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language learning. Thirdly, we can ask just what are the problems of learning vocabulary and attempt to discover any implications for the organization of language teaching. The latter two points are discussed in Sections 4.2 and 4.3. We can now return briefly to the first.

The belief that vocabulary acquisition can be delayed until a substantial proportion of the grammatical system has been learned is tenable only where the learner is not likely to have a pressing social need to use the language. The obvious fact is that to communicate at all seriously and adequately through the language a command of both grammar and vocabulary is necessary. Most writing on language teaching has a faintly polemical tone and in recent years has tended to emphasize grammar as a corrective to the idea that simply by building up a large vocabulary in a foreign language one will be able to use it. Experience shows that to learn numbers of words without learning to construct sentences is of little practical value. Not enough attention has been paid to the converse view—that there is not much value either in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say. One is literally 'at a loss for words'.

To delay the teaching of an extensive vocabulary will not prove a serious defect as long as the aims of a course are to give a practical mastery of language *in the long term*. Any temporary imbalance between grammar and vocabulary may very well correct itself with time. Where language learning is done in full-time educational establishments—in schools for example—not only will there be no necessity for the pupil to use the language in social intercourse, there will often not even be any opportunity for him to do so. It is at least arguable that foreign language teaching need not aim to produce practical communication skill from the beginning, and that a vocabulary extensive enough for varied communication can be the target of later stages. A skilled user of the language would be the desired product of such a course, but his ability to communicate would not really develop until he approached the end of his course.

A methodology evolved with such a situation in mind—and it is possibly the most common language learning situation—must not be taken over and applied to situations which are critically different. It is easy to conceive other situations in which the learner will earnestly desire to put whatever he learns to immediate social use. He may hope in the long term to become a skilful user of the language, but he has a short term need for the language which cannot be subordinated to this. Anyone emigrating to a new speech

community finds himself in just this position. However important it may be for him eventually to master the grammatical system, it is even more important that he should be able to communicate with those people with whom his daily life brings him into contact. He will have needs that can only be met by use of language and those needs will be there from the moment he arrives. He cannot be an effective member of his new community, and consequently will not be accepted by it, if he has no means of contact with it. The language to be learned by him must therefore have immediate practical value.

Slightly different from this case is the learner who has no long term aims at all. He is not concerned whether he can ever have a wide grasp of grammatical structure, nor whether he can range over a varied set of topics. He may need language for a clearly limited set of situations, and possibly even may expect to use it only over a limited period of time. He will certainly never hope to be mistaken for a native speaker, nor even to approach such skill. The acceptability of his speech to the native speaker may be less important than his ability to convey his social needs.

In either of these cases we could not accept that vocabulary would be initially less important than grammar. The fact is that while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. What we normally think of as 'vocabulary items'—nouns, verbs and adjectives—do indeed contain more information<sup>1</sup> than is carried by grammatical elements. Telegrams often consist of no more than a sequence of lexical items with no grammatical information other than order of words, and yet we have no difficulty in understanding them, any more than we do ungrammatical headlines and advertisements. Communicating in a foreign language is not so very different. Provided one knows the appropriate vocabulary, then some form of interchange of language is possible. Without the vocabulary it is impossible. Admittedly this can be no more than a very rudimentary form of communication, which is restricted in what it can achieve and which depends on the willingness of the native speaker to make allowance for grammatical errors. However, it is more than could be achieved with a mastery of grammatical structure and only a partial knowledge of the vocabulary needed.

If we were to take the conventional organization of language teaching, with its early concentration on the step-by-step introduction of grammatical structures, realized through a vocabulary chosen

<sup>1</sup> The word *information* has a technical sense which I am using here without definition, since this would not be relevant to the discussion.

# Assessing Speaking

Sari Luoma

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Table 4.10 (cont.)

	grammatical choice – sometimes with circumlocutions and often with midway switch of formulation.
3	Speakers usually understand the interlocutor. They seem more aware of the proposition, and spend time planning this. Appropriacy of word choice becomes more important, and pausing will occur in making these choices, with some appealing to the interlocutor. Utterances tend to be more expanded. Back-channelling – using <i>hm</i> or <i>yeah</i> – helps to make conversation more natural.
4	Misunderstandings are rare. Speakers use hedges to express lack of certainty in the propositions. Few single-word utterances are given, and speakers expand their utterances, e.g. providing back-ups to opinions. Time is spent planning the content of the proposition and how exactly to express themselves and present their views. Reformulations occur when the speaker is not satisfied with the proposition or the correctness of the formulation.
5	Speakers demonstrate more confidence and are less likely to express propositional uncertainty. They rarely pause for reasons of grammar or word choice. Reformulations occur mainly for reasons of expressing proposition fully. They expand and support themselves. They respond very quickly.

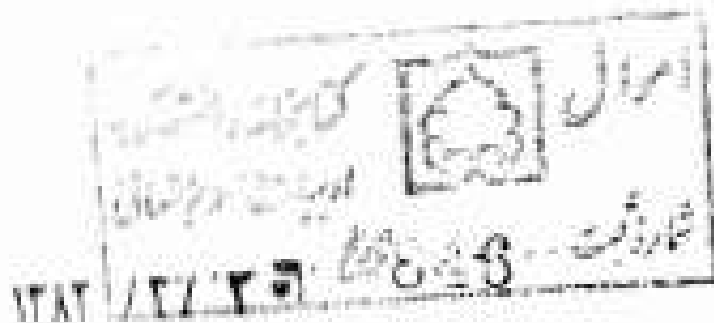
Fluency is a thorny issue in assessing speaking. This is partly because the word 'fluency' has a general meaning, as in 'she is fluent in five languages', and a technical meaning when applied linguists use it to characterise a learner's speech. However, even in technical terminology, fluency can be used in a range of senses. The narrowest definitions only include a few features, typically pausing, hesitations and speech rate, whereas the broadest uses are virtually synonymous with 'speaking proficiency'. Unless the term is defined explicitly, it is simply not clear what a speaker or a writer means by it (Freed, 1995; Fulcher, 1996). Esser (1995), for example, found that when no verbal description of fluency was given to raters, they tended to disagree with each other about both the definitions they gave to it and the way they rated it when they were asked to pick the more fluent of a set of pairs of speech samples.

**Definitions of fluency often include references to flow or smoothness, rate of speech, absence of excessive pausing, absence of disturbing hesitation markers, length of utterances, and connectedness (Koponen, 1995).** These characterisations are complex, however, because they are not simply descriptions of a speaker's speech but also of a listener's perception of it. To illustrate this, in the phrase 'excessive pausing', the pausing is a feature of a learner's speech, while the excessiveness is based on a listener's judgement.

# Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom

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You might like to pause at this point and consider the similarities and differences between the three definitions which have been offered here. You might also like to think about which definition is most useful and meaningful for you.

The definitions we have looked at share one thing in common: they all imply that tasks involve communicative language use in which the user's attention is focused on meaning rather than linguistic structure. This is evident in the examples provided. Long mentions filling out a form, making an airline reservation, taking a driving test, etc. Richards *et al.* refer to drawing a map, listening to instructions and carrying out a command. Breen talks about problem solving and decision making (although his definition does allow for 'brief exercise types' which might conceivably include non-communicative tasks).

In general, I too will consider the communicative task as *a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form*. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.

As we explore the development of tasks, we shall see that it is not always easy to draw a hard and fast distinction between 'communicative' and 'non-communicative' tasks. There are several reasons for this, not the least of which is the fact that meaning and form are closely interrelated. We use different grammatical forms to signal differences of meaning. In fact, good oral grammar exercises can and should be both meaningful and communicative.

### *What are the components of a task?*

I shall want to suggest that, in analytic terms, tasks will contain some form of input data which might be verbal (for example a dialogue or reading passage) or non-verbal (for example a picture sequence) and an activity which is in some way derived from the input and which sets out what the learners are to do in relation to the input. The task will also have (implicitly or explicitly) a goal and roles for teachers and learners. In synthetic terms, we shall find, lessons and units of work will consist, among other things, of sequences of tasks, and the coherence of such lessons or units will depend on the extent to which the tasks have been integrated and sequenced in some principled way.

## Assessing speaking performance – Level B1

B1	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms, and attempts some complex grammatical forms.</li> <li>Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar topics.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation.</li> <li>Contributions are relevant despite some repetition.</li> <li>Uses a range of cohesive devices.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Is intelligible.</li> <li>Intonation is generally appropriate.</li> <li>Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed.</li> <li>Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Initiates and responds appropriately.</li> <li>Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.</li> </ul>
4	<i>Performance shares features of Bands 3 and 5.</i>			
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms.</li> <li>Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about familiar topics.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation.</li> <li>Contributions are mostly relevant, but there may be some repetition.</li> <li>Uses basic cohesive devices.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Initiates and responds appropriately.</li> <li>Keeps the interaction going with very little prompting and support.</li> </ul>
2	<i>Performance shares features of Bands 1 and 3.</i>			
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Shows sufficient control of simple grammatical forms.</li> <li>Uses a limited range of appropriate vocabulary to talk about familiar topics.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Produces responses which are characterised by short phrases and frequent hesitation.</li> <li>Repeats information or digresses from the topic.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Maintains simple exchanges, despite some difficulty.</li> <li>Requires prompting and support.</li> </ul>
0	<i>Performance below Band 1.</i>			

**Ahmad kurnia, SPd,MM**

# **METODOLOGI RISET**

**Dari Teori Ke Aplikasi**



**RECONIASCRIPT SELF-PUBLISHING**

### 3. Tokoh/Ahli

Alat pengumpulan data bisa berasal dari tokoh, ahli bahasa, sejarawan yang anda temukan dalam kegiatan seminar, simposium, workshop bahasa, kajian bahasa.

### 4. Jurnal Penelitian

Selain bisa diambil dari beberapa jurnal bahasa asing di beberapa kampus baik yang masih lokal, nasional maupun jurnal internasional yang bisa membantu anda untuk melengkapi referensi ilmiah penelitian. Selain berupa proceeding seminar, ontology penelitian.

### 6. Korespondensi

Anda membutuhkan seorang kontributor dari luar yang bisa membantu untuk membantu dalam mendapatkan data melalui kegiatan korespondensi.

## E. INSTRUMENT PENELITIAN

Instrumen penelitian adalah alat untuk mengukur variabel penelitian. Untuk penelitian kualitatif, instrumen yang digunakan berupa questionare atau angket. Skala yang digunakan bisa salah satu dari keempat skala diatas atau kombinasi beberapa skala tergantung pada apa yang akan diukur.

Instrumen pengumpulan data adalah alat bantu yang dipilih dan digunakan oleh peneliti dalam kegiatannya mengumpulkan agar kegiatan tersebut menjadi sistematis dan dipermudah olehnya.

Instrumen penelitian" yang diartikan sebagai "alat bantu" merupakan saran yang dapat diwujudkan dalam benda, misalnya angket (*questionnaire*), daftar cocok (*checklist*) atau pedoman wawancara (*interview guide* atau *interview schedule*), lembar pengamatan atau panduan pengamatan (*observation sheet* atau *observation schedule*) soal tes (yang kadang-kadang hanya disebut dengan "ter" saja, inventors (*invertory*), skala (*scale*), dan lain sebagainya.



## Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

By [Saul McLeod](#), published May 21, 2018

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Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory in psychology comprising a five-tier model of human needs, often depicted as hierarchical levels within a pyramid.

Needs lower down in the hierarchy must be satisfied before individuals can attend to needs higher up. From the bottom of the hierarchy upwards, the needs are: physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem and self-actualization.



***Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a self-determination theory perspective:  
Definitions, theory, practices, and future directions***

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**Abstract**

*Self-determination theory (SDT) is a broad framework for understanding factors that facilitate or undermine intrinsic motivation, autonomous extrinsic motivation, and psychological wellness, all issues of direct relevance to educational settings. We review research from SDT showing that both intrinsic motivation and well-internalized (and thus autonomous) forms of extrinsic motivation predict an array of positive outcomes across varied educational levels and cultural contexts and are enhanced by supports for students' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Findings also show a dynamic link between teacher and student motivation, as teachers are themselves impacted and constrained by controlling mandates, institutional pressures, and leadership styles. Ironically, despite substantial evidence for the importance of psychological need satisfactions in learning contexts, many current educational policies and practices around the globe remain anchored in traditional motivational models that fail to support students' and teachers' needs, a knowledge versus policy gap we should aspire to close.*

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**Introduction**

Twenty years ago, in a special issue of *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, we reviewed definitions and research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000), which at that time was still an emerging field of study. In the two decades since, the field has rapidly matured and much has been learned about these two major types of motivation, especially within the framework of self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2017), a broad theory of human development and wellness, with strong implications for education. SDT has been part of a "Copernican turn" in the field, as unlike behavioristic approaches, which attempt to shape and control motivation from the outside, SDT places its emphasis on people's inherent motivational propensities for learning and growing, and how they can be supported. In this brief review of SDT, we discuss the current status of the theory, its methods, its practical utility, and its future directions both as a framework for basic sciences in motivation, and as an evidence base for 21st century educational policies and practice.

