Lecturer's Perception on Students' Plagiarism

- 1. Do you feel that you have student who think that non-printed media (sound clip, movie clip, pictures, etc.) is not necessary to be put in a reference list?
- 2. What do you say if your students think that, "borrowing task/homework is not a plagiarism act"?
- 3. What is your opinion to the students who use their old task/homework to finish their upcoming task/homework?



# THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL STUDENT MENTORING FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONALISM IN ENGLISH PRE-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

## Mega Wati

Duta Wacana Christian University megawati@staff.ukdw.ac.id

Received: 22 May 2020

Accepted: 25 June 2020

#### Abstract

Mentoring in pre-service education is a key success factor, because not only can it transform the pre-service teacher as the mentee, but also develop the mentor teacher professionally. This preliminary study to find the impact of individual student mentoring was inspired by the awareness of its potential multidimensional impact for teacher professionalism. Two research questions guided this study. The first question is to find out the impact of this individual student mentoring from the student mentee's point of view in terms of four dimensions, namely: psychological or emotional support, support for setting goals and choosing a career, academic support, and a role model. The second research question explores how this kind of mentoring developed the mentor teacher professionally. Data were collected from the students in the form of questionnaire and written reflection, and from the mentor teacher in the form of written reflection. Data were analyzed separately to attend to each research question. The findings show that the pre-service students experienced the four dimensions in their individual mentoring, while the mentor teacher developed herself professionally in three areas, which were interactional skills, self-awareness, and attitude. The implication of the findings is discussed at the end.

**Keywords**: Individual mentoring, teacher professionalism, pre-service teacher mentoring

#### **INTRODUCTION**

#### Mentoring: Definitions, characteristics, and value

Mentoring is not new. The term 'mentoring' itself is derived from ancient Greek, and refers to Odysseus's counselor and advisor who took care and educated his son, Telemachus (Dutton,

#### Mega Wati

2003 and Woodd, 1997 in Campbell et al., 2012). Mee-Lee and Bush (2003) claimed that in the Chinese culture, lifelong mentoring is embedded traditionally in the culture and heritage as old as Taoism. Jumping to the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, Crisp and Cruz (2009) wrote their critical review of the mentoring literature between 1990 and 2007 in response to Jacobi's article in 1991, which specifically reviewed mentoring and the academic success of undergraduate students. Recently, Fullan et al. (2010) explicitly described mentoring as an essential tool for professionalism in the new millennium.

There are several definitions of mentoring from different perspectives. Crisp and Cruz (2009) reported the results of more than fifty definitions with various scopes and breadth. They found that some of the researchers describe mentoring as a certain set of activities conducted by a mentor, while some others use the term "concept" or "process" in defining it. Despite the fact that researchers have different definitions in accordance with their respective disciplines, it is both interesting and necessary to limit the definitions of mentoring in the context of higher education, with which this article is concerned. One broad definition about mentoring in higher education is from Brown et al (1999 in Crisp & Cruz, 2009) and Murray (2001 in Crisp & Cruz, 2009), while the others—a more specific one— is from Blackwell (1989 in Crisp & Cruz, 2009). The first definition says that mentoring is an individual relationship between an experienced and less experienced person in order that the less experienced can learn or develop specific capabilities. The latter defines mentoring as a process by which persons who have higher rank, special achievements and prestige instruct, counsel, guide, and facilitate the intellectual and/or career development of younger persons in need of encouragement and help. Besides those two, another definition is very explicit about mentoring between a teaching faculty member and the students-which becomes the working definition for this study. It defines mentoring in higher education as a personal and purposeful relationship between a teaching faculty member and a student--an undergraduate or graduate---to facilitate the student in setting goals, developing skills, and making successful adjustments into academic and professional roles (Moses, 1989 in Mee-Lee & Bush, 2003).

These definitions lead to the three characteristics of mentoring that researchers agree, despite the unsettled definition about mentoring for college students (Jacobi, 1991 in Crisp & Cruz, 2009). First, mentoring relationships are focused on the mentee's growth and accomplishment and include several forms of assistance. Second, mentoring covers various kinds of support including assistance with professional and career development, role modelling, and psycholog-ical support. Third, mentoring relationships are personal and reciprocal.

Meanwhile, Nora & Crisp (2007) enforced four major domains that comprise mentoring. These were taken from educational, psychological, and business theoretical perspectives by several leading researchers such as Cohen and Galbraith (1995), Kram (1988), Schockett and Haring-Hidore (1985), Levinson et al. (1978), Miller (2002), and Roberts (2000) in Nora's and Crisp's (2007) work. It is apparent to see the relation between the four domains from Nora and Crisp that will be clarified here and the second characteristics of mentoring reviewed by Jacobi as mentioned earlier. Those four domains are (1) psychological or emotional support, (2) support for goal setting and choosing a career, (3) academic support aimed at advancing a student's knowledge required to succeed in their chosen field, and (4) specification of a role model.

These domains are very helpful to clarify the various definitions of mentoring, as well as to provide realistic description of what happens in mentoring processes so as to provide several forms of assistance in Jacobi's review. First, psychological or emotional support can be provided by active, empathetic and genuine listening; understanding and accepting student's feelings such as fears, distress, or uncertainty; and identifying problems and giving encouragement. In

order to provide psychological and moral support, it is important that mentoring is conducted in a safe environment as perceived by the student or mentee. Second, to provide support for setting goals and choosing a career path, mentoring should include assessment of student's strengths, weaknesses, abilities, and interests as well as identify the needed assistance with setting academic or career goals and decision making. Third, academic subject knowledge support aimed at advancing a student's knowledge refers to helping the student acquire necessary skills and knowledge through educating, evaluating, as well as challenging the student academically. Lastly, providing a role model includes—on one hand—the mentor's willingness and capability in sharing or self-disclosing past and present life experiences, struggles, and feelings so as to personalize and enrich the mentor-student relationship. On the other hand, specification of a role model also partly depends on the student's ability to learn from the mentor's past and present life, achievements and failures.

Furthermore, several additional suggestions from other researchers were also shared by Nora and Crisp (2007) on what is required from a mentor to accomplish the second construct: (a) in-depth exploration and review of student's interests, abilities, ideas, and beliefs; (b) stimulation of critical thinking related to the student's future and developing his/her personal and professional potential; (c) a reflective process; (d) requesting detailed information and offering specific suggestions concerning the student's current plans and progress in achieving personal, educational, and career goals; (e) a respectful demand of explanations for the student's specific decisions or avoidance of decisions and actions which are relevant to an adult learner; and (f) facilitation in realizing the student's dream.

While definitions about mentoring vary to some degree, it is evident that the essential value of mentoring has been accepted in the literature as well as in practice (Cohen, 1993 in Crisp & Cruz, 2009). In the context of higher education, mentoring is claimed to be effective among others for student retention and enhanced learning strategy for undergraduate education (Mee-Lee & Bush, 2003), in retaining undergraduate students' persistence in learning and in maintaining their high grade point average (Crisp & Cruz, 2009), as well as academic success in general (Campbell et al., 2012). Mentoring, furthermore, provides trust, encouragement, nurture, support, as well as challenges to enable even high achieving students to thrive (Freeman, 1999). Mentoring is also connected to leadership as mentoring relationship has the potential to influence the mentee's leadership capacity (Campbell et al., 2012).

In student teacher education, or better stated, in educating pre-service teachers—on which this article focuses—mentoring is definitely a very important success factor. It is an essential component in improving pre-service teachers' competence to deal with academic and social issues that they may need to face during their initial college education, as well as to improve their competence in teaching (Matsko et al., 2020; Orland-Barak & Wang, 2020; Richards, 2008; Wexler, 2019). Mentoring can also have a very influential impact to vocational discernment (Campbell et al., 2012; Wexler, 2019), which is very much related to the effectiveness of the curriculum of a pre-service teacher educational institution. In fact, mentoring should be integrated into our approach to teaching and professionalism (Fullan et al., 2010) because mentoring relationships between mentor teachers and student teachers are highly capable of transforming all the teachers involved (Izadinia, 2015). This latter fact, especially, is very astounding since mentoring affects not only the mentees, but also the mentors. If so is the case, mentoring, when applied in such a way, is also a strategic means of teacher professional development.

#### **Teacher professional development**

What areas can teachers develop in themselves? How do teachers develop? These two questions

#### Mega Wati

are attended to in Freeman's descriptive model (Foord, 2009). There are four areas that teachers can develop, which are skills, knowledge, awareness, and attitude. Teachers can develop themselves in seven different ways, called models, in accordance with who he/she is. The seven models are (1) the blank slate or deficit model, in which the teacher learns from instructions; (2) the science model, learning from research; (3) the theory-philosophy model, learning from ideas; (4) the art-craft model, learning intuitively; (5) reflective teaching model, learning from analysing your own teaching; (6) teacher learning as personal construction model, learning as an adult using the constructivism perspective from self-monitoring, from being observed, or from helping peer teachers; and (7) using role models, learning from an inspirational example. This paper takes the position that mentoring can facilitate a mentor teacher to develop his/her awareness and attitude towards teaching, learning, the students, themselves, or their culture, as Foord (2009) suggested for professional development.

There is another point of view on what works for teacher professional development. When teacher professionalism depends on the initiative of the teacher him/herself, one can practice what is called independent professionalism (Richards, 2008). In doing so, the teacher engages in reflection and critical review on own views of teaching, values and beliefs; practices self-monitoring; analyses critical incidents; changes ideas within teacher support groups; or does action research. When this independent professionalism concept and Fullan's descriptive model are compared and contrasted, it is found that Freeman's blank slate or deficit model does not explicitly belong to this independent professionalism concept—except when the learning from instruction is initiated by the teacher him/herself. The other teacher professional development models above are more aligned with this independent professionalism concept.

As far as pre-service teacher education is concerned, mentoring is also viewed as a way to foster pre-service teacher professional development (Mena et al., 2015). Research shows several arguments in this matter that became the inspiration for this study. First, that psychological and emotional support in mentoring is important for pre-service teacher's professional growth and development of positive self-image as future teachers (Orland-Barak & Wang, 2020). Second, mentoring is a way of preparing (pre-service) teachers to become effective agents who are not only committed to making difference in young people's lives but also skilled at pedagogical and partnership developments so that in turn success with students is made possible when they become teachers themselves (Fullan et al., 2010).

## **Mentoring in reality**

In reality, the implementation of mentoring has often been disappointing (Fullan et al., 2010). Research has been reporting the issues that make good mentoring not easy to accomplish, such as how to select committed mentors who understand their roles, how to assign which mentors to match to which mentees, how formal or informal the mentor-mentee relationship should be, how to reward mentors for their contribution, and how to find the time for mentoring (Little, 1990 in Fullan et al., 2010). Other research (Jacobi, 1991 in Nora & Crisp, 2007) shared how colleges and universities implement mentoring in various ways, ranging from providing formal training for mentors—which implies that mentoring is taken seriously, to simply providing general guidelines for meeting times, locations and frequency of interactions. Another identified potential problem is the possible hierarchical relationship between mentor teacher and student, especially in a school-based practicum in pre-service teacher education where the mentor has a dual role as a mentor as well as a supervisor (Kuswandono, 2017). Publications about mentoring in pre-service teacher education where the mentor has a dual role as a mentor as well as a supervisor (Kuswandono, 2017). Publications about mentoring in pre-service teacher education where the mentoring to students is implemented for the sake of a very specific purpose like completing a certain task,

school-based practicum, micro teaching, or teaching practicum (Kuswandono, 2014; Kuswandono, 2017; Perry et al., 2007; Sulistiyo et al., 2017; Timperley, 2001). Therefore, it is inferred that mentoring is structurally implemented only for and during a certain period of time.

This preliminary study is inspired by the awareness of the potential multidimensional impact of mentoring for both the mentor and students if mentoring is implemented in such a way on more or less permanent basis (Izadinia, 2015; Kuswandono, 2017; Nora & Crisp, 2007; Richards, 2008; Wexler, 2019). This study argues that individual student mentoring in a pre-service teacher education by a mentor teacher can have impact for both involved parties' teaching professionalism. Therefore, two research questions guided this study. The first question is to find out the impact of this individual student mentoring from the student's point of view in terms of the four dimensions according to Nora & Crisp (2007), namely: psychological or emotional support, support for goal setting and choosing a career, academic support for their successful study, and specification of a role model. The second research question explores how this kind of mentoring has developed the mentor professionally.

It is hoped that the findings of this small-scaled study can provide some valuable feedback. For an English pre-service teacher education department—such as the one where this study is conducted—the findings can be used to review the present policy and process of mentoring and direct the future strategic policy of using it for teacher professionalism and comprehensive pre-service teacher education by making mentoring an integral part of curriculum and campus-based program (Fullan et al., 2010; Mee-Lee & Bush, 2003; Richards, 2008). As far as the pre-service teachers are concerned, it is hoped that the experience of having individual mentoring with a mentor teacher will in turn empower the mentees to become able teachers in their profession (Fullan et al., 2010; Mena et al., 2015; Orland-Barak & Wang, 2020; Wexler, 2019).

## METHOD

## **Research design**

This study was conducted in an undergraduate English pre-service teacher education department of a private university in Indonesia. In the university, a guide book on how to conduct mentoring is delivered to every mentor in every department. Every year, a teaching faculty member is appointed to be *dosen wali*, which literally means 'guardian lecturer' according to Google Translate, but more or less functions as an 'academic advisor' (read: a mentor) for maximum 20 new students. Mentoring should be conducted regularly—at least 3 times in a semester (in the beginning, in the mid-semester, and at the end)—until the mentees graduate. During the classical meetings, the mentor is mainly expected to check the students' ability to make a decision in taking appropriate courses in the respective semester and their later preparedness for mid test and final test.