SDT research began with a focus on intrinsic motivation, which is a prototypical expression of the active integrative tendencies in human nature assumed by SDT. **Technically intrinsic motivation pertains to activities done “for their own sake,” or for their inherent interest and enjoyment (Deci & Ryan, 2000).** Play, exploration and curiosity- spawned activities exemplify intrinsically motivated behaviors, as they are not dependent on external incentives or pressure, but rather provide their own satisfactions and joys. Although “fun,” such inherent propensities toward interested engagement and mastery are also serious organismic business; intrinsic motivation is likely responsible for the preponderance of human learning across the life span, as opposed to externally mandated learning and instruction (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The benefits of intrinsic motivation are also obvious within formal education. For example, a meta-analysis by Taylor et al. (2014) pointed to a significant role of intrinsic motivation in school achievement. Taylor et al. followed this meta-analysis with additional studies of high school and college students in Canada and Sweden, showing that intrinsic motivation was consistently associated with higher performance, controlling for baseline achievement. Froiland and Worrell (2016) convergently showed that intrinsic motivation predicted student engagement, which, in turn, predicted higher achievement (GPA), results that remained consistent when limiting analyses to African American and Latino students.

Despite such findings attesting to the importance of intrinsic motivation, research from multiple countries suggests that it tends to decline over the school years—at least for school-related activities (e.g., Lepper, Corpus, & Iyengar, 2005; Gillet, Vallerand, & Lafreniere, 2012; Gottfried, Marcoulides, Gottfried, Oliver, & Guerin, 2007; Scherrer & Preckel, 2019). This suggests to us that schools are not creating the need-supportive contexts that foster this inner resource, an interpretation supported by Gnambs & Hanfstingl, 2016 analysis showing that declines in intrinsic motivation are associated with decreasing psychological need satisfaction.

### *Extrinsic motivation*

Often contrasted with intrinsic motivation is the heterogeneous category of extrinsic motivation, which concerns behaviors done for reasons other than their inherent satisfactions. From an SDT view the contrast is not a simple one, because instrumental motivations can vary widely in content and character. Accordingly, SDT has long specified four major subtypes of extrinsic motivation, illustrated in Figure 1. External regulation concerns behaviors driven by externally imposed re- wards and punishments and is a form of motivation typically experienced as controlled and non-autonomous. Introjected regulation concerns extrinsic motivation that has been partially internalized; behavior is regulated by the internal rewards of self-esteem for success and by avoidance of anxiety, shame, or guilt for failure. In academic activities introjected regulation often takes the form of ego-involvement (Ryan, 1982) in which self-esteem is contingent on outcomes, resulting in “internally controlled” regulation.

Whereas both external regulation and introjection represent con- trolled forms of motivation, extrinsic motivation can also be autonomously enacted. In identified regulation, the person consciously identifies with, or personally endorses, the value of an activity, and thus experiences a relatively high degree of volition or willingness to act. Yet the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation in which the person not only recognizes and

# GIFTED UNDERACHIVER: ANALISIS SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

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**Abstrak:** *Gifted Underachiever* merupakan kondisi peserta didik yang mengalami kesenjangan antara potensi akademik tinggi yang dimiliki dan capaian akademik rendah yang dicapai di sekolah. Ada beberapa faktor penyebab terjadinya kasus *underachiever* baik dari lingkungan sekolah dan keluarga. Faktor penyebab ini berasal secara internal maupun eksternal. *Self-determination theory* merupakan teori besar yang membahas tentang motivasi intrinsik individu. Dalam pandangan *self-determination theory*, ada tiga kebutuhan yang jika terpenuhi maka akan dapat membentuk motivasi intrinsik yang tinggi. Tiga kebutuhan itu adalah kemandirian (*autonomy*), kompetensi (*competency*) dan keterhubungan (*relatedness*). Tinjauan teoritis ini diharapkan akan mampu menjelaskan tentang fenomena siswa *gifted underachiever* beserta faktor penyebabnya dengan menggunakan teori determinasi diri. Selain itu diharapkan akan membantu memahami perlakuan yang tepat pada anak *gifted* untuk memiliki motivasi intrinsik sehingga dapat mencegah terjadinya *underachiever* maupun memulihkan siswa *gifted* dari kondisi yang *underachiever*.

**Keywords:** *gifted underachiever, self determination theory, motivasi intrinsik.*

## 1. Pendahuluan

Tidak ada seorangpun yang sempurna tanpa masalah, bukan hanya orang dewasa saja, tapi juga remaja maupun anak-anak. Di sekolah, peserta didik ada yang mempunyai prestasi tinggi tapi sebagian juga ada yang mempunyai prestasi rendah (*underachiever*). Prestasi rendah (*underachievement*) menurut Mandel dan Marcus (2009), merupakan masalah umum anak-anak di sekolah dan telah banyak studi yang menawarkan tentang solusi untuk mengatasinya akan tetapi masalah *underachievement* selalu ada. Siswa yang mempunyai potensi istimewa tentu diharapkan akan mampu bukan saja melampaui pembelajaran biasa tapi juga lebih unggul jika dibandingkan dengan teman yang sebaya dengannya, namun ketika ini tak tercapai maka akan menjadi sumber frustrasi bagi orangtua, guru dan tentu saja bagi siswa itu sendiri (Winton, 2013). *Underachievement* pada siswa berbakat (*gifted*) merupakan salah satu resiko yang akan dihadapi oleh anak berbakat. Banyak siswa berbakat yang menunjukkan hasil tes yang bagus namun gagal dalam menyelesaikan tugas maupun bermasalah dalam kehadirannya di sekolah ataupun partisipasinya yang rendah di kelas, hal ini menunjukkan adanya ketiadaan perhatian akan proses pendidikan yang dijalani. Prestasi belajar rendah yang dialami oleh anak berbakat sedikit banyak akan membawa dampak negatif pada siswa tersebut maupun pada orang-orang di dalam lingkungannya. Problem prestasi rendah pada anak-anak yang mempunyai kecerdasan yang tinggi merupakan problem dalam dunia pendidikan yang perlu mendapat perhatian.

Pengertian *Underachiever* menurut Reich dan McCosch (2000), adalah siswa yang menunjukkan adanya kesenjangan yang parah antara prestasi yang diharapkan (berdasarkan tes terstandar atau pengukuran kecerdasan lainnya) dan prestasi yang sesungguhnya (didasarkan pada nilai yang diraih maupun penilaian guru). Baum, Renzulli dan Hebert (1995) mendefinisikan *underachiever* sebagai siswa yang menunjukkan kemampuan tinggi



Senada dengan Sousa (2003) yang berdasarkan pengamatannya, *underachiever* disebabkan adanya kombinasi berbagai faktor di sekolah dan di rumah. Ryan (2013) mengidentifikasi dua alasan penting terjadinya *underachievement* pada siswa; (1) ketidaksesuaian pemahaman akan bagaimana memilah, menyesuaikan dan mengamati berbagai strategi belajar; dan (2) ketidakcukupan motivasi untuk secara aktif pemahaman yang mereka miliki.

(Reis dan McCoach, 2000, Sousa 2003, dan Gallagher 1991) menyatakan bahwa kurangnya motivasi yang ada pada siswa mulai dari sekolah dasar hingga perguruan tinggi sebagai penyebab *underachievement*. Lebih jauh mereka menyatakan bahwa kurangnya motivasi dari guru maupun orangtua dapat menjadi penyebab negatif pada prestasi anak.

Secara umum dapat disimpulkan bahwa penyebab terjadinya *underachiever* pada anak sekolah menurut Ogbornia (2009) karena: (1) motivasi rendah, (2) pengaruh orangtua/sekolah, (3) kurangnya pemeliharaan potensi intelektual, (4) konflik nilai, (6) disabilitas/kondisi kesehatan yang buruk.

### 3.3. *Self Determination Theory*

*Self determination theory* (SDT), merupakan suatu pendekatan terhadap motivasi dan kepribadian manusia yang menyoroti pentingnya sumber daya batin manusia untuk pengembangan kepribadian perilaku regulasi diri (Ryan dan Deci, 2000). Secara harfiah *self determination* dapat diartikan sebagai determinasi diri. Yang dapat dimaknai sebagai suatu keteguhan hati untuk menentukan nasibnya sendiri dapat juga dimaknai sebagai tidak pasrah dalam keadaan yang tidak memungkinkan sehingga berani dalam mengambil keputusan maupun tindakan selanjutnya (Otong, 2009). Selain itu dapat dimaknai juga sebagai tindakan seseorang yang difokuskan pada pilihan yang dibuat secara bebas tanpa adanya intervensi dari eksternal (Ryan dan Deci, 2000). Teori tentang *self-determination* ini juga dapat dipahami bahwa motivasi internal dapat tercapai melalui pemenuhan kebutuhan dasar individu yang terdiri dari kemandirian (*autonomy*), kompetensi (*competence*), serta keterkaitan (*relatedness*). Determinasi diri ini dipengaruhi oleh dua hal yaitu kontrol dan informasi. Kontrol dapat berupa pernyataan dan derajat tingginya pernyataan orang lain yang mengontrol akan menurunkan determinasi diri seseorang. Informasi menunjukkan adanya kompetensi pada diri seseorang akan meningkatkan motivasi intrinsik namun jika informasi menunjukkan kompetensi rendah maka akan menurunkan motivasi untuk mandiri maupun determinasi dirinya.

*Self Determination Theory* (SDT) merupakan suatu teori makro meliputi enam teori kecil yaitu: pertama, *cognitive evaluation theory*, yang menjelaskan sekumpulan fenomena yang berhubungan dengan motivasi intrinsik serta kondisi konteks sosialnya yang dapat merusak, mempertahankan atau bahkan meningkatkannya. Kedua, *organismic integration theory*, menjelaskan mengenai fenomena internalisasi dan integrasi motivasi ekstrinsik. Ketiga, *causality orientations theory*, teori yang secara umum menggambarkan tentang perbedaan individu dalam mengarahkan motivasi yang ditujukan pada lingkungan dan mengatur perilakunya sesuai dengan arah motivasi yang ada. Keempat, *basic psychological needs theory*, menekankan tentang sifat dari kebutuhan psikologis dan hubungannya dengan kesehatan psikologis dan kesejahteraan (*well-being*). Kelima, *goal content theory*, teori yang menekankan pada *life goal* dan gaya hidup serta dimulai dengan perbedaan antara *life goal* intrinsik seperti perkembangan pribadi dengan cita-cita ekstrinsik. Keenam, *relationships motivation theory*, teori yang menekankan pada interaksi sosial dan proses tentang sejauh mana kualitas suatu hubungan dekat.

## Faktor Motivasi dalam Mendorong Keberhasilan Belajar Siswa di SMA Negeri 4 Kota Jambi

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### Abstract

Learning motivation is very important because it affects the success of students' learning. A person who lacks motivation to learn may not be able to do learning activities well. Everyone has a purpose in carrying out an activity. The level of motivation is always used as an indicator of the good and bad academic performance of the student. The purpose of this study is to find out how the motivational factor in encouraging student learning success at SMA Negeri 4 Jambi City. This type of research is quantitative using a descriptive method, the number of students sampled in this study was 72 students using purposive sampling techniques. The data collection tool used is a questionnaire instrument. The results of this study show that the motivational factor in encouraging student learning success is in the high category with a percentage of 79.33%. The results of this study are expected to provide assistance to BK teachers in developing motivation in student learning so that students have a higher learning success rate and this research can be a reference in providing services that are in accordance with student needs.

**Keywords:** Motivation, Learning Success

### Abstrak

Motivasi belajar sangat penting karena mempengaruhi keberhasilan belajar siswa. Seseorang yang kurang motivasi belajar mungkin tidak dapat melakukan kegiatan belajar dengan baik. Setiap orang memiliki tujuan dalam melakukan suatu kegiatan. Tingkat motivasi selalu dijadikan indikator baik buruknya prestasi akademik siswa tersebut. Tujuan dalam penelitian ini yakni untuk mengetahui bagaimana faktor motivasi dalam mendorong keberhasilan belajar siswa di SMA Negeri 4 Kota Jambi. Jenis penelitian ini adalah kuantitatif dengan menggunakan metode deskriptif, jumlah siswa yang menjadi sampel dalam penelitian ini yakni 72 orang siswa dengan menggunakan teknik *purposif sampling*. Alat pengumpulan data yang digunakan adalah instrumen angket. Hasil dari penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa faktor motivasi dalam mendorong keberhasilan belajar siswa berada pada kategori tinggi dengan persentase 79,33%. Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan dapat memberikan bantuan kepada guru BK dalam mengembangkan motivasi dalam belajar siswa sehingga siswa memiliki tingkat keberhasilan belajar yang lebih tinggi serta penelitian ini bisa menjadi referensi dalam pemberian layanan yang sesuai dengan kebutuhan siswa.

**Kata Kunci:** Motivasi, Keberhasilan Belajar

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## PENDAHULUAN

Belajar merupakan sebuah usaha menuju sukses. Dengan belajar seseorang dapat mengetahui banyak hal. Setiap manusia dimanapun tentu melakukan kegiatan belajar mengajar. Seorang siswa yang ingin mencapai cita-citanya tentu harus belajar dengan giat. Belajar merupakan kebutuhan bagi setiap orang. Melalui belajar seseorang akan memiliki bekal pengetahuan, sikap dan keterampilan. Seseorang akan mengalami berbagai perubahan dalam proses belajarnya. Perubahan-perubahan itu merupakan hasil belajar yang dapat diketahui dari prestasi belajar siswa.