An innovation was planned to be studied after a mentor teacher had done around a dozen mentoring meetings classically with all 16 mentees as expected by the university guide book. Because of the clarity, it is decided to use the four domains of Nora & Crisp (2007) described above as reference for this study: the mentor studied this concept before conducting the individual mentoring, and a questionnaire was designed to ask the students to identify which of the four domains comprised the individual mentoring they experienced. Those four domains are (1) psychological or emotional support, (2) support for goal setting and choosing a career, (3) academic support for their study, and (4) a role model (Nora & Crisp, 2007). It was intended to find out which of the four domains would be among the impact of this individual mentoring

between the mentor teacher and student from the student's perspective, especially when the mentor was aware what should comprise the individual mentoring.

Then, individual mentoring meetings were designed by asking the mentees to sign up in an informal meeting schedule with the mentor over lunch. Meal was chosen in order to help create a safe environment for them (Nora & Crisp, 2007; Nouwen, 1997). Students in general will welcome meal enthusiastically, while it is also true that a meal together is one of the most intimate human events that bond the people involved to become family, friends, or community (Nouwen, 1997). During or after lunch, the mentor would talk with the mentee casually and informally, starting with a simple question like, "What have you been doing lately?"

After the individual student mentoring, both the mentor and the mentee were asked to write a simple reflection in their own convenience without communicating with each other. The prompt for the reflection was simply "What is the impact of today's meeting for me?" The students' written reflections were then studied and coded so as to categorise the findings into four domains as described above as well as to crosscheck the result of the short questionnaire given to the students. Meanwhile, the mentor teacher's written reflections were reviewed separately to find out how the individual student mentoring developed her professionally. If deemed necessary, an unstructured interview with the mentor or/and mentee(s) concerned was done to clarify as well as confirm the data studied.

## Participants and ethical considerations

The participants of this research were 16 (sixteen) student mentees and 1 (one) female teaching faculty member as the mentor. They belong to an undergraduate English language pre-service teacher education department in a private university in Indonesia. The students were in the fifth semester when this study took place, and had already met with the mentor in around twelve classical mentoring meetings. The female mentor had taught English in the university for more than ten years before being assigned to be a teaching faculty member of the English Language Education Department. All the participants willingly participated without any coercion. They filled out their consent form and when offered, they preferred to have their anonymity kept (Oliver, 2003).

#### Data analysis

Data were taken from two resources and in two different forms. The first kind of data was in the form of short reflections, written by sixteen student mentees and one mentor. The second data were the result of the short questionnaire completed by the sixteen mentees.

The questionnaire result and the student's reflection were studied and crosschecked to answer the first research question. Their written reflections were studied and coded in order to categorise the findings into four domains as described above as well as to crosscheck the result of the questionnaire given to the students. The mentor's reflections were studied to address the second research question on how she developed professionally after the individual mentoring with her students.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The discussion of the findings will be divided into two sections. First, the findings for the first research questions will be reported and discussed, then the findings for the second research question will follow.

The impact of the individual student mentoring according to the students are shown in Figure 1.

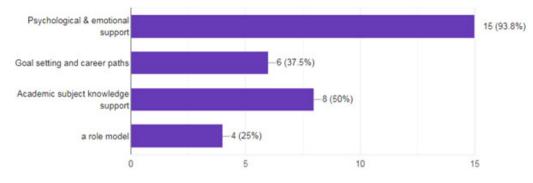


Figure 1. Student's Perspective on the Impact of Individual Mentoring

The finding satisfies the intention to see which of the four domains in Nora's and Crisp's (2007) study comprise the impact of the individual student mentoring. Most students (15 students or 93.8% from the population) stated that this kind of mentoring provided psychological and emotional support for them. Half of the population (8 students- 50%) expressed that they gained academic subject knowledge support, while some students (6 students-37.5%) thought they were given support on goal setting and career paths, and a few (4 students-25%) recognized the existence of a role model. The result of the questionnaire, designed in such as way so as to allow a student to choose more than one option in completing it, shows that in the students' perspectives the individual mentoring is very fruitful because it can provide multidimensional impact. This finding is certainly in line with the result of Nora and Crisp's study when they used the four constructs with 200 mentee participants in a two-year higher education institution in the south-central area of the United States in the academic year of 1997. However, there is a slight difference between their study and my study in terms of the finding. Their study found out that three of the four dimensions comprised the mentoring experiences of the mentees, which in sequence were educational/career goal-setting and appraisal, emotional and psychological support, and academic subject knowledge support aimed at advancing a student's knowledge relevant to their chosen field. In my study, with less number of mentee participants and different research design, all the four dimensions according to the theoretical framework of mentoring were acknowledged to be present in the mentoring, including the existence of a role model. The three dimensions are the same as their finding, but in different order of importance according to my research finding, which in sequence are psychological and emotional support, academic subject knowledge support, and goal setting and career paths.

When the result of the questionnaire shown in Figure 1 was crosschecked with the students' reflections, these two data matched. For example, here is an excerpt of a female student's reflection, in which she explained that in her case, psychological support is the only impact that she had:

After the mentoring, I felt very relieved and helped because I have someone who can listen to my problems and support me. (Student V, translated)

Other students who claimed to get both psychological and academic supports wrote in their reflections:

I can talk about my concerns. I got some advices for certain things. Having an adult to listen to my problem is reassuring. (Student Y)

From the mentoring process, I got support and encouragement not to give up on my study, despite my limitation and the nuisance that I have. (Student P, translated)

From the individual mentoring, I felt more relaxed and free to consult about my private things. And I got more support from my mentor for my academic life and personal matters. (Student L, translated)

Even though not very many students—around one-third of the population—thought about having some support on goal setting and career path, these excerpts illustrate how this kind of reinforcement is considered valuable:

From the mentoring session with my mentor, I found more detail about my goal. When I told her about my difficulty in this semester she gave me tips to overcome it and she supports me in my study and passion. I can get big picture about my goal; this is a big benefit. (Student N)

I could share my goal in the future and know things about studying further after my undergraduate study. Many things I shared, but the most important is that my mentor could help me with suggestions to pursue my graduate study. (Student G, translated)

Concerning the existing role model that a mentee can have from a mentoring process, this excerpt deserves special attention:

I felt re-motivated, re-spirited. **I felt like I had a parent** who was willing to listen in this (city). I become more certain with what I need to do in the near future. (Student D, translated, emphasis is mine)

Even though the mentor never had any plan to position herself as a parent, the fact that this particular mentee caught the image of one is the result of perceived role model. Research has identified the emergence of a mentor as a wise person, guide, and stand-in parent in the mentee's growth and development (Bierema et al., 2002). Also undeniably true is the underlying fact that it is possible that the mentor had subconsciously perceived mentoring relationship as parenting (Izadinia, 2015).

Further review of the mentee students' reflections, moreover, has resulted in two other findings beyond the purpose of this study, which cannot be ignored because of their significance. The first came from—among others— this student who implied that the mentoring process was reciprocal, and thus confirms what Jacobi (1991 in Crisp & Cruz, 2009) characterizing mentoring as personal and reciprocal:

It's a beautiful **chance to share and learn**. I'd like to share something like this and hearing an encouraging response from someone else is just beautiful. I feel mentally a bit relief and I got an informative sharing as well. (Student R, emphasis is mine)

The other was apparent from this student's excerpt, which implied the importance of time and process in—especially—individual mentoring:

I would say that it **wasn't an instant event** that happened in 2-3 hours but it was **a long process of mentoring**. I was more motivated to learn how to understand myself and other people around me through the individual sharing. (Student N, partly translated, emphasis is mine.)

From the mentee's clarification and the mentor's additional information, it turned out that she had also done individual mentoring with several mentee students on necessity basis, from the perspectives of either the mentee or the mentor who would then initiate the contact. This 'personal chat'—in the mentor's term—through WhatsApp took place outside the regular classical mentoring, and was not considered mentoring by the mentor until this was mentioned by one of the student participants in her reflection. Therefore, it was ecstatic and hopeful to find out from this mentee student that this kind of personal and individual contact through the medium of technology was counted as fruitful and impactful mentoring process too.

In fact, Bierema et al. (2002) have observed the phenomenon of what they identified as E-mentoring, the definition of which is a mutually beneficial mentor-mentee relationship mediated by computer technology, which provides learning, advising, encouraging, promoting, and modelling. This E-mentoring is often without boundary, egalitarian, and qualitatively different than traditional face-to-face mentoring. They further exemplified computer-mediated communication as communication facilitated by the medium of technology such as email, chat groups, and computer conferencing. This finding of the potential E-mentoring is very essential in tackling one of the problems in implementing good mentoring discussed earlier: finding time for individual mentoring (Bierema et al., 2002; Little, 1990 in Fullan et al., 2010). If the definition of mentoring is expanded by including this newly proposed E-mentoring definition, it is possible to maintain the implementation of good mentoring, which requires frequent and regular interactions between the mentor and the mentee. At least, this is what the surprising finding of this study suggests.

## How the mentor is developed professionally

In this study, it is found that individual student mentoring has developed the mentor in a similar way to the one stated by Fullan et al., (2010) that while a mentee benefits greatly from the mentor, a mentor also learns from their mentee such things as developing new insights into their own teaching, building new relationships, and gaining a renewed enthusiasm and commitment to their profession. First, she reflected that she developed her interactional skills, especially in her ability to be engaged in mentoring conversations that are likely to promote the mentee's personal and professional development (Timperley, 2001). Second, she developed new insights about each of the student mentees, which in turn renewed her enthusiasm in living her vocation. Each will be discussed further.

First, it is interesting to remember that teaching is an interpersonal, emotional, and social profession (Hudson, 2010). This individual student mentoring was regarded by the mentor to have developed her skills in developing such personal interactions which are free from the urge to teach and judge. As stated earlier, active, empathetic, and genuine listening is the requirement to provide psychological or emotional support in mentoring (Nora & Crisp, 2007). So are understanding and accepting student's feeling, identifying problems and giving encouragement. This is what she thought the developed skills in her. In an unstructured interview to further review her written reflections, the mentor admitted that these acts were actually the most difficult for her:

For me, who have been a teacher and parent for quite a long time, and who have done classical mentoring for around twelve times, to listen and accept whatever feelings they share without interrupting them to say "You are wrong" requires a lot of discipline. The urgency to speak more, to teach and give advice is probably rooted in my life as an educator. So when I found that they thought they received psychological support during mentoring I was very glad. I won over myself!

She further shared her critical self-monitoring (Foord, 2009) upon how much giving suggestions she did in the mentoring, which she had regretted: she found from her end-of-mentoring reflections that she gave suggestions or advice to six student mentees (37.5%).

Second, as she rechecked the reflections she wrote right after each individual mentoring, the mentor realised that the direct impact for her was a paradigm shift about the student mentees. Some excerpts from her end-of-mentoring reflections illustrate this.

Even though I thought he was an introvert, he talked a lot with me... (The 5th reflection)

How could she survive this kind of abuse and still become intact? (The 12th reflection)

I never would have thought that she had a dream to continue her study! (The 16th reflection)

She knew a lot more things about and from the student mentees—something that she had never experienced before in teaching this group of students in several classes nor in previous classical mentoring-so that she suddenly saw a different person in each of her mentees: she discovered many virtues that made her appreciate the person more. She noticed how they know what they like doing and therefore have gained practical as well as deep knowledge in those things; they have the ability to analyse their own successes and failures and learn from them as well; they are compassionate to their family and friends; they actually work hard in their life because they have a part-time job while they are studying; they have some traumatic experience in their childhood, the effect of which they can identify and attempt to manage up to the present; and they have a dream for their future. This finding is deemed valuable by the mentor teacher because learning about the student mentees softened her heart and humbled her. As a teacher or a teaching faculty member, she realized that subconsciously she had put herself in a higher position than the student's in terms of academic achievement as well as of life experience (Kuswandono, 2017). When she talked heart to heart with an individual student in this non-classical mentoring, however, she was humbled to admit that she "learned a lot from this younger, less academically abled, and inexperienced person". From this realization, she felt that her enthusiasm in fulfilling her vocation as a teacher was renewed and confirmed.

The finding is in line with the concept of Freeman's descriptive model (Foord, 2009), which identified the four areas teachers can develop professionally. The mentor teacher in this study

has developed three of the four possible areas: her skills, awareness, and attitude. She could share that she developed her interactional skills, she showed some awareness about herself, and she developed her attitude toward herself, her mentees, and her vocation as a teacher. Moreover, had she been more gentle with herself, she would have also admitted that she developed her knowledge too about some principles of mentoring. All in all, this study confirmed that individual student mentoring can have the impact for teacher professionalism, especially independent professionalism (Richards, 2008) in which the mentor herself as a teacher has been engaged in (1) reflection and critical review on her own values and beliefs; and (2) practices self-monitoring.

#### CONCLUSION

To conclude, this study has confirmed what is believed about individual student mentoring in English pre-service teacher education: that individual mentoring is impactful for teacher professionalism. The findings of this particular study-which are not supposed to be generalizedshow that through individual mentoring in a safe environment, pre-service teachers received psychological and emotional support, academic support, support for goal setting and choosing a career, and a role model. These supports and role model are important for pre-service teachers' personal and professional growth that make success with their future students possible. Moreover, the mentor teacher reflected that she also developed independent professionalism in three of the four possible areas, which were interactional skills, awareness, and attitude. An unexpected finding also suggested that the use of technology in mentoring, or in another word: E-mentoring, is fruitful in making sure the existence of absolute interactions and process for effective mentoring. Considering the value of individual mentoring in pre-service education as suggested by this study, it is recommended that the existing policy and implementation of mentoring in an English pre-service teacher education is reviewed and enhanced for the sake of teacher professional development for both parties involved. It is also realized, however, that this recommendation certainly invites a more thorough study.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to show appreciation to all the participants engaged in this study as well as the English Language Education Department for its funding support.