Hal serupa juga disampaikan Yuberti (2014: 3) belajar adalah suatu aktivitas mental (psikis) yang berlangsung dalam interaksi dengan lingkungannya yang menghasilkan perubahan yang bersifat relatif konstan. Belajar adalah sebuah proses kegiatan atau aktivitas yang dilakukan oleh individu untuk memperoleh sebuah perubahan.

Hasil belajar merupakan unsur penting pendidikan yang digunakan untuk mengukur proses belajar mengajar, karena hasil belajar dapat membantu untuk merangsang siswa agar lebih giat belajar. Hasil belajar yang tinggi merupakan harapan bagi semua orang, terutama bagi siswa, guru, orang tua, dan sekolah. Jadi hasil belajar merupakan segala aspek dalam mencapai suatu tujuan kegiatan pembelajaran yang dilakukan oleh siswa pada saat di sekolah agar memperoleh hasil belajar yang maksimal.

Keberhasilan proses pembelajaran sebagai proses pendidikan di suatu sekolah dipengaruhi oleh banyak faktor. Faktor-faktor yang dimaksud misalnya guru, siswa, kurikulum, lingkungan sosial, dan lain-lain. Namun dari faktor-faktor itu, guru dan siswa faktor terpenting. Pentingnya faktor guru dan siswa tersebut dapat diukur melalui pemahaman hakikat pembelajaran, yakni sebagai usaha dasar guru untuk membantu siswa agar dapat belajar sesuai dengan kebutuhan minatnya.

Menurut Mardianto (2012 :49) faktor yang mempengaruhi keberhasilan belajar sebagai berikut, faktor non sosial, faktor sosial, faktor fisiologis, faktor psikologis. Menurut purwanto dalam Setiawan (2017: 10) faktor yang mempengaruhi keberhasilan belajar adalah faktor yang ada pada diri organisme itu sendiri yang kita sebut faktor individual mencakup kematangan/pertumbuhan, kecerdasan, latihan, motivasi dan faktor pribadi. Faktor yang ada di luar individu yang kita sebut faktor sosial yang mencakup keluarga/keadaan rumah tangga, guru, cara mengajar, media, lingkungan, kesempatan dan motivasi sosial.

Peran orang tua dalam mendukung pembelajaran anak di rumah menjadi sangat penting, bukan hanya bagi kepentingan lembaga pendidikan anak usia dini namun juga pada orang tua peserta didik tentunya. Meskipun proses pembelajaran daring dilaksanakan hanya melalui online dan terbatas, namun antusias orang tua peserta didik sangat besar dalam mendorong anak-anak mereka turut berpartisipasi dalam kegiatan pembelajaran. Para orang tua begitu bersemangat membantu tahap demi tahap disetiap kegiatan pembelajaran daring, dengan membimbing maupun memotivasi anak-anak mereka meskipun sebagian besar orang tua juga disibukkan dengan rutinitas pekerjaan harian.

Selain peran orang tua teman juga berpengaruh dalam proses belajar peserta didik. Dalam proses belajar siswa tidak hanya berinteraksi dengan guru saja, melainkan dengan teman juga. Dengan adanya interaksi yang terbentuk akan mengajarkan peserta didik untuk saling bekerja sama, persaingan, pertentangan, serta sifat saling menghargai antar sesama. Dengan hal itu teman sebaya memiliki peran dalam hasil belajar siswa.

Sekolah juga sangat berperan dalam proses keberhasilan belajar, pemilihan kurikulum, keadaan lingkungan sekolah, motivasi, guru dan banyak hal lainnya. Guru sebagai unsur pokok penanggung jawab terhadap pelaksanaan dan pengembangan proses pembelajaran, diharapkan dapat

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## ■ What Is Motivation?

(pp. 350–352)

**Define motivation.** Motivation is an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior. The study of motivation focuses on how and why people initiate actions directed toward specific goals, how intensively they are involved in the activity, how persistent they are in their attempts to reach these goals, and what they are thinking and feeling along the way.

**What is the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation?** Intrinsic motivation is the natural tendency to seek out and conquer challenges as we pursue personal interests and exercise capabilities—it is motivation to do something when we don't have to. Extrinsic motivation is based on factors not related to the activity itself. We are not really interested in the activity for its own sake; we care only about what it will gain us.

**How does locus of causality apply to motivation?** The essential difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is the person's reason for acting, that is, whether the locus of causality for the action is inside or outside the person. If the locus is internal, the motivation is intrinsic, and if the locus is external, the motivation is extrinsic. Most motivation has elements of both. In fact, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation may be two separate tendencies—both can operate at the same time in a given situation.

**Motivation:** An internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behavior.

**Intrinsic Motivation:** Motivation associated with activities that are their own reward.

**Extrinsic Motivation:** Motivation created by external factors such as rewards and punishments.

**Locus of Causality:** The location—(internal or external)—of the cause of behavior.

## ■ Four General Approaches to Motivation

(pp. 352–358)

**What are the key factors in motivation according to a behavioral viewpoint? A humanistic viewpoint? A cognitive viewpoint? A sociocultural viewpoint?**

Behaviorists tend to emphasize extrinsic motivation caused by incentives, rewards, and punishment. Humanistic views stress the intrinsic motivation created by the need for personal growth, fulfillment, and self-determination. Cognitive views stress a person's active search for meaning, understanding, and competence, and the power of the individual's attributions and interpretations. Sociocultural views emphasize legitimate engaged participation and identity within a community.

**Distinguish between deficiency needs and being needs in Maslow's theory.** Maslow called four lower-level needs—survival, safety, belonging, and self-esteem—deficiency needs.

When these needs are satisfied, the motivation for fulfilling them decreases. He labeled the three higher-level needs—intellectual achievement, aesthetic appreciation, and self-actualization—being needs. When they are met, a person's motivation does not cease; instead, it increases to seek further fulfillment.

**What are the three dimensions of attributions in Weiner's theory?** According to Weiner, most of the attributed causes for successes or failures can be characterized in terms of three dimensions: *locus* (location of the cause internal or external to the person), *stability* (whether the cause stays the same or can change), and *responsibility* (whether the person can control the cause). The greatest motivational problems arise when students attribute failures to stable, uncontrollable causes. These students may seem resigned to failure, depressed, helpless—what we generally call “unmotivated.”

**What are expectancy × value theories?** Expectancy × value theories suggest that motivation to reach a goal is the product of our expectations for success and the value of the goal to us. If either is zero, our motivation is zero also.

**What is legitimate peripheral participation?** Legitimate peripheral participation means that beginners are genuinely involved in the work of the group, even if their abilities are undeveloped and their contributions are small. The identities of the novice and the expert are bound up in their participation in the community. They are motivated to learn the values and practices of the community to keep their identity as community members.

**Reward:** An attractive object or event applied as a consequence of a behavior.

**Incentive:** An object or event that encourages or discourages behavior.

**Humanistic Perspective:** Approach to motivation that emphasizes personal freedom, choice, self-determination, and striving for personal growth.

**Hierarchy of Needs:** Maslow's model of seven levels of human needs, from basic physiological requirements to the need for self-actualization.

**Self-Actualization:** Fulfilling one's potential.

**Deficiency Needs:** Maslow's four lower-level needs, which must be satisfied first.

**Being Needs:** Maslow's three higher-level needs, sometimes called growth needs.

**Attribution Theories:** Descriptions of how individuals' explanations, justifications, and excuses influence their motivation and behavior.

**Expectancy × Value Theories:** Explanations of motivation that emphasize individuals' expectations for success correlated with their valuing of the goal.

**Sociocultural Views of Motivation:** Perspectives that emphasize participation, identities, and interpersonal relations within communities of practice.

**Legitimate Peripheral Participation:** Genuine involvement in the work of the group, even if your abilities are undeveloped and contributions are small.

## PROKSI UNTUK MENGUKUR TINGKAT KEPERCAYAAN DAN TINGKAT MOTIVASI DALAM *KNOWLEDGE SHARING* MAHASISWA DI KELAS APLIKASI INFORMASI AKUNTANSI

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### ABSTRACT

*The science of knowledge develops because of the discussion and sharing among scientists. Therefore, knowledge sharing is one of important factor in improving student knowledge. The level of understanding of students, especially in practical classes will be more increased if the students share knowledge with the others students. Often the explanation lecturer missed because the student busy with their laptop or personal computer respectively. Therefore, the role of other students to help other students become essential to improve the student's understanding.*

*This research follow-up study of the Moon and Sennese (2012) that have examined the factors that influence knowledge sharing. Months of research and Sennese (2012) simply states the hypothesis that individual factors have positive influence on knowledge sharing, but a proxy for measuring the individual factors (trust and motivation levels) have not been disclosed. Therefore, this research purposes to present a proxy that can be used to measure the trust level and the motivation level.*

**Keywords:** *Knowledge sharing and accounting class, the trust of level, the motivation level.*

### ABSTRAK

Ilmu pengetahuan berkembang karena adanya diskusi dan *sharing* antar ilmuwan. Oleh sebab itu *knowledge sharing* merupakan salah satu faktor yang penting dalam meningkatkan pengetahuan mahasiswa. Tingkat pemahaman mahasiswa khususnya di kelas praktikum akan lebih meningkat bila antar mahasiswa saling berbagi ilmu dengan mahasiswa lainnya. Seringkali penjelasan dosen terlewat karena mahasiswa sibuk dengan laptop atau personal computernya masing-masing. Oleh sebab itu peran mahasiswa lain dalam membantu mahasiswa lainnya menjadi hal yang penting untuk meningkatkan pemahaman mahasiswa tersebut.

Penelitian ini memindak lanjuti penelitian dari Bulan dan Sennese (2012) yang telah meneliti faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi *knowledge sharing*. Penelitian Bulan dan Sennese (2012) hanya menyatakan hipotesis bahwa faktor individu memiliki pengaruh yang positif terhadap *knowledge sharing*, akan tetapi proksi untuk mengukur faktor individu (tingkat kepercayaan dan tingkat motivasi) belum diungkapkan. Oleh sebab itu penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menyajikan proksi yang dapat digunakan untuk mengukur tingkat kepercayaan dan tingkat motivasi tersebut.

**Kata Kunci:** *tingkat kepercayaan, tingkat motivasi, knowledge sharing dan kelas Akuntansi.*

Menurut Sanaryo, (2008) motif merupakan suatu pengerak, keinginan, rangsangan. Motif atau motivasi berasal dari kata latin " Moreve" yang berarti dorongan dalam diri manusia untuk bertindak atau berperilaku pengertian motivasi tidak terlepas dari kebutuhan. Kebutuhan adalah suatu potensi dalam diri manusia yang perlu di tanggapai atau di respon (Notoatmodjo, 2010)

Motivasi menurut Stoner dan frenan adalah karakteristik psikologi manusia yang memberikan kontribusibasrut, pembangkit tenaga dan dorongan dalam diri manusia yang menyebabkan mereka, berbuat sesuatu secara singkat dalam diri individu yang menyadari atau menentukan prilaku indivadu . kata lain Motif adalah energi dasar yang terdapat dalam diri individu dan menentukan individu dan menentukaan prilaku dan memberi tujuan dan arah kepada prilaku manusia.

### Pengukuran Motivasi

Motivasi tidak dapat dinilai secara langsung namun harus diukur. Pada umumnya, yang banyak diukur adalah motivasi sosial dan motivasi biologis. Ada heberapa cara untuk mengukur motivasi yaitu dengan 1) tes proyektif, 2) kuesioner, dan 3) perilaku(Notoadmodjo, 2010).

#### a. Tes Proyektif

Apa yang kita katakan merupakan cerminan dari apa yang ada dalam diri kita. Dengan demikian untuk memahami apa yang dipikirkan orang, maka kita beri stimulus yang harus diinterpretasikan. Salah satu teknik proyektif yang banyak dikenal adalah *Thematic Apperception Test* (TAT). Dalam test tersebut klien diberikan gambar dan klien diminta untuk membuat cerita dari gambar tersebut. Dalam teori Mc Leland dikatakan, bahwa manusia memiliki tiga kebutuhan yaitu kebutuhan untuk berprestasi (*n-ach*), kebutuhan untuk *power* (*n-power*), kebutuhan untuk berafiliasi (*n-aff*). Berdasarkan isi cerita tersebut kita dapat menelaah motivasi yang mendasari diri klien berdasarkan konsep kebutuhan diatas (Notoatmodjo, 2010).

#### b. Kuesioner

Salah satu cara untuk mengukur motivasi melalui kuesioner adalah dengan meminta klien untuk mengisi kuesioner yang berisi pertanyaan-pertanyaan yang dapat memancing motivasi klien. Sebagai contoh adalah EPPS (*Edward's Personal Preference Schedule*).

Kuesioner tersebut terdiri dari 210 nomer dimana pada masing-masing nomer terdiri dari dua pertanyaan. Klien diminta memilih salah satu dari dua pertanyaan tersebut yang lebih mencerminkan dirinya.



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## 2. Give students practice with both fluency and accuracy.

**Accuracy** is the extent to which students' speech matches what people actually say when they use the target language. **Fluency** is the extent to which speakers use the language quickly and confidently, with few hesitations or unnatural pauses, false starts, word searches, etc.