## REFERENCES

- Bierema, L. L., Merriam, S., & B. (2002). E-mentoring: Using computer mediated communication to enhance the mentoring process. Innovative Higher Education, 26(3), 211–227. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1017921023103
- Campbell, C. M., Smith, M., Dugan, J. P., & Komives, S. R. (2012). Mentors and college student leadership outcomes: The importance of position and process. Review of Higher Education, 35(4), 595–625. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2012.0037
- Crisp, G. and, & Cruz, I. (2009). Mentoring college students: A critical review of the literature between 1990 and 2007. Research in Higher Education, 50(6), 525–545. https://doi. org/10.1007/s11162-009-9130-2
- Foord, D. (2009). The developing teacher. Delta Publishing.

Mega Wati

- Freeman, K. (1999). No services needed? The case for mentoring high-achieving African American students. Peabody Journal of Education, 74(2), 15–26. https://doi.org/10.1207/ s15327930pje7402
- Fullan, A., Hargreaves, & M. (2010). Mentoring in the new millennium. Theory Into Practice, 5841(907004935), 37–41. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip3901
- Hudson, P. (2010). Mentors report on their own mentoring practices. Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 35(7), 30–42. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2010v35n7.3
- Izadinia, M. (2015). Student teachers' and mentor teachers' perceptions and expectations of a mentoring relationship: Do they match or clash? Professional Development in Education, 42(3), 387–402. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.994136
- Kuswandono, P. (2014). University mentors' views on reflective practice in microteaching: Building trust and genuine feedback. Reflective Practice, 15(6), 701–717. https://doi.org /10.1080/14623943.2014.944127
- Kuswandono, P. (2017). Mentor teachers' voices on pre-service English teachers' professional learning. Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6(2), 213–221. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4846
- Matsko, K. K., Ronfeldt, M., Nolan, H. G., Klugman, J., Reininger, M., & Brockman, S. L. (2020). Cooperating teacher as model and coach: What leads to student teachers' perceptions of preparedness? Journal of Teacher Education, 71(1), 41–62. https://doi. org/10.1177/0022487118791992
- Mee-Lee, L., & Bush, T. (2003). Student mentoring in higher education: Hong Kong Baptist University. Mentoring and Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 11(3), 263–271. https://doi.org/10.1080/1361126032000138319
- Mena, J., García, M., Clarke, A., & Barkatsas, A. (2015). An analysis of three different approaches to student teacher mentoring and their impact on knowledge generation in practicum settings. European Journal of Teacher Education, 39(1), 53–76. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2015.1011269
- Nora, A., & Crisp, G. (2007). Mentoring students: Conceptualizing and validating the multi-dimensions of a support system. Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory and Practice, 9(3), 337–356. https://doi.org/10.2190/CS.9.3.e
- Nouwen, H. (1997). Bread for the journey. HarperCollins Publishers.
- Oliver, P. (2003). The student's guide to research ethics. Open University Press.
- Orland-Barak, L., & Wang, J. (2020). Teacher mentoring in service of pre-service teachers' learning to teach: Conceptual bases, characteristics, and challenges for teacher education reform. Journal of Teacher Education. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487119894230
- Perry, N. E., Hutchinson, L., & Thauberger, C. (2007). Mentoring student teachers to design and implement literacy tasks that support self-regulated reading and writing. Reading and Writing Quarterly, 23(1), 27–50. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560600837636
- Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teacher education today. RELC Journal, 39(2), 158–177. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688208092182
- Sulistiyo, U., Mukminin, A., Abdurrahman, K., & Haryanto, E. (2017). Learning to teach: A case study of student teachers' practicum and policy recommendations. Qualitative Report, 22(3), 712–731.
- Timperley, H. (2001). Mentoring conversations designed to promote student teacher learning. Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 29(2), 111–123. https://doi.org/10.1080/13598660120061309

Wexler, L. J. (2019). 'I would be a completely different teacher if I had been with a different mentor': Ways in which educative mentoring matters as novices learn to teach. Professional Development in Education, 46(2), 211–228. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.20 19.1573375



# STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARD THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COLLABORATIVE BRAINSTORMING IN ACADEMIC WRITING CLASSES

Rendhi Rakasiwi<sup>1</sup>, Listyani

Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana <sup>1</sup>rendhirakasiwi008@gmail.com

Received: 9 October 2019

Accepted: 9 March 2020

#### Abstract

The 21st century skills include collaboration and teamwork, creativity and imagination, critical thinking, and problem solving. In writing classes collaborative brainstorming is one of many activities that can be conducted by teachers to help students develop their 21st century skills. It is because collaborative brainstorming makes students think critically and creatively, work better in groups, and solve problems collaboratively. This study investigated students' perceptions on the use of collaborative brainstorming in an academic writing class and its effectiveness in the students' eyes in writing. The participants of this study were thirty-three English Language Education Program (ELEP) students who were taking Academic Writing class. The data were analyzed qualitatively, supported by open ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results of the data analysis exposed to prove that collaborative brainstorming helps students in academic writing projects. Finally, this study indicates the importance of classroom interaction during classroom learning activities. This study also suggests a strategy to overcome students' minor participation during group discussions.

Keywords: collaborative brainstorming, idea generation, idea stimulation, initiator

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Brainstorming is a creative thinking activity as an attempt to get ideas before creating something as the product (Ning-Fang, 2013). This creative activity uses many methods in terms of getting ideas such as mind-mapping, noting, outlining and many others. However, finding ideas for a paper is not always easy as ever imagined. Some students need baits in order to pick an idea in their work. Therefore, I believe sources that have rich information such as journals, books, and experiences are likely to help them to get inspiration in writing an essay. Group

#### Rendhi Rakasiwi and Listyani

discussions also tend to be helpful for some students because their peers' comments may lead them to an idea to develop the paper.

In Monguea's and Morr's (1999) study, Osborn stated about rivalry in the group discussion that may stimulate the creative thinking activity. He added that the friendly rivalry is important to increase the motivation in creating ideas. It is called rivalry because the activity involves critiques and comments in order to make the productivity of the discussion work better. Although it involves rivalry among the students, the activity should be conducive in order to avoid anxiety and increase the relaxed circumstances instead. The other thing that should be considered in the activity is that group brainstorming contains free-wheeling ideas. It means that everyone can bring anything related to the main topic to the group discussion. There will be plenty of ideas in the discussion because the ideas come from more than one student. The advantages are, for the group, they can sort the ideas and pick the best topic, and for each member, the comments during brainstorming sessions can stimulate them to think broader to get more ideas for their projects.

Despite plenty of statements that support the idea of collaborative brainstorming, the activity, I believe, is not always supportive for some types of students. Students are different from one to another, so teachers cannot generalize that all students can get the benefits of idea generation through collaborative brainstorming. This research was an attempt to get students' opinion about the benefit of collaborative brainstorming in an Academic Writing class.

The objective of the research was to investigate the effectiveness of conducting collaborative brainstorming in an Academic Writing class. This study was aimed to give an insight to the teachers about students' perception toward teachers' certain approaches in the class, which is building students essay's brainstorm in a group discussion. The result of the effectiveness of collaborative brainstorming will likely to change the way teachers provide a platform for students to get ideas, especially in their Academic Writing classes. Therefore, this study addressed these questions 1) what are the students' perceptions toward the effectiveness of collaborative brainstorming in their Academic Writing class, and 2) what are the negative sides of collaborative brainstorming in Academic Writing class.

#### **Brainstorming**

According to Jossey-Bass and Pfeiffer (1998), Osborn firstly invented brainstorming activity in 1938 and applied it in the company that he headed. He called it "organized ideation" and the participants referred to their attempts to using brain in order to storm the problem. That is why the "organized ideation" is called brainstorm. Brainstorming is a creative technique of a group of people or individual person to generate ideas to find the solution of problems. Therefore, brainstorming in academic matters is a creative activity as an attempt to find ideas that students do to produce essays, crafts and many others for their projects.

## **Collaborative brainstorming**

A recent talk in the faculty conference of a private university in Central Java, Newton (2018) discussed the 21st century teaching style. Most of the time, he talked about interactive learning environments that should be built by the teacher in the classroom. Collaborative brainstorming can be one of the activities that support the idea of 21st century skills. A study from Jossey-Bass and Pfeiffer (1998) mentioned Addams' four requirements in idea generation in collaborative brainstorming. According to him, there are four essential criteria to brainstorming sessions. Firstly, there is no criticism, evaluation, judgment, or defense of ideas. Critiques that are deliv-

ered in a negative way may lead to uncomfortable situations in the brainstorming session, and it may cause members to be reluctant to be active in the group brainstorming activity. The second is free-wheeling and free association is encouraged. The wilder the idea is, the better solution it will be. Brainstorming essentially looks for a solution, and wild ideas may lead to creative inputs. The third criterion is quantity is more desired than quality. The amount of ideas takes an important part in collaborative brainstorming. It is because every member can give inputs toward the group discussion, and the plenty of ideas provide choices for the group to choose the best idea to pick for the group's project. The last one is building on ideas is encouraged. Critiques and negative comments are not allowed in the discussion, but positive comments and advice toward the member's idea are helpful and it is a part of the creative process in order to find the best idea.

Collaborative brainstorming helps students who are lower achievers to understand the material. I believe it is because students with high grade point average (GPA) tend to be quick in understanding the materials. They can be the ones in the group who initiate the discussion and come up with insights and ideas. Nevertheless, the students who are lower achievers can also be the ones with ideas although they might need a bait. The way of the brainstorming towards a topic stimulates students of lower achievers to have a part in the discussion. Collaborative writing is not always stimulating for every student to be enthusiastic in the group work (Paulus, 2002). However, students are different from one to another, so teachers cannot generalize that all students can get benefit in the group discussion. In this study, the students who worked better individually were likely the initiators of the group discussion, which means they helped students who were lower achievers in the group. They gave advice or inputs to the other members of the group.

#### The negative sides of collaborative brainstorming

Despite all the positive ideas of brainstorming, a study by Goldenberg and Wiley (2010) revealed that there are several factors which made collaborative brainstorming may lead to failures in finding ideas. One of the factors is the fear of negative evaluation. The productivity of the collaborative brainstorming session will likely decrease when members of the group are concerned about the other members' reaction toward their ideas (Schiavo, Mencarini, & Zancanaro 2016). The second barrier in collaborative brainstorming is being interrupted when reporting the ideas. This matter is called production blocking (Schiavo et al., 2016), when members forget about their ideas before they express them or are distracted because they are listening to others. The other obstacle of collaborative brainstorming is cognitive inertia (Reinig & Briggs, 2008). It happens when people get stuck with a limited idea during the ideation or brainstorming. This is likely to block the production of a creative thinking activity, and it may cause the ideation fails.

## Academic writing

Academic Writing is a course that plays an essential role in English language education program. The course requires students to think critically in order to find an intriguing issue as the topic of their writing. Academic Writing is a course that is familiar with writing processes. That is why the students should be familiar with the fundamental things in the writing processes such as formality, objectivity, and complexity in order to use the language precisely and accurately (Abdulkareem, 2013). Academic writing is also the development indicator of students' learning during their college life. That is why teachers need to encourage students' positive attitudes towards the basic factors in academic writing. Academic Writing Classes in a private university in Central Java also require students to be familiar in formality in writing essays. These classes sharpen students' writing skills by helping them in making paragraphs containing academic issues in a formal way.

# Collaborative brainstorming in academic writing at ELE program in a private university in Central Java

Usually, Academic Writing projects are individual works, and it ends with an individual final essay. There are only a few projects that need group discussions. However, the collaborative brainstorming session seems to be helpful for students who need baits in order to pick the best ideas that fit into their main topic in Academic Writing projects. As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, collaborative brainstorming helps students to stimulate their creative thinking capacity considering that there will be plenty of ideas that are expressed by each group member. Osborn, in Goldenberg's (2010) research, stated that the group brainstorming session is effective as a supplement of individual works.

## METHOD

## The context of the study

This research was conducted at the English Language Education Program (ELEP), Faculty of Language and Arts (FLA), of a private university in Central Java, focusing on the English Language Education Program using the qualitative approach. The students who took the Academic Writing classes were expected to be able to answer questions based on their experiences in finding ideas in the classes. This research analyzed cognitive processes during students' brain-storming sessions.

## **Participants**

The participants of this study were from two classes (Class A and B) out of the five Academic Writing classes. The participants were mostly students in the 2016 batch. Before filling the questionnaires, the participants were asked to fill in the consent form to ask for their permission and willingness to be the participants of the study. In class A, 20 responses were derived from the questionnaires that were given to the students. In class B, 13 responses were derived. The total number of responses was 33. Therefore, it was considered as enough for this study.

#### **Data collection instruments**

The data were collected using semi-structured interviews and questionnaires, the questions given were the same for each student. The interview allowed flexibility to elicit certain questions that were not relevant for some interviewees. Students were given the questionnaires first in order to check students' opinions in general. There were six questions to ask students' perceptions on collaborative works in Academic Writing Class. Then the worth digging deeper answers were selected.

#### Data analysis procedures

After the data from questionnaires were collected, the answers were grouped into three based on students' responses which were pros, cons, and abstain. Then students with answers from questionnaires that were worth digging deeper through the interview were selected. There were two students who participated as the interviewees in this study. Their answers in the interview were coded based on similar categories and then discussed based on the theories that support the findings.

#### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In the third semester, Academic Writing's students in a private university in Central Java conducted group projects. It was quite intriguing to see how group work helped students in academic writing. I tried to dig this issue deeper through questionnaires and interviews to students to see their perspectives. The findings include the students' points of view of the use of collaborative brainstorming in order to write an essay in Academic Writing classes during this semester and their strategy dealing with various learning styles as the two main points of this research.