In language lessons—especially at the beginning and intermediate levels—learners must be given opportunities to develop both their fluency and their **accuracy**. They cannot develop fluency if the teacher is constantly interrupting them to correct their oral errors. Teachers must provide students with fluency-building practice and realize that making mistakes is a natural part of learning a new language.

## Reflection



Think about when you have tried to learn a new language. How did you develop your fluency? How did you develop your **accuracy**? Think of an effective strategy for helping learners developing fluency and one for developing **accuracy**.

## 3. Provide opportunities for students to talk by using group work or pair work, and limiting teacher talk.

Research has repeatedly demonstrated that teachers do approximately 50 to 80 percent of the talking in classrooms. It is important for us as language teachers to be aware of how much we are talking in class so we don't take up all the time the students could be talking.

Pair work and group work activities can be used to increase the amount of time that learners get to speak in the target language during lessons. One further interesting point is that when the teacher is removed from the conversation, the learners take on diverse speaking roles that are normally filled by the teacher (such as posing questions or offering clarification).

## 4. Plan speaking tasks that involve negotiation for meaning.

Research suggests that learners make progress by communicating in the target language because interaction necessarily involves trying to understand and make yourself understood. This process is called **negotiating for meaning**. It involves checking to see if you've understood what someone has said, clarifying your understanding, and confirming that someone has understood your meaning. By asking for clarification, repetition, or explanations during conversations, learners get the people they are speaking with to address them with language at a level they can learn from and understand.

# Students' Perspectives on Classroom Speaking Activity:

The existing speaking activity and recommended classroom speaking activity

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**Abstract**—As a foreign learners, Indonesian students tend to feel unwilling to produce the oral English language acquisition speaking because of plenty reasons. The common pop up reasons are English is hard to get, it is perplexing and they are incapable of being relax while doing speaking. Moreover, the speaking activity implemented in the classroom often do not adequate students' interest. This study aimed to verify the students' perception about classroom speaking activity (CSA) in which CSA would become the most interesting for them to be taught through CSA arranged by Harmer. Qualitative method was conducted as the research of the study. Participants of a Junior high school in Cilacap, of both sexes, grade 7, were asked to fill out a questionnaire about speaking activity. The main finding of the study were male students have more interest in learning speaking. Both male and female students have the same perceptions toward the most popular and disliked classroom speaking activity. In conclusion, the findings of this study can help teachers for designing future CSA.

**Keywords**—classroom speaking activities; English speaking; students' perception

## I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking is one of compulsory skills in English language acquisition. It is a productive skills which only can be produce after receiving some exposures of English language from both listening and reading skills. According to Harmer "If students want to be able to speak fluently in English, they need to be able pronounce phonemes correctly, use appropriate stress and intonation patterns and speak in connected speech. But there is more to it than that. Speakers of English - especially where it is a second language - will have to be able to speak in a range of different genres and situations, and they will have to be able to speak in a range of conversational and conversational strategies" [1]. In addition, to develop this productive skill, students need intensive and constant practice [2]. As conclusion, in teaching speaking, teachers have to arrange a set of activities in order to run the lesson well, this activities called by classroom speaking activity.

Classroom speaking activity has purpose as the instruction for teachers to implement the speaking in the classroom. It provides the focus/ goal(s) of speaking, for what age and what

level the activity should be held, and steps of how to implement it in the classroom. Abu Moore in Huang and Hu [3] mentions that, "classroom activities can (1) engage students in learning activities, facilitate learning by doing, and practice communication skills; (2) provide many benefits, give immediate feedback to students, arouse a high degree of students' interest and enthusiasm, meanwhile allow teachers to work with a wide range of student capabilities, and allow experimentation with a model of the real environment."

In addition, classrooms speaking activity also explains the teachers' role(s) in its activity. Teachers need to play a number of different roles during different speaking activities. However, according to Harmer "the main job of teachers in organizing the CSA is to make sure that the students understand exactly what they are supposed to do. This involves giving clear instructions and, where appropriate, demonstrating the activity with a student or students so that no one is in any doubt what they should be doing" [1].

Adopted from Harmer, here are several classroom speaking activities which can be conducted for the students [1]:

- Acting from the script
- Communication games
- Discussion
- Debate
- Prepared talks
- Simulation and role-play
- Making recording

According to the study from Dewi et al. communicative games as one of classroom speaking activities have an impact on significant improvement on teaching learning process [4]. It gives positive improvement on students' active participation, confidence and fluency in speaking skill. Based on the finding of Miccofi, portfolios confirm that language comes alive through drama in oral skills development class [5]. For example, the confrontation of fears, and the taking of risks, led an improvement in their oral skills, as a consequence of understanding the aspects that underlie oral communication.

help of a storehouse of teacher, resource material, it can be done. Even drills can be structures to provide a sense of authenticity.

*d) Provide appropriate feedback and correction:* In most EFL situations, students are totally dependent on the teacher for useful linguistic feedback. In ESL situations, they may get such feedback beyond the classroom, but even then teachers in a position to be great benefit, it is important that teachers take advantage of their knowledge on English to inject the kinds of corrective feedback that are appropriate for the moment.

*e) Capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening:* Many interactive techniques that involve speaking will also of course include listening. Teachers have not to lose out opportunities to integrate these two skills. As teachers perhaps focusing on speaking goals, listening goals may naturally coincide, and the two skills can reinforce each other. Skills in producing language are often initiated through comprehension.

*f) Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication:* A good deal of typical classroom interaction is characterized by teacher initiation of language. Teachers ask questions, give directions, and provide information, and students have been conditioned only to speak when spoken to. Part of oral communication competence is the ability to initiate conversations, to nominate topics, to ask questions, to control conversation, and to change the subject. As teachers design and use speaking techniques, teachers can ask themselves if they have allowed students to initiate language.

*g) Encourage the development of speaking strategies:* The concept of strategic competence is one that few beginning language students are aware of. They simply have not thought about developing their own personal strategies for accomplishing oral communicative purpose. The classroom can be one in which students become aware of, and have a chance to practice, such strategies as:

- Asking for clarification (*what?*).
- Asking someone to repeat something (*uh? Excuse me?*).
- Using fillers (*uh, I mean, well*) in order to gain time to process.
- Using conversation maintained cues (*uh huh, right, yeah, okay, hm*).
- Getting someone's attention (*Hey, Say, Si*).
- Using paraphrases for structures one can't produce.
- Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor (to get a word or phrase, for example).
- Using formulaic expressions (at the survival stage) (*How much does \_\_\_ cost? How do you get the \_\_\_?*).
- Using mime and nonverbal expressions to convey meaning.

## *B. Classroom Speaking Activity*

According to Harner, "There are a number of widely-used categories of speaking activity, and we will start by looking at them before going on to specific examples" [1]. The following activities are adopted from him.

*1) Acting from script:* Mallich states, "A script is the written text of a play, movie, or television broadcasting. It describes the story's actions and dialog, divided into scenes" [13]. Teachers can ask the students to act out scenes from plays and/or their coursebooks, sometimes filming the result. Students will often act out dialogues they have written themselves.

*a) Playscripts:* Playscripts is like practicing drama in the learning activities but the students are allowed to read the script in order to practice. In playscripts students need to do the real acting. It means that teachers need to help the students to go through the scripts as if the teachers were the theatre directors, drawing attention to appropriate stress, intonation and speed. By giving students practice in these things before they give their final performance, teachers ensure that acting out is both a learning and a language producing activity.

*b) Acting out the dialogue:* In delivering the final performance, teachers should be careful not to choose the shyest students first because the first performance can affect the right kind of supportive atmosphere in the class. One more important thing, give the students time to rehearse their dialogues before they are asked to perform them.

*2) Communication games:* Games were devised which facilitate student talk and collaboration (and which do not simply practise isolated elements of grammar or pronunciation, for example), and each one has clearly identifiable objectives [14]. The aim of the communication game is to get students talking as quickly and fluently as possible. Two particular categories are worth mentioning here:

*a) Information-gap games:* Many games depend on an information gap: one student has to talk to a partner in order to solve a puzzle, draw a picture (*describe and draw*), put things in the right order (*describe and arrange*) or find similarities and differences between pictures.

*b) Television and radio games:* In the television and radio program, usually provide some beneficial games for speaking. Let say East Balaga Quiz in Indonesia. In this game, participants of the game are divided into two groups. Each groups are choose one person to sit and wear a helmet which had a words on it. The rest of the group will say yes, no or possible only while the helmetperson trying to guess the word on his head.

*3) Discussion:* Discussion range from highly formal, whole-group staged events to informal small-group interactions.

*a) Buzz groups:* According to Bondreau, "A buzz group is a small group, consisting of three to six people who are given an assignment to complete in a short time period. Generally, each buzz group records their output then reports to the larger group" [15]. The buzz groups can be used for a whole range of



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**Pronunciation Issues In Non-Native Contexts:  
A Malaysian Case Study**

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*Universiti Teknologi MARA*

Abstract

While the spread of English has given prominence to the role of intelligibility, it has also raised questions about the intelligibility and phonology of new varieties of English. This paper asserts the importance of pronunciation, but argues that traditional pronunciation models need to be critically re-examined. Proposing a shift in focus from the native speaker to the highly competent L2 speaker of English, it reports on a study undertaken in Malaysia and discusses ways in which proficient speakers of English modify their pronunciation patterns to attain greater intelligibility. It concludes by suggesting ways in which L2 research on intelligibility can reconfigure itself both ideologically and methodologically, and examines the significance of the findings with respect to aspects of pedagogy and 'the lingua franca phonological core'.

varieties. A factor promoting divergences in the phonology of the sub-varieties of English is the existence of substratum languages in non-native countries, which invariably exert an influence on the L2, and researchers have shown the predominance of transfer in matters of phonology (Odlin, 1989; Jenkins, 2000; Major, 2001). Furthermore, although different aspects of a language may be adapted and shaped in varying degrees to reflect local sensitivities, it is one's accent that is inextricably and overtly linked to one's social, cultural and individual identity (Pennington and Richards, 1986; Gaubontou et al., 2005; Jenkins, 2005).

Clearly, the unprecedented spread and use of English as both an international and intranational lingua franca only illustrate the tension that exists between maintaining international intelligibility and retaining local identities. How do educators in non-native settings respond to this dilemma, among others, in the context of pronunciation teaching?

### **Pronunciation Teaching In Non-Native Contexts**

Surrounded by various controversies, ESL teachers have often been tempted to take the path of least resistance, dismissing pronunciation as being unimportant or unteachable, paying it mere lip service as attention is diverted to more 'essential' or 'tidy' areas, or dealing with it in a rather ad-hoc and unprincipled manner. In the event that pronunciation is given sufficient emphasis in the curriculum and classroom, it is often taught with a rigid adherence to prescribed norms, which usually means native norms. I would like to briefly examine a couple of these common responses in greater detail, through a consideration of whether pronunciation should be taught, and if we should adhere to a native-speaker model.

### **Should Pronunciation Be Taught In ESL Classes?**

If pronunciation issues are so fraught with controversies, and if there are perhaps aspects of one's accent that are not easily amenable to change, is there any justification to focus on pronunciation in the classroom? Although the effectiveness and benefits of pronunciation teaching have not been conclusively proven, this merely echoes the general pattern for other components of language learning, and may be partly attributed to variations in research, from sampling and settings to mode and focus of instruction.

What is undeniable is that limited pronunciation skills can undermine a learner's self-confidence, restrict social interaction, and negatively influence estimations of a speaker's credibility and abilities (Morley, 1991). **Without adequate pronunciation skills, a person's communicative skills may be severely hampered, and this in turn may give rise to speech that lacks intelligibility, leading to glitches in conversation and to strain on the part of the listener.** Studies have also indicated that poor pronunciation or heavily-accented English tends to be stigmatised at the workplace, and speakers often report being discriminated



LINGUISTICS  
IN LANGUAGE  
TEACHING

D. A. Wilkins



# Developing and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test

Norbert Schmitt *University of Nottingham*,  
Diane Schmitt *Nottingham Trent University*  
and Caroline Clapham *University of Lancaster*

The Vocabulary Levels Test has been widely used in language assessment and vocabulary research despite never having been properly validated. This article reports on a study which uses a range of analysis techniques to present validity evidence, and to explore the equivalence of two revised and expanded versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test.

## 1 Introduction

Vocabulary is an essential building block of language and, as such, it makes sense to be able to measure learners' knowledge of it. This is equally true whether we are interested in pedagogical assessment in classrooms or in language acquisition research. Given this, one might expect there to be an accepted vocabulary test available for these uses. Unfortunately, this is not the case. The closest thing the field has to such a vocabulary test is the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983, 1990). Different versions have been employed in both assessment and research, but despite this widespread use this test has never been properly validated. This article aims to begin to address this shortcoming by describing an initial validation of two revised and expanded versions.

The Vocabulary Levels Test is designed to give an estimate of vocabulary size for second language (L2) learners of general or academic English. The rationale for the test stems from research which has shown that vocabulary size is directly related to the ability to use English in various ways. For example, knowledge of the most frequent 2000 words in English provides the bulk of the lexical resources required for basic everyday oral communication (Schonell *et al.*, 1956). The next 1000 words provide additional material for spoken

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# Assessing Vocabulary

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learners' progress in vocabulary learning and to assess how adequate their vocabulary knowledge is to meet their communication needs.

Vocabulary assessment seems straightforward in the sense that word lists are readily available to provide a basis for selecting a set of words to be tested. In addition, there is a range of well-known item types that are convenient to use for vocabulary testing. Here are some examples:

**Multiple-choice** (*Choose the correct answer*)

The principal was irate when she heard what the students had done.

- a. surprised
- b. interested
- c. proud
- d. angry

**Completion** (*Write in the missing word*)

At last the climbers reached the s. \_\_\_\_\_ of the mountain.

**Translation** (*Give the L1 equivalent of the underlined word*)

They worked at the mill.

**Matching** (*Match each word with its meaning*)

- |   |             |       |    |                              |
|---|-------------|-------|----|------------------------------|
| 1 | accurate    | _____ | a. | not changing                 |
| 2 | transparent | _____ | b. | not friendly                 |
| 3 | constant    | _____ | c. | related to seeing things     |
| 4 | visual      | _____ | d. | greater in size              |
| 5 | hostile     | _____ | e. | careful and exact            |
|   |             |       | f. | allowing light to go through |
|   |             |       | g. | in the city                  |

These test items are easy to write and to score, and they make efficient use of testing time. Multiple-choice items in particular have been commonly used in standardised tests. A professionally produced multiple-choice vocabulary test is highly reliable and distinguishes learners effectively according to their level of vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, it will usually be strongly related to measures of the learners' reading comprehension ability. Handbooks on language testing published in the 1960s and 1970s (for example Lado, 1961; Harris, 1969; Heaton, 1975) devote a considerable amount of space to vocabulary testing, with a lot of advice on how to write good items and avoid various pitfalls.



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#### D. Rata-Rata Lama Sekolah

Rata-Rata Lama Sekolah (RLS) merupakan indikator yang dapat menggambarkan tingkat pendidikan stok modal manusia yang dimiliki oleh suatu wilayah (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2022). RLS memperhitungkan jumlah tahun yang digunakan oleh penduduk dalam menjalani pendidikan formal, tidak termasuk tahun yang dihabiskan untuk penduduk yang mengulang karena tidak naik kelas. Secara umum, nilai indikator ini menunjukkan tingkat keterampilan dan kompetensi penduduk suatu negara, yang dapat dilihat sebagai proksi dari aspek kuantitatif dan kualitatif dari stok sumber daya manusia. Nilai yang relatif tinggi menunjukkan besarnya proporsi penduduk dewasa menurut tingkat pendidikan tertinggi yang dicapai atau diselesaikan, dan mencerminkan sistem pendidikan yang berkinerja baik (Unesco, 2009).



Sumber: Badan Pusat Statistik, Survei Sosial Ekonomi Nasional (Susenas) Maret 2023

Gambar 5.14 Rata-Rata Lama Sekolah Penduduk Usia 15 Tahun ke Atas menurut Provinsi, 2023

Nilai RLS pada tahun 2023 mencapai 9,13 tahun atau setara kelas 9 SMP/ sederajat. Capaian tersebut mengalami peningkatan dibanding tahun sebelumnya (2022) yakni sebesar 9,08 tahun. Dengan melihat pola pergerakan capaian RLS antar tahun yang terus meningkat, diharapkan target RLS penduduk usia 15 tahun ke atas, yang tertera pada RPJMN sebesar 9,18 tahun di tahun 2024, dapat tercapai.

## **IDENTIFIKASI FAKTOR PENYEBAB SISWA PUTUS SEKOLAH DI TINGKAT SEKOLAH DASAR WILAYAH DURI KEPA**

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**Abstract:** Getting proper Basic of Education is a citizen's right without exception. But in reality there are many children's primary schools chose not to continue their schools. People knows that the Government of DKI Jakarta provided programs to support Education DKI Jakarta. However, the data in 2016 to 2019 showing that number of students are dropout from school has increased by a bad level. This study aims to find out the factors students of elementary schools in the West Jakarta area not continue their school. This methide uses descriptive qualitative research, in the research finded internal and external factors background's why their choosing for dropout from their school are: a) Lazy b) inability to take lessons c) having some problem in their family d) get less attention from their parents e) they worked

**Keywords:** Elementary School, Dropout, Factors

**Abstrak:** Memperoleh pendidikan dasar yang layak merupakan hak sebagai warga negara tanpa terkecuali. Tetapi pada kenyataannya masih banyak anak-anak tingkat sekolah dasar memilih untuk tidak melanjutkan sekolahnya. Yang kita ketahui Pemerintah DKI Jakarta menyediakan program-program yang bertujuan menekan angka putus sekolah di DKI Jakarta. Tetapi, pada kenyataannya data yang diperoleh tahun 2016-2019 memperlihatkan bahwa setiap tahun angka putus sekolah DKI Jakarta meningkat baik sekolah negeri maupun swasta. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui faktor yang menyebabkan anak-anak yang masih duduk di sekolah dasar wilayah Jakarta Barat pada Kelurahan Duri Kepa memilih untuk tidak melanjutkan sekolahnya. Metode ini menggunakan penelitian kualitatif deskriptif dan hasil penelitian ini ditemukan faktor internal dan eksternal yang melatarbelakangi mereka memilih untuk putus sekolah adalah: a) Malas b) Ketidakmampuan mengikuti pelajaran. c) Memiliki permasalahan keluarga d) Kurangnya perhatian orang tua e) bekerja.

**Kata Kunci:** Sekolah Dasar, Putus Sekolah, Faktor Penyebab



## PENDAHULUAN

Pendidikan erat kaitannya dengan Sumber Daya Manusia (SDM) dan Sekolah dasar adalah pondasi utama untuk melanjutkan ketingkat yang lebih tinggi, dari hal tersebut singkat kata perlu adanya perhatian lebih khusus bagi setiap anak usia sekolah dasar baik di sekolah dasar swasta maupun negeri, untuk menekan angka putus sekolah yang ada. Data Dinas Pendidikan menunjukkan bahwa tahun 2018-2019 angka putus sekolah sekolah dasar di Indonesia dari masing-masing provinsi sebanyak 57.246 orang.

Tabel 1. Jumlah Siswa Putus Sekolah

Jumlah Putus sekolah Dasar Jumlah Siswa Sekolah Dasar Tahun 2016-2019 di 34 Provinsi Indonesia			
	2016-2017	2017-2018	2018-2019
Jumlah Siswa	25.618.078	25.486.506	25.238.923
Jumlah Putus sekolah	39.213	32.127	57.246

Dari tabel di atas dapat dilihat bahwa angka putus sekolah di Indonesia selalu meningkat dari tahun ke tahun. Dalam Undang-Undang Pendidikan Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 pasal 6 ayat 1 yang berbunyi:

*"Setiap warga negara yang berusia tujuh sampai dengan lima belas tahun wajib mengikuti pendidikan dasar."*

Dalam isi undang-undang tersebut pemerintah mewajibkan bagi seluruh

warganya untuk mengenyam pendidikan dasar 12 tahun. Namun pada prakteknya pelaksanaan wajib belajar 12 tahun ini, tidak berjalan dengan mulus begitu saja, banyak kendala yang dihadapi oleh pemerintah, salah satu masalah yang timbul dalam pencapaian wajib belajar 12 tahun adalah siswa yang putus sekolah dan yang tidak dapat melanjutkan pendidikan ketingkat yang lebih tinggi. Sebenarnya pemerintah telah memberikan program yang sesuai untuk pemuntasan wajib belajar 12 tahun, namun dalam implementasinya masih banyak siswa yang putus sekolah pada usia wajib belajar 12 tahun. Jakarta yang kita ketahui adalah salah satu kota kota tujuan utama bagi orang-orang yang ingin menimba ilmu dan salah satu kota tujuan untuk para pencari kerja. Namun jika dilihat dari data Kemendikud periode 2018-2019 DKI Jakarta terletak pada urutan ke 15 dari 34 Provinsi dengan jumlah anak putus sekolah tingkat sekolah dasar sebanyak 1.164 anak. Dalam hal lain untuk menunjang pendidikan, khususnya Pemerintah DKI Jakarta juga sudah memfasilitasi siswa DKI Jakarta dengan program KJP (Kartu Jakarta Pintar) dengan tujuan membantu siswa untuk menjalankan pendidikannya, namun

# KOMPETENSI KEPERIBADIAN GURU DAN MOTIVASI BELAJAR SISWA (Studi Korelasi pada Mata Pelajaran PAI)

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## ***Abstract***

*Teachers have a great responsibility towards the continuity of the learning process in school. Be aware or not, in addition to the tools and all things related to the teaching and success of educational goals, it turns out the personality of teachers is a very decisive success of learning. To avoid apathy and students' forced obedience, the teacher should improve his personality competence, how a teacher can be a student learning partner, featuring a good personality that can serve as a role model for her students and become a driving force in learning. This research is a research with quantitative approach. The population of this study are all students of class VII SMPN 7 Kediri amounted to 317 students. While the sample in this study as many as 175 students. Sampling is determined by Random sampling technique. Data collection uses questionnaire and documentation method. While statistical data analysis uses product moment correlation formula. Based on the research results, it is obtained a conclusion that the personality competence of PAI teachers included in good category.*

aktif pada saat-saat tertentu, terutama bila kebutuhan untuk mencapai tujuan sangat dirasakan/mendesak. Sehingga semakin mendesaknya suatu tujuan, maka akan semakin kuat pula motivasi seseorang, dan sebaliknya.

Berkaitan dengan pengertian motivasi, ada beberapa para ahli yang mendefinisikan tentang motivasi adalah sebagai berikut:

- a. Menurut Ngalm Purwanto "motivasi adalah "pendorongan", yakni usaha yang disadari untuk mempengaruhi tingkah laku seseorang agar ia tergerak hatinya untuk bertindak melakukan sesuatu sehingga mencapai hasil atau tujuan tertentu".<sup>39</sup>
- b. Abraham Maslow berpendapat, "*Motivasi is constant, never ending, fluctuating and complex, and that it is an almost universal characteristic of particularly every organisme state of affairs*".<sup>40</sup> Definisi dari Abraham Maslow ini diartikan oleh Fudyartanto, yakni "motivasi adalah *konstant* (tetap), tidak pernah berakhir, berfluktuasi dan kompleks, dan hal itu merupakan karakteristik universal pada tiap kegiatan organisme. **Dari penerjemahan tersebut, fudyartanto sendiri menyimpulkan bahwa motivasi adalah usaha untuk membangkitkan kegiatan dalam mencapai suatu tujuan.**"<sup>41</sup>
- c. Menurut James O. Whittaker yang diartikan oleh Wasty Soemanto, bahwa "motivasi adalah kondisi-kondisi atau keadaan yang mengaktifkan atau memberi dorongan kepada makhluk untuk bertingkah laku mencapai tujuan yang ditimbulkan oleh motivasi tersebut".<sup>42</sup> Apa yang

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<sup>39</sup> Purwanto, *Psikologi Pendidikan*, hlm. 71.

<sup>40</sup> Ki RBS Fudyartanto, *Psikologi Pendidikan* (Yogyakarta: Global Pustaka Utama, 2002), hlm. 71.

<sup>41</sup> Ibid.

<sup>42</sup> Wasty Soemanto, *Psikologi Pendidikan* (Jakarta: Rineka Cipta, 1998), hlm. 205.

rangsangan, dorongan atau pembangkit tenaga bagi terjadinya suatu tingkah laku.<sup>34</sup>

Ada beberapa pendapat pengertian motif. Menurut Wingkel dalam bukunya *Psikologi pengajaran*, “motif adalah daya penggerak dalam diri seseorang untuk melakukan sesuatu, demi mencapai tujuan tertentu”.<sup>35</sup> Sebagaimana yang diungkapkan oleh Sardiman bahwa kata “motif”, diartikan sebagai daya upaya yang mendorong seseorang untuk melakukan sesuatu. Dan motif dapat dikatakan sebagai penggerak dari dalam dan di dalam subjek untuk melakukan aktivitas-aktivitas tertentu demi mencapai suatu tujuan.<sup>36</sup>

Menurut Ngalim Purwanto bahwa yang dimaksud “motif adalah segala sesuatu yang mendorong seseorang untuk bertindak melakukan sesuatu”.<sup>37</sup> Atau seperti yang dikatakan oleh Sartain dalam bukunya *Understanding of Humman Behavior* yang kemudian juga dikutip oleh Purwanto bahwa motif adalah suatu pernyataan yang kompleks di dalam suatu organisme yang mengarahkan tingkah laku/perbuatan kesuatu tujuan atau parangsang.<sup>38</sup>

Meskipun para ahli memberikan pengertian tentang motif dengan “bahasa” dan titik tekan yang berbeda-beda, sesuai dengan bidang ilmu yang ia pelajari, pada dasarnya juga ada kesamaan pendapat yang dapat ditarik mengenai motif ini, yakni bahwa motif adalah kondisi seseorang yang mendorong untuk mencari suatu kepuasan atau mencari tujuan. Jadi motif adalah suatu alasan atau dorongan yang menyebabkan seseorang berbuat sesuatu, melalui tindakan atau bersikap tertentu. Berawal dari kata “motif” diatas, maka *motivasi* dapat diartikan sebagai daya penggerak yang telah menjadi aktif. Motif dapat menjadi

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<sup>34</sup> Alex Sobur, *Psikologi Umum*, hlm. 268.