## Students' perceptions toward collaborative learning

It was essential to know whether the students liked to work collaboratively or not before I dug deeper to the other section of the effectiveness of Collaborative Brainstorming. This question was asked to know how effective collaborative brainstorming was for them. The results are various, but most students agreed with collaborative brainstorming when they were working on writing projects, and some of them did not. It is because students have different learning styles, needs and interests in learning English (Yilmaz-Soylu & Akkoyunlu, 2009). As the result of this study, there were three types of students' perceptions towards collaborative brainstorming helped them in their Academic Writing class especially when they were about to do group projects. The second perception is students thought that collaborative brainstorming was not effective to help them in the Academic Writing course. The third is students thought that there were possibilities that Collaborative Brainstorming might be helpful or not. They think that certain conditions might block the idea production during brainstorming sessions. Table 1 shows the percentage of students' perception of Collaborative Brainstorming.

Students' perception	Participants	Percentage
#1	22	67 %
Collaborative Brainstorming is really helpful		
#2	6	18 %
Collaborative Brainstorming caused confusion and is not		
effective for Academic Writing tasks		
#3	5	15 %
Collaborative is effective in some conditions and can be		
ineffective too.		
Total	33	100

Table 1. Academic Writing Students' Perceptions toward Collaborative Brainstorming

#### The positive sides of collaborative brainstorming

As mentioned earlier in this paper, collaborative brainstorming can bring positive impacts as the other members can stimulate students to think broader. A question asking about other members' contribution was asked, specifically about how their comments helped the students to think creatively that made collaborative brainstorming more effective. The result is, from the total of 33 respondents, there were 26 students who agreed with the effectiveness of collaborative brainstorming.

It means that 86% of Academic Writing students agreed that collaborative brainstorming was helpful for them.

#### Better comprehension and skills improvement

Most of the students believed that working with peers might help them in mastering the materials that made it easier for them to get an idea in idea generation. In the interview session, Student A said that collaborative brainstorming helped her to improve her speaking skill, writing skill and reading skill. The same perspective was expressed by Student K.

Excerpt 1: "Collaborative works help students to learn better with friends because sometimes friends' explanations are simpler than teachers". (Student K's Opinion, July 9, 2018)

Student K also said that if there was someone who was clever in the group, it helped a lot since the other students' comprehension got enhanced. This was supported by Student K's statement.

## Excerpt 2:

"So, in my group, every member is really active to speak up their mind and we often use English during our brainstorming session. For me, this is really helpful to enhance our speaking skill, because some of the members of the group have a good proficiency in speaking in English. Our writing skill also gets improved because when we find difficulties in our homework our friends tend to help us in finding a solution for our individual projects." (Student K's Opinion, July 9, 2018)

Student K's statement shows that collaborative brainstorming sessions were not only beneficial for the group projects, but also for each member individually. It was not only helpful for the idea generation but also helped the improvement of the skills in English such as speaking, writing, reading and listening.

## Producing more ideas

In the questionnaire, the effectiveness of collaborative brainstorming in Academic Writing classes was also questioned. Student A answered, "Collaborative Brainstorming in Academic Writing is effective if the members actively involved into the discussion because it can produce more ideas and makes the work easier." According to student A's statement, collaborative brainstorming was an effective way to help students to get more ideas in Academic Writing projects.

## Stimulating critical thinking

Student N also thought that collaborative brainstorming was helpful for his individual projects. In the group discussion, her friends often stimulated her to think broader about the topic, so it helped her to find a better idea for the projects. Hearing others' ideas should allow group members to explore new categories that otherwise might have not been explored...piggybacking might occur where one builds ideas off another group members' ideas (Kohn & Smith, 2010). The following is Student N's statement.

Excerpt 3:

"My friends' comments are really helpful for me. It is because sometimes their comments help me think broader especially from other perspectives about certain ideas. So that the discussion will be more active than if I do it myself." (Student N's Opinion, July 9, 2018)

However, when asked about stimulating students' critical thinking, Student K said that he was a passive group member that he preferred to be quiet and listened to others while he was preparing his idea that might support the collaborative brainstorming session. Although he said that his ideas were not always picked into the main topic, at least it made the discussion more active than if he kept quiet during the brainstorming session. He pointed out about being an initiator in a group discussion, and his statements clearly said that he was not an initiator of a group work. This answer represents the most answers in the interviews and questionnaires.

# The negative sides of collaborative brainstorming

Although the majority of the participants of the study agreed with the effectiveness of Collaborative Brainstorming in Academic Writing class in ELEP, of a private university in Central Java, the fact that collaborative brainstorming has negative sides is still undeniable. For example, student J said that collaborative brainstorming was not easy to do because she thought that to share ideas and build a topic was not applicable. She added that working with peers to combine one's idea to another was tiring. It is because sometimes each student has different perspectives toward the materials, and it may cause misunderstanding during the group work. She added more about it that sharing ideas once made her group confused on how they developed their ideas into a paragraph. Moreover, if there were group members who were passive in the group discussion, it may lead the discussion to nowhere, which means the group may 'suffer' from lacking ideas. The theory of Schiavo et al. (2016) says about the conditions of a group that may lead the group into production blocking or lack of ideas during the brainstorming session. In his research he said that a group of people who do not know well might in fact encounter a number of cooperation barriers (Schiavo et al., 2016). The other factor that is considered as the negative side of Collaborative Brainstorming is that students have different learning styles. There are students who work better individually in their academic project. This might be a problem when the students who work better individually cannot mingle with other students. By means they tend to be strict with their ideas, and it makes them tend to force their idea to be used in the group works. This issue is supported by Student E's comment.

Excerpt 4:

"My friend is really good in English. He is always giving good ideas during our group work. But he rarely listens to our opinions toward an issue. He always revises the group work into his own version" (Student E's Opinion on an Interview, July 13, 2018)

# Overcoming passive group members

Paulus (2002) in his research mentioned that although brainstorming methods are effective, the level of enthusiasm of each student cannot be justified. As mentioned before, there are responses of the students who are against the collaborative brainstorming showing that although the numbers of the students who agree with the effectiveness of collaborative brainstorming is

#### Rendhi Rakasiwi and Listyani

bigger than the students who are against the idea, there is still a problem inside the collaborative brainstorming method.

In the interview, Student J said that the other members who were passive during a brainstorming session might cause a production block, and it made other members that used to be active became reluctant to speak up their mind. That is why a group needs an initiator to help the other members become active during the discussion. In this situation an initiator can be a moderator in a discussion. Initiators serve as discussion leaders who are responsible not only for guiding the participants through the discussion, but also for looking after the group dynamics to ensure all participants join in the discussion (Wong, 2008). It means that an initiator leads the way where the discussion flows, especially when the idea gets too broad. In the course of encouraging someone to voice his opinion, the moderator must do so without making the individual uneasy and having the other participants realize that one of their peers has been singled out and placed in an uncomfortable position (Folch-Lyon; Trost, 2015). An initiator can be the one who opens the discussion, so it means that an initiator comes up to the discussion with an idea. The group leader takes an approach to motivate members through an inspiring vision enhance group creativity and stimulate other members to contribute ideas to the group (De Dreu, Nijstad & van Knippenberg, 2015).

There were several thoughts about the initiator in a group discussion based on the results of the questionnaires and interview. The results were also various since there were different perspectives amongst students. Student Y said that the initiator could be helpful especially if the other members were reluctant to speak up their mind. So, the initiator is the one who opens their mind and starts the discussion with an idea. Student D said that the one who became dominant in a group discussion could lead the group to reach the goal if the other members were cooperative. However, there were plenty of responses against the use of initiators in a group. It is because sometimes the initiator tended to be dominating the group that made other members unwilling to be cooperative during the group discussion. The following is Student K's response.

#### Excerpt 5:

"There is a student in my group who is really good in English. He is really smart and creative, but it gets a bit disturbing when he dominates the discussion. We actually want to contribute for our group, but when our idea was not fit with his perspective, he will never use it. Once he ever revises our work and makes it to his version, which is better than ours, we admit, but I feel uneasy that he always works "alone"." (Student K's Opinion on an Interview, July 13, 2018)

Folch-Lyon and Trost (2015) in their research discussed a lot of group discussion. They said that a group can find difficulties if there are members that contribute too little or being too dominating during group sessions. They added that the leader of the group should be responsive during the discussion to avoid an uncomfortable situation that might lead to production block. Kohn and Smith (2010) stated that group members who tend to be passive may cause productivity deficit. They said group members who worry that their contributions are evaluated might feel apprehensive about volunteering wild ideas, thus lowering productivity. Responding to passive students' issue, Schiavo et al. (2016) mentioned the use of facilitator (or initiator) during brainstorming session to increase the groups' motivation to ensure that all team members contribute, giving everyone a chance to participate in the discussion. The following is Student S' response.

Excerpt 6:

"Almost every group has members who are passive during the brainstorming sessions, and I think the one who becomes the initiator in a group can be really helpful since they may inspire the passive students to participate more in a discussion." (Student S' Opinion, July 9, 2018)

Student M also had the same perspective with Student S about the role of initiator in the Collaborative Brainstorming session, as stated below.

Excerpt 7: "The one who becomes initiator does help the discussion, he or she takes a big role in a group since they can inspire others when they are lacking of ideas." (Student S' Opinion, July 9, 2018)

From these findings, students believed that collaborative brainstorming worked better with an initiator who could lead the discussion and created ideas which might inspire other members to think of other ideas related to the topic. Not only generating ideas, initiators also took a big role in leading the discussion in order to make sure that all members got involved into the discussion because some students who were considered as the passive ones needed to be approached in order to encourage them during the brainstorming sessions.

#### CONCLUSION

Based on the collected data, it was proven that some students believed that collaborative brainstorming could help them in a better lesson comprehension, producing more ideas, and stimulating critical thinking. This was supported by the students' comments on the questionnaires based on their experiences in group ideation. As mentioned before, 67% of the students agreed that collaborative brainstorming was effective for them. The second reaction was students' negative comments about how collaborative brainstorming conducted in their Academic Writing classes. They said students' different learning styles might cause production block since it might cause misunderstanding among the members of the group.

From the respondents' comments on the questionnaire and interviews, a way to overcome the negative sides of brainstorming appeared, that was to provide an initiator for each group. Therefore, initiators function as the leaders of the groups to lead the discussions as what a moderator does, but the initiators work more actively because they are involved in the discussions during brainstorming sessions. Initiators also work as the ones who come up with an idea to avoid idea lacking. They provide an issue to discuss or make a statement that may stimulate other members to think broader. Not every student, in this study, could be an initiator that is why the teacher should take an action to involve in the discussions in order to facilitate the students on how they brainstorm a topic. Here, a teacher can be an initiator too. The point is that teachers avoid being the center of learning activity, instead, teachers can make an active interaction in the classroom and make sure that every student participates actively.

Future researches can do similar research on collaborative brainstorming for different writing classes, like Creative Writing, Procedural Writing, or Narrative Writing. More participants should be asked as the respondents of the research, so that better and more general results can be derived from this field.

#### REFERENCES

- Abdulkareem, M. N. (2013). An investigation study of academic writing problems faced by Arab postgraduate students at University Technology of Malaysia. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3(9), 1552-1557.
- Brown, V. R. & Paulus, P. B. (2002). Making group brainstorming more effective: Recommendations from an associative memory perspective. Small Group Research. 29(4), 495-526.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., Nijstad, B. A., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2008). Motivated information processing in group judgment and decision making. Personality and Social Psychology Review, 12(1), 22-49.
- Folch-Lyon, E. & Trost, J.F. (1981). Conducting focus group sessions. Family Planning, 12(12), 443-449.
- Goldenberg, O & Wiley, J (2010). Quality, conformity, and conflict: Questioning the assumptions of Osborn's brainstorming technique. The Journal of Problem Solving, 3(2), 96-118.
- Issaksen, S. G. (1998). A review of brainstorming research: Six critical issues for inquiry (Monograph No. 302). Orchard Park, NY: Creative Problem Solving Group-Buffalo
- Jossey-Bass & Pfeiffer (1998). Brainstorming. The Pfeiffer Library, 26.2(1), 1-7. Retrieved from https://docplayer.net/34253263-Brainstorming-the-pfeiffer-library-volume-26-2nd-edition-copyright-1998-jossey-bass-pfeiffer-1.html
- Kohn, N. W. & Smith, S. M. (2010). Collaborative fixation: Effects on others' ideas on brainstorming. Applied Cognitive Psychology, 24, 1-22.
- Levine, J. M., Alexander, K. M., Wright, A. G. C., & Higgins, E. T. (2016). Group brainstorming: When regulatory nonfit enhances performance. Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 19, 257-271.
- Mollin, C (2015). Capitalization of remote collaborative brainstorming activities. Special issue on information system in distributed environment. Computer Standards & Interfaces (Elsevier), 2016, , 48 (C), pp.217-224.
- Mongeau, P A. & Morr, M (1999). Reconsidering brainstorming. Group Facilitation: A Research and Application Journal, 1999, 1(1), 14-21.
- Newton, J (2018). Being an effective language teacher in constrained circumstances: what does 21st century pedagogy have to offer? International Conference.
- Ning-Fang (2013). Increasing high school students' interest in STEM education through collaborative brainstorming with Yo-yos. Journal of STEM Education: Innovations and Research, 14, 8-14.
- Reinig, B A & Briggs, R O. (2008). On the relationship between idea-quantity and idea-quality during ideation. Group Decision and Negotiation, 17(5), 2008, pp. 403-420.
- Schiavo, G., Cappelletti, A., Mencarini, E., Stock, O., & Zancanaro, M. (2016). Influencing participation in group brainstorming through ambient intelligence. International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction, 32(3), 258-276.
- Wong, L. P. (2008). Focus group discussion: A tool for health and medical research. Singapore Med J 49(3); 256
- Yilmaz-Soylu, M & Akkoyunlu, B (2009). The effect of learning styles on achievement in different learning environments. The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, 8(4), 43-50

Vol. 1 No. 2, 2020 P-ISSN: 2715-7512; E-ISSN: 2716-0246 doi: http://doi.org/10.21460/saga.2020.12.45

# FEMINIST CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS TO THE LANGUAGE USE AND DISPLAY IN WHITENING COSMETIC PRODUCT ADVERTISEMENTS

#### Melania Priska Mendrofa

Prayoga School of Foreign Language (STBA Prayoga) melania@stba-prayoga.ac.id

Received: 11 May 2020

Accepted: 6 July 2020

#### Abstract

The language used in advertisements can reflect social and cultural perspectives. Specific words and sentences used by a cosmetic company can attract consumers to buy and consume a product. The language can also change people's perspective about life and the way they experience it. Cosmetic products have changed women's perspective toward the standard of beauty. The beauty standard is submitted through the persuasive language and the display of beautiful models in the advertisements. It is a common issue that the concept of being a beautiful woman is to have white and glowing skin. Because of this, women buy and use many whitening products to beautify themselves. The language of advertisement 'colonizes' women and kills the concept of a woman's nature. It subordinates some women who keep their natural looks by not using any whitening products. However, women should be aware of this problem and not be affected by the language of advertisement so that they can accept themselves for who they are. Feminist critical discourse analysis helps this research to analyze and criticize the beauty standard that has been imposed on women through the language. In the end, women's awareness is needed to resist the beauty standard as a gender stereotype constructed by society.

**Keywords**: Feminist critical discourse analysis, the language of advertisement, whitening cosmetic product

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Language does not only function as the media of information, but it can allow people to do things (Gee, 2011). It persuades people and changes their perspective about something. As it is in whitening cosmetic product advertisements, the persuasive words strongly influence women to change their appearance to look more beautiful. Women have become so occupied beautifying themselves. They become a target for the cosmetic market that 'creates' beautiful women

saga, Vol.1(2), Agustus 2020

#### Melania Priska Mendrofa

with a certain standard: to have white and glowing skin. A lot of whitening cosmetic product industries are growing fast around the world. They become bigger and bigger with the help of mass media, especially through advertisements. In Indonesia, the cosmetic advertisements usually show attractive models and words that are persuasive to women. Indonesian women generally want to have white skin like western people. Colonialization has changed the Indonesians' way of thinking. They think that white people are better than Indonesians. Their skin, eyes and hair color are perceived to be much more beautiful than Indonesians. Therefore, today women want to have a perfect look: to have white skin, blonde hair, and blue eyes.

Feminist critical discourse analysis (CDA), as can be seen from its political perspective on gender, involves the critique of the interrelationship of gender, power, and ideology in discourse (Lazar, 2005). According to Fairclough (2003), discourse is part of social action because it consists of writing and speaking which reflect both acting and interacting. It implies that words can become media of interaction between the actor and the target, that is, between companies and consumers. Words which are presented in writing can inform things and also persuade people. In whitening cosmetic product advertisements, the persuasive language used by the companies marginalizes and puts gender stereotype on women, indoctrinating the idea that women have to be pretty. Thus, feminist CDA seeks to criticize the power of language as the reflection of social oppression toward women's natural looks.

In advertisements, there is a problem-solution relation indicated in the sentences (Fairclough, 2003). The text deals with customers' problems first, including their needs and desire, before providing a solution through the products offered. The text is also rich in meaning. It does not only contain letters but also semiotic modalities, such as visual images, layouts, gestures, and sounds (Lazar, 2005). There will be different strategic and communicative actions used by the advertisement companies to attract consumers' attention. The authors have the authority to create stories and to present women as either the subject or the object of oppression. So, the authors, or the cosmetic companies, make use of the female language. It uses some words related to women's beauty to attract their attention. It is as if the language used by those companies is women's voice that speaks to other persons of the same gender, so that they can be influenced through its persuasion.

Meanwhile, it is reflected from the language of advertisement that a woman's body is not seen as a natural entity, but as a social construction (Davis et al., 2006). A problem arises when a woman is forced to have a good physical appearance rather than rational thought and skill. Because of social construction, women try to improve their looks to get social approval through medical interventions. Medical treatments, such as the use of whitening cosmetic products, help women to be a perfect figure in society.

However, women have different types of body maintenance. Since westernization gained dominance, body maintenance has seemed to be universal. The use of cosmetics, hair removal, and hairstyling, for instance, have become a daily activity for western women, and it becomes unacceptable if they do not do it (Davis et al., 2006). This condition creates a stigma that women must have perfect body appearances. They should keep their physical appearances. Being hairy for women is even seen as being lazy, dirty and unattractive. Through feminist critical discourse analysis, men's privilege can be resisted. Critical discourse analysis then becomes a part of an emancipatory critical social science to achieve social order through a critique of discourse (Lazar, 2005). It is to resist the disempowerment of women in discourse. Lazar (2005) also explains that the focus of feminist CDA is on how gender ideology and gendered relations of power are (re)produced, negotiated and contested in representations of social practices, in social relationships between people, and people's social and personal identities in texts and talk. So, text analysis can reveal the marginalization of women's natural looks. It presents how the patriarchy or society still dominates women through the role of language.

#### **METHODS**

#### **Research Design**

This research applies a descriptive qualitative method to explore and describe the use of persuasive language and display in whitening cosmetic product advertisements. The analysis of this research shows the discussion of the social problem, which is the use of persuasive language in constructing the beauty standard for women. To support the analysis, the writer uses a sociological approach. According to Saukko (2003) the function of the sociological approach is to clarify the empowering and disempowering aspects of discourses both from personal as well as social points of view. It helps the writer analyze the social phenomenon, namely the influence of whitening cosmetic product's language for women's beauty standards.

#### **Data collection**

The researcher looked for three famous whitening cosmetic product advertisements from the internet (POND'S, GARNIER, and L'OREAL) that use good persuasive words for beauty and show a flawless-skinned woman as their model. The researcher chose those western brands to show how the companies set the beauty standard based on western standards and hired the flawless-skinned Asian models and actresses to be their brand ambassadors for their products and to prove the effectiveness of the products for Asians' skin type.

#### Data analysis

Feminist critical discourse analysis (CDA) was utilized to analyze the disempowerment of women through the discourse. In the beginning, the researcher reconstructed the background and impact of language use in whitening cosmetic products. Secondly, the problem was identified, and the research question was formulated. Later, the writer identified the theory that was used for analyzing the data, namely feminist CDA.

#### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

# Feminist critical discourse analysis to the language use and display in whitening cosmetic product advertisements

This research focused on the analysis of the three whitening cosmetic product advertisements below:



Figure 1. POND'S advertisement. Adapted from Pond's white beauty face wash - Radio [Video file], by Umrigar, K., 2012, Retrieved March 5, 2020, from https://youtu.be/bjWlxv3h0U0.



Figure 2. GARNIER advertisement. Adapted from Review Garnier BB Cream, Retrieved March 5, 2020, from https://www.sweetsharing.com/review-garnier-bb-cream/amp/



Figure 3. L'OREAL advertisement. Adapted from Skin care L'OREAL PARIS, Retrieved March 5, 2020, from https://www.lorealparis.com.my/products/skin-care

The three advertisements (ads) used language to build a topic. The language defined and produced knowledge to the objects, in this case, the cosmetics products. The language directed the way how the products were discussed meaningfully and rationally. The language influenced how an idea was practiced and used to manage behavior, in this case, the consumers' behavior. The sentences used in the whitening cosmetic product advertisements (POND'S, GARNIER, and L'OREAL) are in the form of active voice. The words used were mostly verbs and adjectives. The verbs were increase, value, switch to, get, celebrate, fade out, and even out. The adjectives were fairer, soft, perfect and glowing. The positive and attractive choice of verbs and adjectives strengthened the quality of the products. They used verbs to describe the benefits of the products, and adjectives to convince women to buy the products for their quality (soft) and the result (they can make women's faces *fairer*, *perfect* and *glowing*). They set the perspective that the products were effective to create the perfect condition of the skin. The actor in the active sentences was not presented directly. Therefore, who is and what is being communicated in the language were not explicitly stated (Gee, 2011). As shown in Figure 1, it was the company that spoke to the consumers through the use of persuasive language in order to attract women's attention to buy and use their product; If you value your face, should you be washing it with soap? Switch to Pond's White Beauty Facewash with 50% white cream actives and get fairer skin right from the first wash.

The company also tried to put attention to women's skin through their advice to use POND'S White Beauty Facewash instead of common soap. The advice was also supported by providing the result of using the whitening product even from the first use; *get fairer skin right from the first wash*. The sentence, *Unlike soap, it's soft on your face too*, shows the strong quality of POND'S compared to common soap. Being similar to POND'S advertisement, GARNIER and L'OREAL also presented the same purpose, that was, to invite women to leave their old appearances, to lose the dark spots and celebrate the new skin perfection. The advertisements promised the consumers the skin perfection as what it was expressed by the models of the three ads through their flawless and light skinned faces.

Next, the three advertisements explained the benefits of their products without mentioning the target. However, their representation of a woman's image implicitly showed the target readers the image of an ideal woman. The advertisements placed POND'S, GARNIER and L'OREAL as high-quality cosmetic products. Therefore, they did not directly invite the consumers to buy their products. It was an indirect invitation from the use of persuasive languages. The L'ORE-AL White Perfect used the phrase Dermatologically Tested- Tested on Asian skin in the last line to strengthen the quality of the product which means that it was made using in-depth research and high technological equipment. The result was also listed there: it was tested on Asian skin. Those words gave the impression that L'OREAL was a modern and sophisticated company with reliable dermatologists. GARNIER also presented the Asian model, the Indian woman, to prove the effectiveness of the product. It was aimed at the Asians to show the effectiveness of the product for the Asian skin type, which is a relatively darker one, to be made more glowing. The use of 'you' in the POND'S ad showed the interpersonal function of the sentence. It convinced the customers to buy their product by asking them about their old habits and then persuaded them to leave it. The phrases 'dark out, white in', 'Increase your face value', indicated that having a fairer white face will make a woman more beautiful and admirable. The last line, 'Give your face the value it deserves', implied that a non-white face is not valuable and uninteresting. A white face was much better. As Figure 3 shows, the first line phrase, Glowing skin in 5 days could describe that you can get beauty instantly. Beauty was when your skin was free from dark spots. The use of women's images in the ads also indicated that women were the

#### Melania Priska Mendrofa

icons of beauty. As the icons of beauty, these women should have white and smooth skin. White and smooth skin was considered as the superior kind of skin; skin that based on these three ads must be owned by all women.

These three ads also tried to create their own truth through the language. According to Foucault (1990), based on the principle of exteriority, there is a hidden game of power relations behind the language. He said that power relations are both intentional and non-subjective. No power is exercised without a series of aims and objectives. Where there is power, there is resistance, and yet, rather consequently, this resistance is never in a position of exteriority to power. Thus, the three ads must have certain aims and objectives. The three ads aimed to put power on women and society. The power is used to change the beauty concept of women and marginalized those who are not included in that concept.

From the analysis of the advertisements' language above, it reflected the representation of women as the subject of beauty. It constructed a mindset for women that they could have beautiful and fair skin if they used certain whitening products and cream. This mindset was easily used by the companies since the stereotype of becoming a beautiful woman has been constructed repeatedly and many times before. Women get pressured by society to be attractive so they can be rewarded with marriage and motherhood (Denmark & Paludi, 2008). Thus, women seem to be in the race to look attractive. It is the society that even put feminine characteristics in a girl's toy (Denmark & Paludi, 2008). The cosmetic companies provided a 'toy', that is the whitening cosmetic products, with all of the feminine language so that the women can be persuaded to use the products. This condition made women dream of having beautiful skin, and that was when cosmetic products took advantage of it.

Meanwhile, this condition has been criticized by feminists who want to subvert the social construction for women. The concept of having a beautiful face, white, fair, and bright skin as the physical appearance should be eliminated. It is paradoxical if the physical appearance becomes the determination of women's identity. The whitening cosmetic products above were not specified for women of certain ages. It was for women of all ages. From this situation, it can be inferred that the aged women should also possess a perfect look or physical appearance. The social views about the beauty standard have made middle-aged women dissatisfied with their appearance (Denmark & Paludi, 2008). Based on this social phenomenon, the cosmetic company arranges good persuasive language to convince the all-age women to have flawless beauty. Women got brain-washed by the companies' advertisements so that they prioritize physical appearance over their skill.

So, persuasive language changes women's mind and behavior. It affects women's appreciation for their bodies. Along with the cosmetic product advertisements, there will be a question toward the construction of womanhood. It is the power of society in constructing a woman's standard of beauty that can kill the essential meaning of being a woman. A woman is no longer appreciated because of their ability and skill, but due to their physical appearances only. For this condition, women should have an awareness of their bodies. There must be appreciation too from society toward women's natural looks. Gender stereotype of what looks beautiful and perfect for women should be dismissed eventually.

## CONCLUSION

From the three advertisements, it can be concluded that the idea of being white or having fair skin is a kind of social construction. There is a hegemony that has presented white women as the most beautiful people. The language used in the advertisements has the power to change people

especially women's way of thinking. Language can create power which makes people shift their mindset and stay under hegemony and gender stereotype unconsciously.