<sup>35</sup> WS Wingkel, *Psikologi Pengajaran* (Jakarta: Grafindo, 1996), hlm. 151.

<sup>36</sup> Sardiman A.M, *Interaksi & Motivasi Belajar Mengajar* (Jakarta: Raja Grafindo Persada, 2003), hlm. 73.

<sup>37</sup> Ngalim Purwanto, *Psikologi Pendidikan* (Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya, 1998), hlm. 60.

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INTRINSIC  
MOTIVATION  
— AND —  
SELF-DETERMINATION  
— IN —  
HUMAN  
BEHAVIOR

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EDWARD L. DECI AND RICHARD M. RYAN

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# An Introduction

The study of motivation is the exploration of the energization and direction of behavior. Psychological theories are *motivational* theories only insofar as they address these two aspects of behavior.

*Energy* in motivation theory is fundamentally a matter of needs. An adequate theory of motivation must therefore take into account both the needs that are innate to the organism (i.e., those that must be satisfied for the organism to remain healthy) and those that are acquired through interactions with the environment. *Direction* in motivation theory concerns the processes and structures of the organism that give meaning to internal and external stimuli, thereby directing action toward the satisfaction of needs. Simply stated, then, the field of motivation explores all aspects of an organism's needs and the processes and structures that relate those needs to behavior; motivational theories organize the findings of those explorations.

It has often been said that the study of motivation is an inquiry into the *why* of behavior. Indeed, the field of motivation is concerned with answering *why* questions, although there are theories that have offered nonmotivational answers by focusing only on direction, to the exclusion of energization. These theories, therefore, are not motivation theories.

## MOTIVATION THEORIES

Motivation theories are built on a set of assumptions about the nature of people and about the factors that give impetus to action. These assumptions, and the theories that follow from them, can be viewed as falling along a descriptive continuum ranging from the mechanistic to the organismic. *Mechanistic* theories tend to view the human organism as passive, that is, as being pushed around by the interaction of physiological drives and environmental stimuli, whereas *organismic* theories

# **A Theory of Human Motivation**

**Abraham H. Maslow**





# Dancing Unicorn Books

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## II. The Basic Needs

*The 'physiological' needs.* — The needs that are usually taken as the starting point for motivation theory are the so-called physiological drives. Two recent lines of research make it necessary to revise our customary notions about these needs, first, the development of the concept of homeostasis, and second, the finding that appetites (preferential choices among foods) are a fairly efficient indication of actual needs or lacks in the body.

Homeostasis refers to the body's automatic efforts to maintain a constant, normal state of the blood stream. Cannon (2) has described this process for (1) the water content of the blood, (2) salt content, (3) sugar content, (4) protein content, (5) fat content, (6) calcium content, (7) oxygen content, (8) constant hydrogen-ion level (acid-base balance) and (9) constant temperature of the blood. Obviously this list can be extended to include other minerals, the hormones, vitamins, etc.

Young in a recent article (21) has summarized the work on appetite in its relation to body needs. If the body lacks some chemical, the individual will tend to develop a specific appetite or partial hunger for that food element.

Thus it seems impossible as well as useless to make any list of fundamental physiological needs for they can come to almost any number one might wish, depending on the degree of specificity of description. We can not identify all physiological needs as homeostatic. That sexual desire, sleepiness, sheer activity and maternal behavior in animals, are homeostatic, has not yet been demonstrated. Furthermore, this list would not include the various

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## Module 5: Teaching vocabulary

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### ► Unit One: What is vocabulary and what needs to be taught?

#### *What is vocabulary?*

Vocabulary can be defined, roughly, as the words we teach in the foreign language. However, a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word: for example, *post office* and *mother-in-law*, which are made up of two or three words but express a single idea. There are also multi-word idioms such as *call it a day*, where the meaning of the phrase cannot be deduced from an analysis of the component words. A useful convention is to cover all such cases by talking about vocabulary 'items' rather than 'words'.

**Question** Can you think of five or six further examples of vocabulary items, in any language you know, that consist of more than one word?

#### *What needs to be taught?*

##### **1. Form: pronunciation and spelling**

The learner has to know what a word sounds like (its pronunciation) and what it looks like (its spelling). These are fairly obvious characteristics, and one or the other will be perceived by the learner when encountering the item for the first time. In teaching, we need to make sure that both these aspects are accurately presented and learned.

##### **2. Grammar**

The grammar of a new item will need to be taught if this is not obviously covered by general grammatical rules. An item may have an unpredictable change of form in certain grammatical contexts or may have some idiosyncratic way of connecting with other words in sentences; it is important to provide learners with this information at the same time as we teach the base form.

When teaching a new verb, for example, we might give also its past form, if this is irregular (*think, thought*), and we might note if it is transitive or intransitive. Similarly, when teaching a noun, we may wish to present its plural form, if irregular (*mouse, mice*), or draw learners' attention to the fact that it has no plural at all (*advice, information*). We may present verbs such as *want* and *enjoy* together with the verb form that follows them (*want to, enjoy -ing*), or adjectives or verbs together with their following prepositions (*responsible for, remind someone of*).

One way of studying the question of the contribution of teachers to learner motivation is through the following task.

### **Task Reflecting on the characteristics of a good teacher**

#### *Stage 1: Recall*

Think back to your own classroom learning, as either child or adult, not necessarily of a foreign language, and try to recall a teacher of yours who was outstandingly good, from whom you really learnt well. (I am deliberately refraining from defining further what I mean by a 'good' teacher – interpret the term as you understand it.)

#### *Stage 2: Writing*

Write down, possibly in note form, as complete a description as you can of how this teacher functioned, within the classroom and outside it.

#### *Stage 3: Reflection*

Reading through what you have written, consider:

1. How much effort this teacher put in to motivating you to learn, whether deliberately or not, and:
2. How far your positive assessment of this teacher is based on the way he or she managed to motivate you.

If you are working in a group, share your accounts of your good teacher with others, and discuss the questions with them.

Results obtained from this task when done by teacher trainees in a group I worked with are described in the Notes.

### *Results and conclusions*

If your results are similar to mine, then you will have found that the learner-centred approach described in the introductory paragraph of this unit does not in fact seem to be implemented very often. Most good teachers seem to accept that it is their responsibility to motivate learners, and invest quite a lot of effort in doing so.

## **► Unit Three: Extrinsic motivation**

Extrinsic motivation is that which derives from the influence of some kind of external incentive, as distinct from the wish to learn for its own sake or interest in tasks. Many sources of extrinsic motivation are inaccessible to the influence of the teacher: for example, the desire of students to please some other authority figure such as parents, their wish to succeed in an external exam, or peer-group influences. However, other sources are certainly affected by teacher action. Here are some of them.

Bestselling author of **THE 48 LAWS OF POWER**

**ROBERT GREENE**

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somehow keep it alive longer...but it seems so mysterious and elusive.

The problem we face is that this form of power and intelligence is either ignored as a subject of study or is surrounded by all kinds of myths and misconceptions, all of which only add to the mystery. We imagine that creativity and brilliance just appear out of nowhere, the fruit of natural talent, or perhaps of a good mood, or an alignment of the stars. It would be an immense help to clear up the mystery—to name this feeling of power, to examine its roots, to define the kind of intelligence that leads to it, and to understand how it can be manufactured and maintained.

Let us call this sensation *mastery*—the feeling that we have a greater command of reality, other people, and ourselves. Although it might be something we experience for only a short while, for others—Masters of their field—it becomes their way of life, their way of seeing the world. (Such Masters include Leonardo da Vinci, Napoleon Bonaparte, Charles Darwin, Thomas Edison, and Martha Graham, among many others.) And at the root of this power is a simple process that leads to mastery—one that is accessible to all of us.

The process can be illustrated in the following manner: Let us say we are learning the piano, or entering a new job where we must acquire certain skills. In the beginning, we are outsiders. Our initial impressions of the piano or the work environment are based on prejudgments, and often contain an element of fear. When we first study the piano, the keyboard looks rather intimidating—we don't understand the relationships between the keys, the chords, the pedals, and everything else that goes into creating music. In a new job situation, we are ignorant of the power relationships between people, the psychology of our boss, the rules and procedures that are considered critical for success. We are confused—the knowledge we need in both cases is over our heads.

Although we might enter these situations with excitement about what we can learn or do with our new skills, we quickly realize how much hard work there is ahead of us. The great danger is that we give in to feelings of boredom, impatience, fear, and confusion. We stop observing and learning. The process comes to a halt.

If, on the other hand, we manage these emotions and allow time to take its course, something remarkable begins to take shape. As we continue to observe and follow the lead of others, we gain clarity, learning the rules and seeing how things work and fit together. If we keep practicing, we gain fluency; basic skills are mastered, allowing us to take on newer and more exciting challenges. We begin to see connections that were invisible to us before. We slowly gain confidence in our ability to solve problems or overcome weaknesses through sheer persistence.

Scott Thornbury

# how to

teach vocabulary





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**How is vocabulary learned?**

Knowing a word is one thing – but how is that knowledge acquired? In learning their first language the first words that children learn are typically those used for **labelling** – that is, mapping words on to concepts – so that the concept, for example, of dog has a name, *dog*. Or *doggie*. But not all four-legged animals are dogs: some may be cats, so the child then has to learn how far to extend the concept of *dog*, so as not to include cats, but to include other people's dogs, toy dogs, and even pictures of dogs. In other words, acquiring a vocabulary requires not only labelling but **categorising skills**.

Finally, the child needs to realise that common words like *apple* and *dog* can be replaced by superordinate terms like *fruit* and *animal*. And that *animal* can accommodate other lower order words such as *cat*, *horse* and *elephant*. This involves a process of **network building** – constructing a complex web of words, so that items like *black* and *white*, or *fingers* and *toes*, or *family* and *brother* are interconnected. Network building serves to link all the labels and packages, and lays the groundwork for a process that continues for as long as we are exposed to new words (and new meanings for old words) – that is, for the rest of our lives.

In what ways is the development of a second language (L2) lexicon any different from that of the first language (L1)? Perhaps the most obvious difference is the fact that, by definition, second language learners already have a first language. And not only do they have the words of their first language, but they have the conceptual system that these words encode, and the complex network of associations that link these words one with another. Learning a second language involves both learning a new conceptual system, and constructing a new vocabulary network – a second mental lexicon.

Consider, for example, the problems I faced when learning Maori kinship terms:

The word *teina* is used by (1) a boy when speaking of his younger brother; (2) a girl when speaking of her younger sister. The word *tuakana* is used by (1) a boy when speaking of his older brother; (2) a girl when speaking of her older sister. The word *tuahine* is used by a boy when speaking of his sister. The word *tungane* is used by a girl when speaking of her brother.

(from Harawira K, *Teach Yourself Maori*, Reed Books)

The cultural 'distance' between Maori and European conceptual systems is relatively large, but for most language learners there will be much more that is shared than is foreign. Even learning Maori, I did not have to relearn the concept of *hand*, for example, or of *horse*. The fact that the adult learner's concept system is already installed and up-and-running, means that he or she is saved a lot of the over- and under-generalising associated with first language learning. An adult learner is unlikely to confuse a dog with a cat, for example.

However, there is a downside to having a ready-made conceptual system with its associated lexicon. Faced with learning a new word, the second language learner is likely to short-cut the process of constructing a network of associations – and simply map the word directly onto the mother tongue



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Jeremy Harmer

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It becomes clear immediately that *fast asleep* is a more common word combination in speaking than in writing, but that the other combinations we noticed in writing also occur in speech.

Lexicographers work with considerably more complex concordance information than this, of course, but the principle is the same, and it allows them to provide dictionary entries which not only give definitions, but also list frequently occurring combinations (*collocations*), and say how common words are. In the dictionary entry for *asleep* (Figure 3) we see that it is one of the 2,000 most common words in speech [S<sub>a</sub>], but that it falls outside the 3,000 most common words in written English (because no frequency information is given for writing [W]).

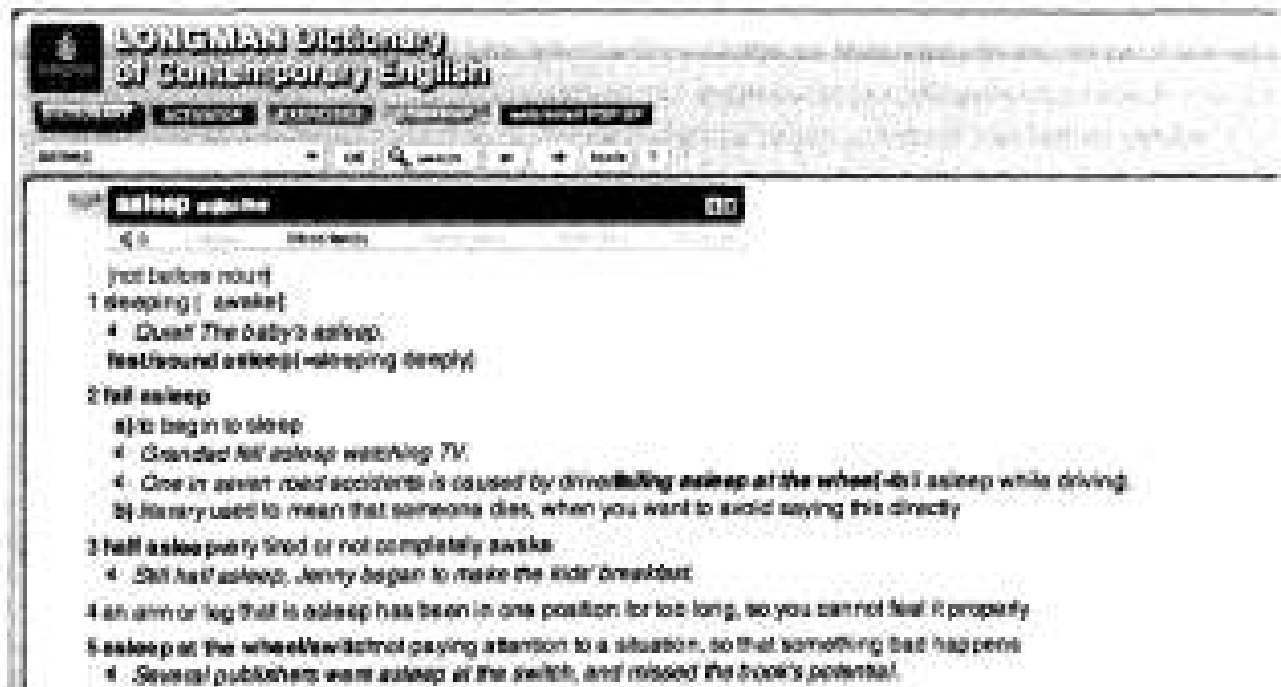


FIGURE 3: Entry for *asleep* from the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (CD-ROM version)

## E2 Word meaning

The least problematic issue of vocabulary, it would seem, is meaning. We know that *table* means a thing with three or four legs which we can write on and eat off and that *book* is a collection of words between covers. But of course the situation is more complicated than this. Both words have many different meanings, quite apart from those already mentioned. We can eat off a *table*, or we can *table* a motion at a conference. We can summarise information in a *table*, too. Then again, when we have read our *book*, we can ring up a restaurant and *book* a table, but if we drive too fast on the way, we might be *booked* for speeding. Some people have been keeping a *book* on whether we will keep our job because everyone knows we've been cooking the *books* for years. The point is that the same collection of sounds and letters can have many different meanings. As with multi-meaning grammatical forms (see B<sub>1</sub>), this *polysemy* is only resolved when we see the word in context. It is understanding the meaning in context that allows us to say which meaning of the word is being used in this particular instance.

What a word means is often defined by its relationship to other words. For example, we explain the meaning of *full* by saying that it is the opposite of *empty*; we understand that *cheap* is the opposite of *expensive*. Such *antonyms* reinforce the meaning of each word in

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## **Developing and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test**

Norbert Schmitt, Diane Schmitt and Caroline Clapham

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# Developing and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test

Norbert Schmitt *University of Nottingham,*  
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The Vocabulary Levels Test has been widely used in language assessment and vocabulary research despite never having been properly validated. This article reports on a study which uses a range of analysis techniques to present validity evidence, and to explore the equivalence of two revised and expanded versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test.

## 1 Introduction

Vocabulary is an essential building block of language and, as such, it makes sense to be able to measure learners' knowledge of it. This is equally true whether we are interested in pedagogical assessment in classrooms or in language acquisition research. Given this, one might expect there to be an accepted vocabulary test available for these uses. Unfortunately, this is not the case. The closest thing the field has to such a vocabulary test is the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983, 1990). Different versions have been employed in both assessment and research, but despite this widespread use this test has never been properly validated. This article aims to begin to address this shortcoming by describing an initial validation of two revised and expanded versions.

The Vocabulary Levels Test is designed to give an estimate of vocabulary size for second language (L2) learners of general or academic English. The rationale for the test stems from research which has shown that vocabulary size is directly related to the ability to use English in various ways. For example, knowledge of the most frequent 2000 words in English provides the bulk of the lexical resources required for basic everyday oral communication (Schonell *et al.*, 1956). The next 1000 words provide additional material for spoken

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ENGLISH

REPORT OF LECTURERS' RESEARCH



**THE INFLUENCE OF VOCABULARY MASTERY AND READING STRATEGY ON STUDENTS' READING ABILITY**  
(An Ex Post Facto Study at the 4<sup>th</sup> semester students of English Literature, STBA JIA Bekasi)

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meaning now has several meanings, such as the word sibling, which used to mean siblings but now refers to anyone, (2) Narrowing of meaning or specialization, a phenomenon that occurs when words with a fairly broad meaning are changed to a limited one. For example, the word scholar, which originally meant a wise person, scholar, scholar, (3) increase in meaning/amelioration, (4) decrease in meaning/pejoration, (5) similarity in nature/associative.

## 2. Vocabulary Mastery

There are numerous definitions of vocabulary offered by linguists. While there are numerous similarities, expert opinions can diverge. Karaf (1996: p. 64), definition of vocabulary can be seen from two perspectives. To begin with, in terms of language itself, the definition of vocabulary is all the words that belong to a language. Vocabulary is a part of language that comprises all information regarding the meaning and application of words. Second, from the perspective of language users, vocabulary is the collection of words that a person, speaker, or writer possesses. This is consistent with Nurgiyantoro's view (2012: p. 338), vocabulary is the wealth of words owned by (contained in) a language.

According to Soedjito (1992: p. 1), vocabulary can be interpreted as follows:

- a. All of the words in a language.
- b. A speaker's or writer's or reader's wealth of words.
- c. Words used in the field of science.
- d. There is a brief and helpful explanation included with the list of words that are organized like a dictionary.



$\sum X_1$	: Number of variables $X_1$
$\sum X_2$	: Number of variables $X_2$
$\sum X_1X_2$	: Total multiplication between scores $X_1$ and $X_2$
$(\sum X_1)^2$	: The sum of the variables $X_1$ squared
$(\sum X_2)^2$	: The sum of the variables $X_2$ squared

## 2. Data Analysis

The regression technique was used to examine the data in this study in accordance with the aims of quantitative research. In this study, determination analysis with multiple regression analysis approaches is utilized to assess the overall influence of vocabulary mastery ( $X_1$ ) and reading strategy ( $X_2$ ) on reading ability ( $Y$ ).

A simple regression and multiple regression test are used to test the hypothesis. The multiple regression test in this study needs a pre-test, such as the test of normality and linearity. Submission of hypotheses is done after testing multiple regression analysis requirements. This analysis seeks to identify the relationship between the independent and dependent variables as well as the variables that contribute to the dependent variable.

### a. Simple Regression Analysis

Simple regression analysis is used to determine the effect of each independent variable ( $X$ ) on the dependent variable ( $Y$ ). In this case, in order to determine the effect of vocabulary mastery on reading ability (1<sup>st</sup> hypothesis), the effect of reading strategy on reading ability (2<sup>nd</sup> hypothesis). There are steps simple regression analysis according to Hadi (2004: 5) is as follows:

1) Create a simple linear regression line

$$\hat{Y} = a + bX$$

Note:	$\hat{Y}$	: Criteria
	$a$	: The coefficient of the predicate
	$X$	: Predictor
	$K$	: Constant Number

2) Finding the correlation coefficient between criteria  $X$  and  $Y$  using the formula according to Hadi (2004: 5) as follows:

$$r_{XY} = \frac{\sum XY}{\sqrt{(\sum X^2)(\sum Y^2)}}$$

Note:

$r_{XY}$	: correlation coefficient between $X$ and $Y$
$\sum XY$	: the number of multiplications between the scores of the variables $X$ and $Y$
$\sum X^2$	: total score of variable $X$
$\sum Y^2$	: total score of variable $Y$

3) Finding for the coefficient of determination ( $r^2$ ) between predictor  $Y$  with  $X_1$  and  $Y$  with  $X_2$ .

$$R^2(1) = \frac{(a_1 \sum X_1 Y)}{\sum Y^2}$$

$$R^2(2) = \frac{(a_2 \sum X_2 Y)}{\sum Y^2} r^2$$

$$(3) = \frac{(a_3 \sum X_3 Y)}{\sum Y^2}$$

$$r^2(1) = \frac{(a_1 \sum X_1 Y)}{\sum Y^2} \quad (3) = \frac{(a_1 \sum X_3 Y)}{\sum Y^2}$$

$$r^2(2) = \frac{(a_2 \sum X_2 Y)}{\sum Y^2} r^2$$

4) Testing the significance with a significance test

Testing the regression line with the statistical significance (t) test. This test is performed to test the significance of the constants of each independent variable will have an effect on the dependent variable or proves that there is a partial effect, namely the formula, as follows:

$$t_{hitung} = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}} \quad (\text{Sudjana, 2002: 377})$$

- t : nilai  $t_{hitung}$
- r : koefisien korelasi
- n : jumlah responden

Distribusi (tabel 1) untuk  $\alpha = 0,05$  dan derajat kebebasan ( $dk=n-2$ ). If  $t_{hitung} \geq t_{tabel}$ , it can be said that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent is significant. Meanwhile, if  $t_{hitung} < t_{tabel}$ , it can be said that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent is not significant.

#### b. Multiple Regression Analysis

This analysis is used to test the 3<sup>rd</sup> hypothesis. This analysis used to determine the magnitude of the correlation coefficient between predictors (independent variable) together with the criteria (dependent variable). The steps taken in the regression analysis are as follows:

- 1) Finding the regression line equation with three predictors using Hadi's (2005:2) formula is as follows:

$$\hat{Y} = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 + k$$

Relative contributions are used to find relative relativity comparisons given an independent variable to the dependent variable according to Hadi (2005: 39).

$$SR\% = \frac{a \sum xy}{JK_{reg}} \times 100\%$$

Note:

- SR % : The relative contribution of a predictor
- a : Predictor coefficient
- $\sum xy$  : The number of products between X and Y
- $JK_{reg}$  : The sum of the squares of the regression

#### - Effective Contribution (SE%)

The effectiveness of the regression affectivity is reflected in the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), then SE% of each predictor can be calculated directly, with the formula according to Hadi (2005: 39).

$$SE\% = SR\% \times R^2 \quad SE\% = SR\% \times R^2$$

Note:

- SE% : Predictor Effective Contribution
- SR% : Predictor Relative Contribution
- $R^2$  : Coefficient of Determinant

## I. Statistical Hypothesis

The statistical hypothesis is also known as the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ). Null hypothesis states whether or not there is an influence of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y). The formulation of the statistical hypothesis in this study is as follows:

1.  $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$

- $\hat{Y}$  : Criteria  
 $x_1, x_2$  : Predictor 1, Predictor 2  
 $a_1, a_2$  : Predictor coefficient 1, Predictor coefficient 2  
 $k$  : Constant number

2) Finding for multiple correlation coefficients between  $X_1$  and  $X_2$

predictors with  $Y$  criterion using Hadi's (2005:22) formula as follows:

$$R_{Y(X_1, X_2)} = \frac{\sqrt{a_1} \sum x_1 y + a_2 (\sum x_2 y) + a_3 (\sum x_3 y)}{\sum y}$$

note:

$R_{Y(X_1, X_2)}$ : Correlation coefficient between variable  $Y$  and predictor  $X_1, X_2$

$a_1$  : The predictor coefficient of  $X_1$

$a_2$  : The predictor coefficient of  $X_2$

$\sum x_1 y$  : Number of products between  $X_1$  and  $Y$

$\sum x_2 y$  : The number of products between  $X_2$  and  $Y$

$\sum y^2$  : The sum of the squares of the  $Y$  criterion

3) Finding for multiple correlation coefficients between predictors  $X_1$

and  $X_2$  with  $Y$  criteria by using the formula according to Hadi

(2005:23) as following:

$$F_{reg} = \frac{R^2(N - m - 1)}{m(1 - R^2)}$$

Note:

$F_{reg}$  : Price  $F$  regression line

$N$  : Number of cases

$M$  : Count predictor

$R^2$  : The correlation coefficient between the criteria and its predictors

4) Finding for the relative and effective contribution of each predictor to

criterion.