#### REFERENCES

- Davis, K., Evans, M., & Lorber, J. (2006). Handbook of gender and women's studies (Ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Denmark, F. L. & Paludi, M.A. (2008). Psychology of women: A handbook of issues and theories (2nd Ed.). London: Praeger.
- Fairclough, N. (2003). Analysing discourse: Textual analysis for social research. London: Routledge.
- Foucault, M. (1990). The history of sexuality. Volume I: An introduction. New York: Vintage Books A Division of Random House, Inc.
- Gee, J.P. (2011). An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method (3rd Ed.). NY: Routledge.
- Lazar, M.M. (2005). Feminist critical discourse analysis: Gender, power, and ideology in discourse (Ed.). NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Review Garnier BB Cream [Online Image]. Whitening product. https://www.sweetsharing. com/review-garnier-bb-cream/amp/
- Saukko, P. (2003). Doing research in cultural studies: An introduction to classical and new methodological approaches. London: Sage Publications.
- Skin care L'OREAL PARIS [Online Image]. Whitening product. https://www.lorealparis.com. my/products/skin-care
- Umrigar, K. (2012, October 21). Pond's white beauty face wash Radio [Video file]. Youtube. https://youtu.be/bjWlxv3h0U0



# UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARDS GRAMMAR ASSESSMENT IN THE EFL CLASSROOM<sup>1</sup>

## Fadhlur Rahman

UIN Ar-Raniry, Banda Aceh fadlurrahman@uin.ar-raniry.ac.id

Received: 28 November 2019

Accepted: 9 March 2020

#### Abstract

This study aimed to explore how grammar assessment in the EFL classroom was implemented at the English Department of the State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry (UIN Ar-Raniry). The researcher investigated learners' perspectives regarding the congruence of the grammar assessment with the planned learning, assessment authenticity, transparency, and their capability in the classroom. A total of 69 fourth-year students of the English Department responded to the questionnaire with 24 five-point Likert scale items. The quantitative data of Students' Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ) items were descriptively analysed using the SPSS16 program. The result offers significant insights into the ways students viewed classroom-based grammar assessments. It was shown that students perceived a slight congruence between grammar assessment and planned learning, as well as inadequate transparency regarding the purpose, authenticity, and assessment forms. Moreover, the result indicates that their perceived capability in taking the assessment was rather unsatisfactory.

**Keywords**: Students' Perception, Grammar, Assessment, Language Learning, Classroom Assessment

## **INTRODUCTION**

The role of grammar in language acquisition has remained relatively significant. Grammar is deemed to be worthy of study – to the extent that in the Middle Ages in Europe, it was thought to be the foundation of all knowledge and the gateway to sacred and secular understanding (Hillocks and Smith, 1991). As it notably contributes to the success of language learning program, class-room-based grammar instruction must be taken into serious account with regard to its task design, teaching process and most importantly, classroom assessment. Purpura (2004) stated that the grammar-translation approach which was included in a summative assessment had become more about learning a set of linguistic rules than about learning to use the language for a communicative

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This paper is the author's unpublished research during his master's program at Indonesia University of Education (UPI), Bandung, Indonesia

#### Fadhlur Rahman

purpose. This type of assessment regularly asks students to choose correct grammatical forms by answering multiple-choice questions. Such tests can be useful for measuring students' knowledge of language forms. However, instructors need to revisit and consider the goal of language learning, in which learners should aspire to be fluent communicators by displaying authentic language use, rather than become "grammar nazis". Students should be ready to use their English to communicate in a real-life situation and perform superb communication skills. Therefore, an appropriate grammar assessment will significantly influence the favourable target of language learning. Black and William (1998) reviewed more than 250 articles and books to examine the effect of formative assessment on students' performance. They found that employing different methods to assess students during the course would enhance students' success. The works on formative assessment suggest that new approaches to increase valuable feedback will change classroom practices and bring adjustment in learning and teaching.

At the English Department of UIN Ar-Raniry, the lecturers had a wide variety of grammar assessments. Some lecturers provided authentic material and delivered precious feedback to the students, while others still performed a grammar-translation method and designed a dys-functional evaluation in the classroom. This distinction reflects the assumption on whether the assessment is used to improve language instructions or maintain the repeated latent routines. Struyven, Dochy, and Janssens (2005) claimed that the experience of learning that was diminished by assessment methods were perceived to be inappropriate. Hence, students' perceptions need to be investigated, especially on whether the assessment forms are congruent with the validity, authenticity and transparency of the test. Further, students' awareness of their capabilities is also needed to design better grammar teaching and learning instruction. Therefore, the significance of the present study relies on learners' perceptions towards the implementation of grammar assessment, which must be taken into consideration by educational authorities and instructors to indicate the quality of grammar teaching and learning.

It is no doubt that students' perception is relevant to the success of classroom assessment. Thus, this paper aims to gain insights into the perspectives of English Department students of the State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry on their grammar assessment. There are several reasons why students' perception is of great significance for classroom assessment. First, evaluating assessment procedures is one viable way to determine the right path to the goal of the teaching-learning process. Since students are the primary information source for evaluating assessment procedures, thus the quality of assessment methods implemented in the classroom can be observed from their attitudes and viewpoints. As quoted from Rowntree's (1987, p.1) work, if "we wish to discover the truth about an educational system, we must first look to its assessment procedures". Second, students' involvement in classroom assessments makes the learning process more meaningful. For instance, if students are aware that the assessments given to them are not congruent to the goal of language learning, they will supposedly speak up their voice to the teachers. As Dhindsa, Omar, and Waldrip (2007) noted, by examining students' perceptions of the assessment, it stimulates teachers to develop an authentic and realistic approach for evaluation in the future.

Additionally, the information gained from students' perception about grammar assessment will not only encourage and accommodate teachers to demonstrate appropriate classroom assessment activities but also boost students' achievement. Further, students' perceptions of assessments will affect their learning approach and will change the extent to which they are successful in their classrooms (Mussawy, 2009). For example, the empirical research done by Alkharusi, Aldhafri, Alnabhani, and Alkalbani (2014) has proved that students' perceptions towards classroom assessment practices can be associated with students' academic progression on self-efficacy. By collecting data from 1,457 secondary school students and 99 teachers, their research has gained pleasant collaboration between

the teaching staff and students to improve the quality of teaching-learning. The study suggests that a shared understanding exists among the faculty members and students concerning the primary purpose of classroom assessment, improving instruction and increasing learning.

Classroom assessment holds an essential part in language teaching and learning. Assessment, defined as "a systematic process for gathering data about student achievement," is an integral component of education (Dhindsa, Omar, and Waldrip, 2007, p.1261). Udoukpong and Okon (2012) explained that information gathered in assessments and evaluations is used to shape strategies for improvement at each level of the education system. Specifically, at the classroom level, teachers may collect information on students' understanding of the instruction and adjust teaching to meet identified learning needs. On the other hand, Black and William (1998) asserted that assessment is more of collaborative activities between teachers and students. They defined assessment broadly as a term which includes all activities teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used analytically to alter teaching and learning. This definition considers proper assessment that involves continuing preparation, practice, and evaluation to be an essential component of language learning.

A related study was conducted by Cheng, Wu, and Liu (2015) by involving 620 university students from three universities to investigate the relationship between students' perceptions of assessment tasks and classroom assessment environment within the context of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in China. The instrument that was used to measure students' perceptions of the classroom assessment environment was designed based on Dorman and Knightley's (2006) Perceptions of Assessment Tasks Inventory (PATI) and Alkharusi's (2011) scale. From the results, it can be inferred that there was a match between assessment and learning from these students' point of view. Yet, the students were scarcely involved in determining the criteria of evaluation which led to the performance-based assessment.

Another research on students' perceptions of assessment was investigated by Al Kadri, Al-Moamary, Magzoub, Roberts, and van der Vleuten (2011). Fourteen students and eight clinical supervisors from Sydney Medical School and twelve students and thirteen clinical supervisors from King Saud bin Abdulaziz University were involved in qualitative semi-structured interviews. In their study, it can be concluded that cultural differences and emotions can affect students' perceptions towards the implementation of assessment in the classroom and their learning styles.

In addition to those previous studies, this research aims to explore the perceptions of undergraduate students in the English Department of the State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry on the grammar assessment given by their lecturers. This research, further, investigates the students' awareness of the grammar teaching-learning process and how the experiences led to their successful language learning.

#### **METHOD**

#### **Research design**

Prior to undertaking the investigation, ethical clearance was obtained from fourth-year English Department students of the State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry, Banda Aceh. This study employed total sampling. The participants were selected because they had been taught by and acquainted with more grammar lecturers in the department than their juniors. Seventy-four students who were divided into three groups were given a questionnaire. Sixty-nine of them returned the questionnaire. When filling in the questionnaire, the participants were assisted by the researcher in order to avoid any misconception or misunderstanding of the questions.

#### Fadhlur Rahman

#### Instrument

The researcher selected the Student Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ) as the instrument of the research. It was adopted from the questionnaire developed by Dorman and Knightley's (2006) Perceptions of Assessment Tasks Inventory (PATI), with 24 items included. The instrument was used to inquire about students' perceptions in five dimensions (scales). The questionnaire was divided into five subscales. The five subscales and their respective descriptions are: Scale 1 (Items 1-5) measures the element of congruence with planned learning; Scale 2 (Items 6-10) measures authenticity; Scale 3 (Items 11-15) measures student consultation; Scale 4 (Items 15-20) measures transparency; and Scale 5 (Items 21-24) measures student capabilities.

## Procedure

The researcher used a quantitative method to investigate the learners' perceptions of grammar assessment at the English Department of the State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry. The instrument investigated both students' perceptions and opinions. More specifically, with 24 five-point Likert scale items, it was used to investigate learners' perspectives regarding the congruence of the teaching-learning plan, assessment authenticity, transparency, consultation, and students' capability in the classroom. The items on the scale were coded as Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree, and Strongly Agree. The questionnaire was distributed in three different classes. All classes were provided with the same instructions by the researcher to avoid error and misunderstanding. Statistical significance was analysed using the SPSS16 program.

#### **Research** question

In particular, this research aims to address one main research question:

How do students in the English Department of State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry perceive their classroom-based grammar assessment with regard to the congruence with the planned learning, assessment authenticity, transparency, students' consultation, and their capability in the classroom?

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics to demonstrate the overall perception of students based on the five-scale (24 items) assessment questionnaire. Those five scales were: congruence with planned learning, assessment authenticity, students' consultation about assessment, transparency of assessment, and students' capabilities.

Table 1. Congruence with Planned Learning				
Items on Questionnaire	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation	
1. My assessment in grammar class tests	69	2.93	1.15	
what I memorize.				
2. My assessment in grammar class tests	69	2.61	1.07	
what I understand.				
3. My assignments are about what I have done	69	2.26	1.12	
in class.				
4. How I am assessed is similar to what I do in class.	69	2.51	.95	
5. I am assessed on what the teacher has taught me.	69	2.57	1.09	
Valid N (listwise)	69	2.57		

From the table, students' responses to the item 1 and item 2 show a slight variance. The value

for question 1 ('what students memorize') is a little bit higher than 'what students understand' in question 2, with the mean score comparison of 2.93 > 2.61. It indicates that students perceived the assessment given in the classroom as only a measure of memorization rather than a measure of understanding. Interestingly, there was no significant difference between item 4 and item 5. In other words, students admitted that they were assessed based on what teachers had taught them and given similar tasks in accordance with what they had done in the class.

Items on Questionnaire	Ν	Mean Std. Deviat		
6. I am asked to apply my learning to real	69	1.99 .88		
life situations.				
7. My grammar class assessment tasks are useful	69	1.90	.83	
for everyday life.				
8. I find my grammar class tasks are	69	1.93	.75	
relevant to what I do outside of class.				
9. Assessment in grammar class tests my ability to	69	2.01	.88	
apply what I know to real-life problems.				
10. Assessment in grammar class examines my	69	2.29	.97	
ability to answer everyday questions				
11. I can show others that my learning has helped	69	2.13	.92	
me do things.				
Valid N (listwise)	69	2.04		

Table 2. The Authenticity

Among the 5 Likert scales, none of the items of authenticity questionnaire reached half of it. It means that the assessment of grammar class in the English department of UIN Ar-Raniry was perceived as irrelevant by the students. Despite no significant mean score among the items, the highest mean score was (M=2.29) from item number 10, which indicates that the assessment given in the classroom was to examine students' ability to answer everyday questions. Further, statistical tests revealed that Item 7 was the one having the lowest score (M=1.90). This implies that little of the grammar assessment was viewed to bring benefits to students' daily communication. This particular item investigates whether students were facilitated by the assessment to use correct grammar in productive skills like speaking and writing. If the students perceived that the test given was not authentic, it means that the real purpose of studying grammar was slightly spoiled.

Table 3. Student Consultation					
Items on Questionnaire	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation		
12. In grammar class I am clear about the types	69	1.70	.81		
of assessment being used.					
13. I am aware how my assessment will be marked.	69	1.70	.73		
14. My teacher has explained to me how each type	69	1.74	.87		
of assessment is to be used.					
15. I can have a say in how I will be assessed in	69	1.80	.85		
grammar class					
Valid N (listwise)	69	1.73			

Table 3 shows a shallow rate of students' consultation in the grammar classroom assessment. The mean scores of items 12 and 13 (M=1.70) hint that students were not aware of the types of assessment being used by the teachers and how they would be graded. Meanwhile, the other

#### Fadhlur Rahman

two items marginally averaged higher at M=1.74 and M=1.80. This means that teachers had given students little chance to decide how they would be assessed and they had limited participation in grammar classroom assessment.

Table 4. Transparency				
Items on Questionnaire	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation	
16. I understand what is needed in all grammar	69	2.10	1.10	
class tasks.				
17. I am told in advance when I am being assessed.	69	1.88	.96	
18. I am told in advance on what I am being assessed.	69	2.26	1.17	
19. I am clear about what my teacher wants in my	69	1.77	.81	
assessment tasks.				
20. I know how a particular assessment task will	69	1.67	.70	
be marked.				
Valid N (listwise)	69	1.94		

Overall, the transparency of grammar classroom assessment in the English Department of UIN Ar-Raniry was rather unsatisfactory. All of the questionnaire items of transparency were rated below average. One positive point was gained from item 18, which somewhat became the most striking one. The item's mean score indicates that the students were informed about what they were being assessed. However, item 20 tells us that students barely knew how specific assessment tasks would be graded.

#### Table 5. Students Capabilities

Tuble 5. Students e	apaomin	, <b>5</b>	
Items on Questionnaire	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation
21. I can complete the assessment tasks by	69	2.28	1.32
the given time.			
22. I am given a choice of assessment tasks.	69	1.68	.83
23. I am given assessment tasks that suit my ability.	69	1.64	.77
24. When I am confused about an assessment task,	69	1.61	.73
I am given another way to answer it.			
Valid N (listwise)	69	1.80	

Table 5 presents the information related to students' capabilities in the grammar class. It can be seen from the low mean scores of items 22, 23, and 24 (M=1.68, M=1.64, M=1.61) that the students were hardly given choices of assessment tasks suitable with their ability. Also, there were limited options for students to accomplish the tasks when they faced difficulties during the grammar teaching-learning process. However, a slightly higher mean (2.28) in item 21 suggests that students may be able to finish the tasks and homework given at a proper time even though the teachers gave them few choices of tasks in the grammar class.

The Students' Perception of	Total
Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ)	Mean
Congruence with Planned Learning	2.57
Authenticity of Assessment	2.04
Student Consultation about Assessment	1.73
Transparency of Assessment	1.94
Students' Capabilities	1.80

#### Table 6. Averaged Mean Scores of Overall Students' Responses on 5-Scale Assessment Questionnaire

Based on the averaged mean scores of overall students' responses on five-scale assessment questionnaire in Table 6, none of them reaches a maximum averaged score of 5. However, the study shows that students perceived 'congruence with planned learning' to have the highest mean (M = 2.57) compared to the other four scales. Students in this case realized that they were assessed based on what they had learned and taught. When students become aware that what they are learning in the class will be tested on assessment tasks, they become more enthusiastic about investing time and energy in teaching-learning activities (Brookhart & Bronowicz, 2003; McMillan, 2000). Besides, drawn from table 6, students perceived the 'authenticity of grammar assessment' (M = 2.04) to be comparatively lower in score than 'congruence with planned learning'.

In other words, they were tested in accordance with what they had understood and learnt. However, the usefulness of grammar learning for everyday life was still lacking. Therefore, it is imperative that teachers and staff who are involved in the assessment decision process understand what real-life situations students are really concerned with. In terms of student consultation, the scale was marked as having the lowest averaged score (M=1.73). This suggests that students viewed rather negatively the types of assessment being used in their class and indicates that they could barely have a say in how they would be assessed in their classes. Additionally, based on students' responses, the average mean score shows that students received limited instruction about the use of various assessment forms in their classes. Struyven, Dochy, and Janssens (2005) reported that there is a strong relationship between student perceptions of assessments and how they approach learning. In addition to that, they also highlighted the significance of focusing more on students' role because when students feel included in the decision making of assessment modes, they become more eager to participate in the teaching-learning activities.

Regarding the capabilities of students in performing in the assessment tasks, students perceived their assessment tasks to be slightly higher than student consultation (M = 1.80). This implies that a few students may probably finish their assessment tasks at the given time. Yet, they were less likely to be given the choices of assessment formats and alternatives to approach a question when they were confused. Finally, the transparency was perceived to be a little more favourable (M=1.94) compared to consultation and student capabilities, despite the fact that it was still far from the maximum score. Thus, it is essential to attribute more information about how the assessments were designed and how teachers marked them.

## CONCLUSION

Given that the study examining students' views on grammar assessment by using the SPAQ is still rare, the result of this quantitative research presents considerable insights into the ways students perceive grammar in the classroom assessments. The findings conclude that, while grammar assessments demonstrated congruence with planned learning and transparency, there was still a long way to go for further development, for instance by increasing the authenticity

#### Fadhlur Rahman

of assessment tasks and involving students in the decision process. Through unraveling the multi-dimensional nature of student perceptions, this study helps readers appreciate not only the prominent character of classroom-based grammar assessments but much more beyond that. However, due to the cross-sectional data and geographically homogeneous student sample, the result of the current study should be interpreted with caution. Therefore, it is suggested that future researchers obtain a larger sample of students from various levels and regions to build a complete picture of student perceptions of language assessments, especially grammar assessments.

### REFERENCES

- Al Kadri, H., Al-Moamary, M., Magzoub, M., Roberts, C., & van der Vleuten, C. (2011). Students' perceptions of the impact of assessment on approaches to learning: A comparison between two medical schools with similar curricula. International Journal of Medical Education, 44–52. DOI: 10.5116/ijme.4ddb.fc11. Retrieved from http://search.proquest. com/docview/870646470/
- Alkharusi, H. (2011). Teachers' classroom assessment skills: Influence of gender, subject area, grade level, teaching experience and in-service assessment training. Journal of Turkish Science Education, 8(2), 39-48.
- Alkharusi, H., Aldhafri, S., Alnabhani, H., & Alkalbani, M. (2014). Classroom assessment: Teacher practices, student perceptions, and academic self-efficacy beliefs. Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 42(5), 835-856.
- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Inside the black box: Raising standards through classroom assessment. Phi Delta Kappan, 80(2), 139–144.
- Brookhart, S. M., & Bronowicz, D. L. (2003). 'I don't like writing. It makes my fingers hurt': Students talk about their classroom assessments. Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 10(2), 221–242. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594032000121298
- Cheng, L., Wu, Y., & Liu, X. (2015). Chinese university students' perceptions of assessment tasks and classroom assessment environment. Language Testing in Asia, 5(1), 1–17. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-015-0020-6
- Dhindsa, H. S., Omar, K., & Waldrip, B. (2007). Upper secondary Bruneian science students' perceptions of assessment. International Journal of Science Education, 29(10), 1261– 1280. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/09500690600991149
- Dorman, J., & Knightley, W. (2006). Development and validation of an instrument to assess secondary school students' perceptions of assessment tasks. Educational Studies, 47–58. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/209735861/
- Hillocks, G. and Smith, M. W. (1991). Grammar and usage. In J. Flood, J. M. Jensen, D. Lapp, and J. R. Squire (eds.), Handbook of Research on Teaching the English Language Arts (pp. 591–603). New York: Macmillan.
- Mcmillan, J. H. (2000). Fundamental assessment principles for teachers and school administrators. Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 7(8), 1–5.
- Mussawy, S., A., J. (2009). Assessment practices: Students and teachers' perceptions of classroom assessment. (Master's thesis, University of Massachusetts).
- Purpura, J. E. (2004). Assessing grammar. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rowntree, D. (1987). Assessing students : How shall we know them? (Rev. ed.). New York: K. Page; Nichols Pub. Co.

- Struyven, K., Dochy, F., & Janssens, S. (2005). Students' perceptions about evaluation and assessment in higher education: A review. Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 30(4), 325–341. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930500099102
- Udoukpong, Bassey, E., and Cecilia, O. (2012). Perception of formative evaluation practices and students' academic performance in junior secondary certificate examination in social studies. International Journal of Business and Social Science, 3(15).

# APPENDIX

## Students' Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ)

This questionnaire aims to explore your perceptions as an English Department student of the State Islamic University of Ar-Raniry. Please read the following statements carefully and tick the boxes with the item numbers that apply to your perspective (5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= neutral, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree).

Congruence with planned	1=	2=	3=	4=	5=
learning	strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
	disagree				agree
1. My assessment in grammar class tests					
what I memorize.					
2. My assessment in grammar class tests					
what I understand.					
3. My assignments are about what I have					
done in class.					
4. How I am assessed is similar to what I					
do in class.					
5. I am assessed on what the teacher has					
taught me.					
Authenticity6. I am asked to apply my learning to real					
life situations.					
7. My grammar class assessment tasks are					
useful for everyday life. 8. I find my grammar class tasks are relevant					
to what I do outside of class.					
9. Assessment in grammar class tests my ability					
to apply what I know to real-life problems.					
10. Assessment in grammar class examines my					
ability to answer everyday questions					
11. I can show others that my learning has					
helped me do things.					
neiped me do unings.					
Student Consultation					
12. In grammer along Lam along about the types					

12. In grammar class I am clear about the types of assessment being used.

13. I am aware how my assessment will be marked.
14. My teacher has explained to me how each
type of assessment is to be used.
15. I can have a say in how I will be assessed
in grammar class.
Transneveney
Transparency
16. I understand what is needed in all grammar
class tasks.
17. I am told in advance when I am being
assessed.
18. I am told in advance on what I am being
assessed.
19. I am clear about what my teacher wants in
my assessment tasks.
20. I know how a particular assessment task
will be marked.
Students Capabilities
21. I can complete the assessment tasks by
the given time.
22. I am given a choice of assessment tasks.
23. I am given assessment tasks that suit
my ability.
24. When I am confused about an assessment

task, I am given another way to answer it.

# THE EFFECT OF USING 3-2-1 STRATEGY ON STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION ACHIEVEMENT

Zhenita Deliany<sup>1</sup>, Erfan, Wiwiek Eko Bindarti University of Jember <sup>1</sup>zhe.deliany@gmail.com

Received: 16 April 2020

Accepted: 10 July 2020

### Abstract

Reading comprehension means the ability to know the meaning of the information provided in the reading text. This comprehension is influenced by various aspects. This research focused on the use of reading strategy as one of many aspects that affect reading comprehension. The researcher determined to investigate the effectiveness of the 3-2-1 strategy when employed in reading comprehension especially on narrative text. This research aimed at investigating the effect of using 3-2-1 strategy on students' reading comprehension achievement. The design of this research was a quasi-experimental research. The participants were the eighth grade students of junior high school. The result in the form of post-test scores was analysed by using Independence sample t-test in SPSS computing system. Based on the calculation of the data analysis, the significant value was 0.046 which was less than 0.05 (p<0.05). The result indicated that there was a significant difference. Therefore, it can be concluded that the 3-2-1 strategy gave a significant effect on the students' reading comprehension achievement.

Keywords: Metacognitive reading strategy, 3-2-1 strategy

## **INTRODUCTION**

Reading comprehension means the ability to know the meaning of the information provided in the reading text. To comprehend the text, the readers should understand about word meaning, sentence meaning, paragraph meaning, and also the text meaning. Zoghi, Mustapha, Rizan, and Maasum (2010) stated that reading comprehension is the process of unlocking meaning from connected text. It means that comprehension occurs when readers can successfully know what they are reading. The process in which readers can comprehend a text is complex (Gurning & Siregar, 2017; Zygouris-Coe, Wiggins & Smith, 2004). Readers should recognize various text genres and understand how to interact with the text. This complex process causes readers especially those who are struggling in reading fail to comprehend the text.

There are various aspects that affect reading comprehension. Those aspects are background knowledge, vocabulary, active reading skills, reading strategies, and critical thinking. This research focused on the use of reading strategy as one of many aspects that affect reading comprehension. This is in line with Alsamadani (2011) who said that the use of strategy affects reading comprehension positively. There are so many strategies that can be applied in reading; they can be divided into cognitive strategies such as skimming, scanning, reasoning, analysing and summarizing, and metacognitive strategies such as planning for learning, monitoring comprehension, evaluating learning achievement and assessing strategy use (Boghian, 2016; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012). This fact leads many researchers to determine a strategy to be used as an attempt to diminish the failure in reading comprehension.

The effectiveness of the 3-2-1 strategy appears to be interesting to investigate because according to Zygouris-Coe et al. (2004) it is an active and meaningful strategy that aids students' engagement and interaction with the text in order to construct their comprehension. Furthermore, it is a multi-strategy that involves more than one strategy (Alsamadani, 2011). It encompasses the occurrence of transactional literature discussion and includes monitoring comprehension strategies. Monitoring comprehension strategies include setting purpose for reading and previewing text (Mistar, Zuhairi & Yanti, 2016). Due to this, the 3-2-1 strategy may be good to be applied in classroom reading because it can help students to build their comprehension and active participation in reading.

The current study investigated the effect of using strategy in reading especially 3-2-1 strategy. The strategy was proposed by Zygouris-Coe et al. (2004). It could increase students' engagement and participation and also could lead them to get full understanding of the text and how to relate it to their prior knowledge. However, a research related to the use of 3-2-1 strategy at junior high school students has been under-explored. Dealing with the text genre, the application of 3-2-1 strategy in narrative reading had been conducted by one previous study. The strategy is also assumed to be more effective to conduct along with cooperative learning approach. Therefore, this current study was done further in relation to the use of 3-2-1 strategy at junior high school level which concerned in narrative text and cooperative learning approach as an attempt to fill the gap.

## **Reading comprehension**

Cognition is the ability to process information through perception. Brandimonte, Bruno, and Collina (2006) define cognition as not only a process, but a mental process. It allows individual to acquire knowledge through the information received from different sources. Cognitive process is the process of acquiring knowledge through thought, experiences and sense. It involves perception, attention, memory coding, thought and learning (Brandimonte et al., 2006). Reading as a cognitive process involves a cycle information processing. In reading, cognition is needed to understand written information to reach comprehension.

Reading is a complex process of understanding a text. This is in accordance with Pang, Muaka's, Bernhardt's, and Kamil's (2003) idea that within its complexity reading involves perception and thought. The complexity contains guessing, predicting, checking, and asking question to the readers themselves (Grellet, 1996). Zoghi et al. (2010) define reading as an interaction between reader and text. Readers should interact with the text since they should develop, modify and even reflect on all or some of the ideas displayed in the text (Anastasiou, & Griva, 2009). According to Lipson and Cooper (2002), to understand what we read is the aim of reading. While reading, readers are expected to understand the text well and make sense of what they read. When readers succeed in extracting ideas and obtaining information from reading text, reading comprehension is achieved. In other words, reading and comprehension are always related to each other. Therefore, an active interaction between the reader and the text is needed to construct comprehension about the text meaning.

## Types of reading comprehension aspects

There are some aspects related to reading comprehension. First, word comprehension, it deals with the understanding of word meaning from the text. Grellet (1996) stated that reading involves not only intellect, emotion, and prior knowledge but also word recognition. Word comprehension is the basic unit of reading comprehension that should be mastered by students in order to help them achieve reading comprehension. This comprehension is fully supported by the vocabulary that students have. The more vocabulary they have, the easier they comprehend the word.. Second, sentence comprehension, it deals with comprehending every word that is structured in a sentence and then understanding the whole sentence. A sentence has meaning and contains the writer's thought. However, it is necessary to deal with the structure and meaning of the sentences (Grellet, 1996).

Third, paragraph comprehension deals with understanding the meaning of a paragraph which consists of topic sentence, supporting details or supporting sentences and concluding sentence. Grellet (1996) stated that the structure of longer unit such as paragraph must be understood to make reading efficient. Students are required to understand a paragraph to find the topic idea in topic sentence, the explanation in supporting sentence and the summary of a paragraph in concluding sentence. Fourth, text comprehension is understanding the meaning from the whole text. Text comprehension is an essential part of both language and other subjects that students should understand its type well in order to have good results (Bartha & Ferenczi, 2009). When the readers have a good comprehension in the text, they will be able to know the whole topic of the text.

## 3-2-1 strategy

Teaching reading comprehension needs appropriate strategies. One of the strategies is 3-2-1 strategy. It refers to a strategy that assigns students to be critical by thinking independently and engage with the text (Zygouris-Coe et al., 2004). Alsamadani (2011) defines 3-2-1 strategy as a multi strategy that involves more than one strategy. It encompasses the occurrence of transactional literature discussion and includes monitoring comprehension strategies.

Transactional Literature Discussion (TLD) provides opportunity for integrated reading and talking session in which the interaction between the reader and the text happens (Dugan, 1997). TLD plays role on students' engagement in meaning making. TLD underlies on three theory; first, the theory of reader response which says that meaning constructed by readers when they response to a text and then reflect on their responses; second, the theory that literacy is best develops through social interaction and dialogue with others; third, TLD builds on evidence that reading and writing are reciprocal process (Dugan 1997). In classroom context, the interaction occurs between the teacher and the students, the students and other students and the students with the text.

Pitts (1983) says that comprehension monitoring is the ability to monitor and judges ones' understanding. It also involves taking monitoring (fix-up) strategies when necessary. Baker & Brown (1980) suggested a list of comprehension monitoring strategies such as: 1) identifying the important aspects of a message, 2) focusing attention on the major content and 3) engaging in self-questioning to determine whether goals are being achieved. Monitoring comprehension strategies are used in a process in which readers understand what they are reading. The three

mentioned strategies are embodied in the implementation of 3-2-1 strategy instruction and manifested in 3-2-1 chart.

As stated by Zygouris-Coe et al. (2004), 3-2-1 strategy is a strategy that requires students to summarize the text idea by using 3-2-1 chart while they read a text. Mistar et al. (2016) state that an effective reading strategy can help readers to be able to gain better comprehension. By making summary of the text idea students will be easier to understand the meaning of the text. Moreover, the 3-2-1 strategy has been proved to be effective in boosting reading comprehension (Alsamadani, 2011). Therefore, the 3-2-1 strategy was used in this research because it helped the readers to recall their understanding and construct their comprehension. The readers were provided by a 3-2-1 chart consisting of 3 things they discovered from the text, 2 interesting things they discovered from the text and 1 question they still have about the text.

## METHOD

This research was a quasi- experimental research with post-test only design. The aim of this research was to investigate whether or not there was a significant statistical difference in reading comprehension scores between the mean score of students who taught by using 3-2-1 strategy and those who did not. Based on the findings of the previous research on the effectiveness of 3-2-1 strategy in improving comprehension, the current study tested the following hypothesis: there is a significant effect of using 3-2-1 strategy on students' reading comprehension achievement. This research was conducted at SMP Negeri 5 Jember where teaching reading using 3-2-1 strategy has never been implemented. The population of this research was all the eighth grade students of SMP Negeri 5 Jember. The samples were selected by considering the result of homogeneity test. The total number of the participants in this research was 66 students; 28 in experimental group and 38 in control group. The data collected in this research was in the form of reading comprehension test, interview and documentation. The result of reading comprehension test was then analysed by using Independent t-test formula in SPSS computing system with 5% significant level.

# FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The researcher conducted a post-test to measure students' reading comprehension achievement after teaching the same material to both groups twice. The result of post test scores of experimental group was 77.14 and the control group was 71.05. This result indicated that there was a mean difference between the two groups. Then, to answer the research question, an Independent sample t-test was conducted to know whether there was a significant different or not.

The result of the Independent sample t-test showed that to = 2.036 with 0.046 significance value (Sig. 2-tailed), df = 64. The value of ttable (df = 64) was 1.669. It revealed that to> ttable (2.036>1.669) and the significance value 0.046 < 0.05 (p<0.05). The result proved that there was a significant mean difference between the two groups (experimental and control groups). The result indicated that the 3-2-1 strategy helped students achieved reading comprehension. According to Zygouris-Coe et al. (2004), teacher's role and students understanding constructed in reading are the key factors that affect students' comprehension. Therefore, this finding led to the idea about how the 3-2-1 strategy could be successful in assisting students' reading comprehension achievement.

The students filled the first element of the chart mostly by describing the personality or the appearance of the characters. The students analysed the characters and the setting of the story and then wrote the result of their analysis in the chart as their 3 discoveries from the text. By filling the first element, the students gained advantages in constructing early comprehension of the story because they had analysed the characters and the setting of the story. In line with Dymock (2007), in order to enhance story comprehension, students can be taught to analyse character, plot, theme and setting of the story. On the other hand, students faced difficulty on constructing sentences because they lack of vocabulary. Kusiska, Clarry and Urai (2014) acknowledged that the students they studied were lack of vocabulary and then suggested a directly or indirectly vocabulary teaching to the students. In this research, to solve the problem, the teacher guided the students by asking what they want to write and then giving suggestion of the sentences. In the group, there were also some students who tend to copy the other member's discoveries. Therefore, prompting was done by the teacher to the students who copied their friends' discoveries to check their comprehension, the result showed that the students were actually understand the story but they were less able in English writing so that they just copied their friend's discoveries. There were various responses on the second element of 3-2-1 chart from the students. This happened because as stated by Zygouris-Coe et al. (2004) there were endless possibilities for students sharing what interested them in the text. In this research, the responses were mostly dominated by the problem happened in the text and the moral value of the text. The students looked at the complication part of the story and then identified the problems that happened to the characters of the story. They inferred the moral value of the story by understanding the whole story. The students' different responses were brought out to the discussion session by the teacher. The teacher facilitated the discussion by collecting those perceptions and discussed it to make conclusion. The students were benefited by knowing what appealed to be interesting by their friends and realize that it helped them to get deeper understanding of the story. Zygouris-Coe et al. (2004) stated that the discussion within the use of 3-2-1 strategy motivates students as it is based on their ideas they found, addressed, and brought to class.

The last element of the chart requires students to generate a question which can help to establish their comprehension. There were three findings about students-generated question. First, the students generated a question about something that the answer needed to be inferred from the text. This kind of question was called as comprehensive question; it needed interpretation of statements (Miciano, 2004). Second, the students generated a question that the answer was explicitly stated in the text. This kind of question called as recall question. Miciano (2004) explained that the students prefer to generate recall questions because they are easier to form. Third, the students did not generate any questions. The students faced difficulties in generating question because there might be some factors that affect it so that the question part was left blank. The factors could be, in Miciano (2004), the students skills, level, and responsibility for learning. In this research, the level of the students indicated the difficulties that students faced in generating question. Besides, the students showed improvement in generating question in the second meeting although the sentence still grammatically incorrect.

In contrast to the control group, after asking the students to discuss the text within group, the researcher conduct question and answer session by asking them the content of the story followed by finding unfamiliar words. The question answer strategy which was usually taught in the teaching and learning process was no longer interesting for the students. Therefore, it made the students less engaged. At the end of the question and answer session, the students were asked to do the reading comprehension test. Therefore, there was no pause occur to construct understanding before completing the reading comprehension exercise.

# CONCLUSION

Based on the data analysis, hypothesis verification, and discussion in the previous chapter, it can be concluded that there is a significant effect of using 3-2-1 Strategy on the eighth grade students' reading comprehension achievement at SMP Negeri 5 Jember. The result of this research, hopefully, may be used as a consideration to teach reading comprehension by using 3-2-1 strategy because it was proved to be effective strategy. This strategy helps students to become active and meaningful reader. It is also suggested to be taught along with vocabulary teaching directly or indirectly. The English teachers are suggested to apply this strategy in their teaching and learning process of English.

The strategy helps students to become engaged with the text and activate their metacognition ability. This strategy is also flexible to help them facilitate their reading by generating their own chart. Therefore, the students are suggested to apply this strategy in their reading activity. Finally, the findings of this research can be used as the information or reference to conduct a further research dealing with similar problems by using different research design or the same research design with different text genre and different level of subjects and schools. Future researchers are suggested to conduct a classroom action research to know whether the use of 3-2-1 strategy can improve students' reading comprehension achievement.

Although this research has reached its aim, there were some unavoidable limitations and shortcomings. First, the research was conducted in two eighth grade classes which have lasted after two times of treatment. Conducting the treatment twice was not enough for the researcher to observe the students' reading achievement. It would be better if it was done in a longer time. Second, since the students were all the eighth grade students with a limitation in vocabulary, there was a difficulty to fill 3-2-1 chart using their own words. It would be better to teach vocabulary to help students filling the chart in their own words. Third, students were not quite capable to write grammatically correct sentences. There were some grammatical errors in their 3-2-1 chart. Therefore, teaching grammar is also needed to enable students to fill the chart using grammatically correct sentences.

## REFERENCES

- Alsamadani, H. (2011). The effects of the 3-2-1 reading strategy on EFL reading comprehension. English Language Teaching, 4(3), 184-191.
- Anastasiou, D., & Griva, E. (2009). Awareness of reading strategy use and reading comprehension among poor and good readers. Elementary Education Online, 8(2), 283-297.
- Baker, L., & Brown, A. L. (1980). Metacognitive skills and reading. Technical report No. 188. Published by Bolt, Beranek and Newman, Inc., Cambridge, Mass.
- Bartha, K., & Ferenczi, R. F. (2009). Text comprehension learning styles school performance. Acta Didactica Napocensia, Vol. 2(4), 1-16.
- Boghian, I. (2016). Metacognitive learning strategies in teaching English as a foreign language. Journal of Innovation in Psychology, Education and Didactics, 20(1), 53–62.
- Brandimonte, M., Bruno, N., & Collina, S. (2006). Cognition. Psychological concepts: An international historical perspective. UK: Psychology Press.
- Dugan, J. (1997). Transactional literature discussions: engaging students in the appreciation and understanding of literature. The Reading Teacher, 51(2), 86-96.
- Dymock, S. (2007). Comprehension strategy instruction: teaching narrative text structure awareness. The Reading Teacher, 61(2), 161-167.
- Grellet, F. (1996). Developing reading skill. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Gurning, B., & Siregar, A. (2017). The effect of teaching strategies and curiosity on students' achievement in reading comprehension. English Language Teaching, 10(11), 191-198.
- Kusiska, R., Clarry, S., & Urai, S. (2014). Using 3-2-1 strategy in reading comprehension to improve students' involvement in active learning. Jurnal Pendidikan dan Pembelajaran, 3(10), 1-14.
- Lipson, M. Y., & Cooper, J. D. (2002). Understanding and supporting comprehension development in the elementary and middle grades. Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Madhumathi, P., & Ghosh, A. (2012). Awareness of reading strategy use of Indian ESL students and the relationship with reading comprehension achievement. English Language Teaching, 5(12), 131-140.
- Miciano, R. Z. (2004). The content and form of reader-generated questions: implications for teaching questioning strategies. Asia Pacific Education Review, 5(2), 149-156.
- Mistar, J., Zuhairi, A., & Yanti, N. (2016). Strategies training in the teaching of reading comprehension for EFL learners in Indonesia. English Language Teaching, 9(2).
- Pang, E. S., Muaka, A., Bernhardt, E. B., & Kamil, M. L. (2003). Teaching reading. Educational Practices Series.
- Pitts, M, M. (1983). Comprehension monitoring: definition and practice. Journal of Reading, 26(6), 516-523.
- Zoghi, M., Mustapha, R., Rizan, Tg. N, & Maasum, Tg. M. (2010). Looking into EFL reading comprehension. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 7, 439-445.
- Zygouris-Coe, V., Wiggins, M., & Smith, L. (2004). Engaging students with text: The 3-2-1 strategy. The Reading Teacher, 58(4), 381-384.





Published by: ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND HUMANITIES UNIVERSITAS KRISTEN DUTA WACANA

Jl. dr. Wahidin Sudirohusodo 5-25 Yogyakarta 55224 Telp. 0274-563929 ext. 143 www.ukdw.ac.id