- Relative Contribution (SR%)

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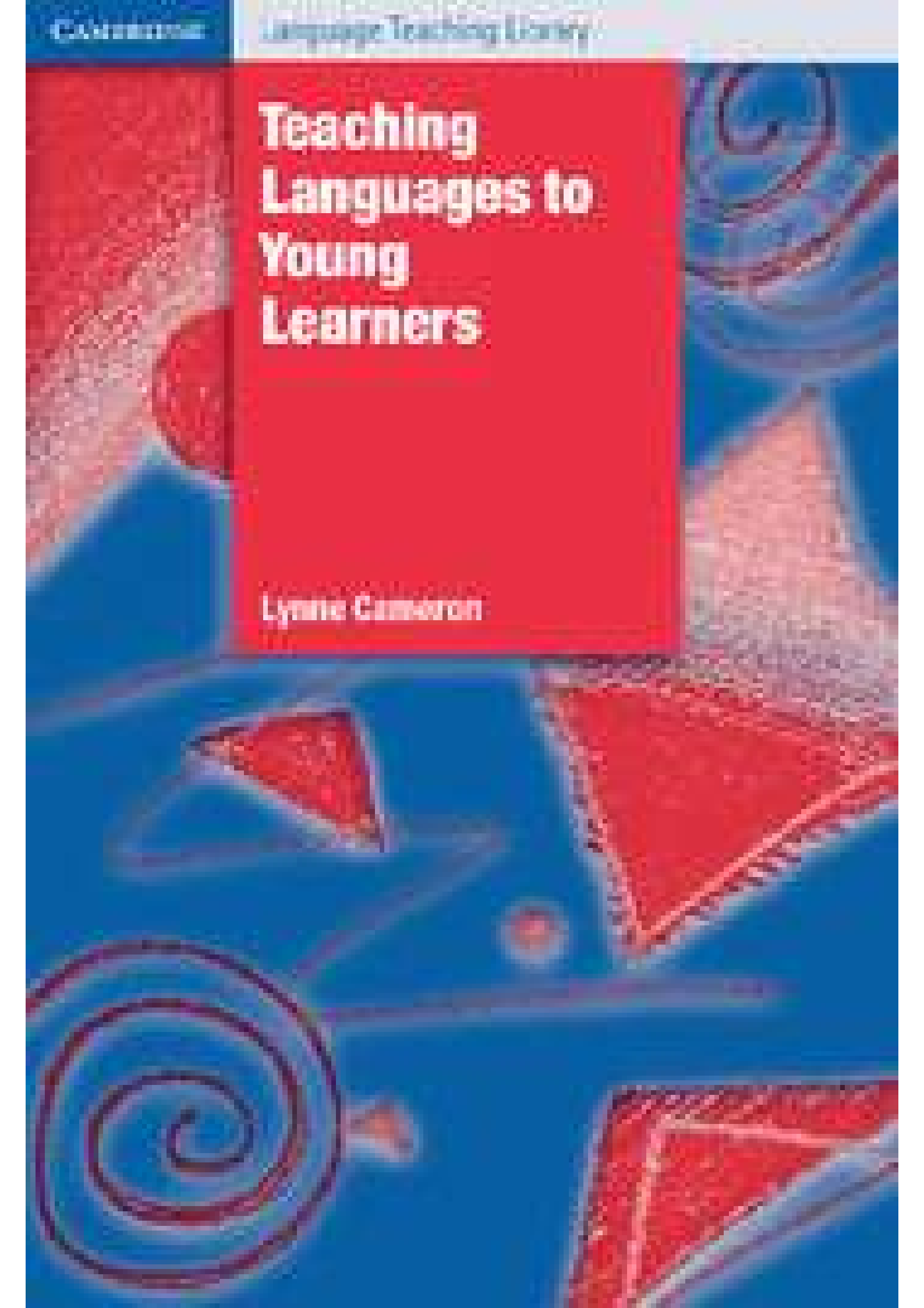
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# Teaching Languages to Young Learners

Lynne Cameron



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## 1.1 Taking a learning-centred perspective

What is different about teaching a foreign language to children, in contrast to teaching adults or adolescents? Some differences are immediately obvious: children are often more enthusiastic and lively as learners. They want to please the teacher rather than their peer group. They will have a go at an activity even when they don't quite understand why or how. However, they also lose interest more quickly and are less able to keep themselves motivated on tasks they find difficult. Children do not find it as easy to use language to talk about language; in other words, they do not have the same access as older learners to meta-language that teachers can use to explain about grammar or discourse. Children often seem less embarrassed than adults at talking in a new language, and their lack of inhibition seems to help them get a more native-like accent. But these are generalisations which hide the detail of different children, and of the skills involved in teaching them. We need to unpack the generalisations to find out what lies underneath as characteristic of children as language learners. We will find that important differences do arise from the linguistic, psychological and social development of the learners, and that, as a result, we need to adjust the way we think about the language we teach and the classroom activities we use. Although conventional language teaching terms like 'grammar' and 'listening' are used in connection with the young learner classroom, understanding of what these mean *to the children who are learning them* may need to differ from how they are understood in mainstream language teaching.

In the learning-centred perspective taken in this book, knowledge about children's learning is seen as central to effective teaching. Successful lessons and activities are those that are tuned to the learning needs of pupils, rather than to the demands of the next text-book unit, or to the interests of the teacher. I distinguish a *learning-centred* perspective from '*learner-centred*' teaching. Learner-centred teaching places the child at the centre of teacher thinking and curriculum planning. While this is a great improvement on placing the subject or the curriculum at the centre, I have found that it is not enough. In centring on the child, we risk losing sight of what it is we are trying to do in schools, and of the enormous potential that lies beyond the child.

## 4 Learning words

### 4.1 Introduction

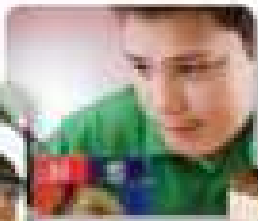
The previous chapter was concerned with children using the foreign language as discourse in the classroom and how such use might work to promote learning. This chapter deals with the development of vocabulary as a language resource.

Building up a useful vocabulary is central to the learning of a foreign language at primary level. While opinions differ as to how much grammar of the foreign language can be taught, children are clearly capable of learning foreign language words through participating in the discourse of classroom activities. Vocabulary has moved to centre stage in foreign language teaching in recent years, backed by substantial and increasing research (e.g. Carter and McCarthy 1988; Coady and Huckin 1997; Schmitt and Meara 1997; Singleton 1999; Read 2000). Alongside the growing importance of vocabulary, there are fascinating and, I suspect, very significant, changes taking place in how we think about the relative nature and roles of vocabulary and grammar. The more we find out about how words work in language and how vocabulary is learnt, stored and used, the more difficult it becomes to uphold the traditional split between vocabulary and grammar. Much important grammatical information is tied into words, and learning words can take students a long way into grammar. This suggests that if we give a high priority to vocabulary development, we are not thereby abandoning grammar. Rather, vocabulary learning can serve as a stepping stone to learning and using grammar. The interrelation of vocabulary and grammar in language learning will be taken further in the next chapter.

The chapter begins with an overview of vocabulary development. Children are still building up their first language vocabulary, and this development is intimately tied up with conceptual development. In planning and teaching a foreign language, we need to take account of this first language background to know what will work and what may be too difficult for children. It also becomes quickly apparent that learning a new word is not a simple task that is done once and then completed.

The second part of the chapter covers the many different aspects of vocabulary knowledge involved in learning words, and sets out princi-

# Educational PSYCHOLOGY



5<sup>th</sup>  
EDITION

John W. Santrock



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## 2 ACHIEVEMENT PROCESSES



The current interest in motivation in school has been fueled by the cognitive perspective and an emphasis on discovering the most important processes involved in students' achievement (Anderman & Anderman, 2010; Winne & Nesbit, 2010). In this section we will study a number of effective cognitive strategies for improving students' motivation to achieve. We'll begin by exploring a crucial distinction between extrinsic (external) and intrinsic (internal) motivation. That will lead us to examine several other important cognitive insights about motivation. Then we will study the role of expectations in students' motivation.

### EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

**Extrinsic motivation involves doing something to obtain something else (a means to an end).** Extrinsic motivation is often influenced by external incentives such as rewards and punishments. For example, a student may study hard for a test in order to obtain a good grade in the course.

The behavioral perspective emphasizes the importance of extrinsic motivation in achievement; the humanistic and cognitive approaches stress the importance of intrinsic motivation in achievement. **Intrinsic motivation involves the internal motivation to do something for its own sake (an end in itself).** For example, a student may study hard for a test because she enjoys the content of the course.

Current evidence strongly favors establishing a classroom climate in which students are intrinsically motivated to learn (Ryan & Deci, 2009). For example, a study of third- through eighth-grade students found that intrinsic motivation was positively linked with grades and standardized test scores, whereas extrinsic motivation was negatively related to achievement outcomes (Lepper, Corpus, & Iyengar, 2005). When goals are framed extrinsically, students show a lower level of independent motivation and lower persistence on achievement tasks (Vansteenkiste & others, 2008).

Parental intrinsic/extrinsic motivational practices are also linked to children's motivation. In one study, children had higher intrinsic motivation in math and science from 9 to 17 years of age when their parents engaged in task-intrinsic practices (encouraging children's pleasure and engagement in learning) than when their parents engaged in task-extrinsic practices (providing external rewards and consequences contingent on children's performance) (Grolnick & others, 2009).

Students are more motivated to learn when they are given choices, become absorbed in challenges that match their skills, and receive rewards that have informational value but are not used for control. Praise also can enhance students' intrinsic motivation. To see why these things are so, let's first explore four types of intrinsic motivation: (1) self-determination and personal choice, (2) optimal experiences and flow, (3) interest, and (4) cognitive engagement and self-responsibility. Then we'll discuss how extrinsic rewards can either enhance or undermine intrinsic motivation. Next we will identify some developmental changes in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as students move up the educational ladder. Finally, we will offer some concluding thoughts about intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

**Self-Determination and Personal Choice** One view of intrinsic motivation emphasizes self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2009). In this view, students want to believe that they are doing something because of their own will, not



These students were given an opportunity to write and perform their own play. Such types of self-determining opportunities can enhance students' motivation to achieve.

**extrinsic motivation** The external motivation to do something to obtain something else (a means to an end).

**intrinsic motivation** The internal motivation to do something for its own sake (an end in itself).

## WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

**Motivation involves the processes that energize, direct, and sustain behavior.** Why did Terry Fox do this run? When Terry was hospitalized with cancer, he told himself that if he survived he would do something to help fund cancer research. Thus, the motivation for his run was to give purpose to his life by helping other people with cancer.

Terry Fox's behavior was energized, directed, and sustained. Running across most of Canada, he encountered unforeseen hurdles: severe headwinds, heavy rain, snow, and icy roads. Because of these conditions, he averaged only eight miles a day after the first month, far below what he had planned. But he kept going and picked up the pace in the second month until he was back on track. His example stands as a testimonial to how motivation can help each of us prevail.

Terry Fox's story is portrayed in a good classroom film, *The Power of Purpose*. One sixth-grade teacher showed the film to her class and then asked her students to write down what they learned from it. One student wrote, "I learned that even if something bad happens to you, you have to keep going, keep trying. Even if your body gets hurt, it can't take away your spirit."

Let's look at another example of motivation. Lance Armstrong was an accomplished cyclist when he was diagnosed with testicular cancer in 1996. Chances of his recovery were estimated at less than 50 percent when he began chemotherapy. However, Lance did recover from the cancer and set a goal of winning the three-week, 2,000-plus-mile Tour de France, the world's premier bicycle race and one of the great tests of human motivation in sports. Day after day, Lance trained intensely, keeping the goal of winning the Tour de France in mind. Lance won the Tour de France not once but seven years in a row from 1999 through 2005.

As with Terry Fox's marathon run and Lance Armstrong's winning of the Tour de France, motivation in the classroom involves why students are behaving in a particular way and the extent to which their behavior is energized, directed, and sustained. If students don't complete an assignment because they are bored, lack of motivation is involved. If students encounter challenges in researching and writing a paper, but persist and overcome hurdles, motivation is involved.

## PERSPECTIVES ON MOTIVATION

Different psychological perspectives explain motivation in different ways. Let's explore four of these perspectives: behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, and social.

**The Behavioral Perspective** The behavioral perspective emphasizes external rewards and punishments as keys in determining a student's motivation. **Incentives** are positive or negative stimuli or events that can motivate a student's behavior. Advocates of the use of incentives emphasize that they add interest or excitement to the class and direct attention toward appropriate behavior and away from inappropriate behavior (Emmer & Everson, 2009).

Incentives that classroom teachers use include numerical scores and letter grades, which provide feedback about the quality of the student's work, and checkmarks or stars for competently completing work. Other incentives include giving students recognition—for example, by displaying their work, giving them a certificate of achievement, placing them on the honor roll, and verbally mentioning their accomplishments. Another type of incentive focuses on allowing students to do something special—such as playing computer games or going on a field trip—as a reward for good work. Shortly, in our discussion of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, we will look more closely at the issue of whether incentives are a good idea.

**The Humanistic Perspective** The humanistic perspective stresses students' capacity for personal growth, freedom to choose their destiny, and positive qualities (such as being sensitive to others). This perspective is closely associated with Abraham

**motivation** The processes that energize, direct, and sustain behavior.

**incentives** Positive or negative stimuli or events that can motivate a student's behavior.

**humanistic perspective** A view that stresses students' capacity for personal growth, freedom to choose their destiny, and positive qualities.

# ENGLISH-SPEAKING ISSUES TOWARDS INDONESIA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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## Abstract

*This research was carried out to invent the problems of the English-speaking anxiety of senior high school students in Indonesia. Several studies have reported that senior high school students show that they lack speaking skills in the EFL region, particularly in Indonesia. To decompose data, we use the Meta-Analysis Process. The findings showed that there are five major barriers to the English-speaking anxiety of senior high school students in Indonesia, made up of (1) lack of knowledge of vocabulary, (2) grammar as a stumbling block, (3) fear of others' negative reactions, (4) low bravery when speaking publicly in English, (5) anxiety when speaking English. Suggestions and effects are discussed as well, that the teacher should be more aware of student's anxiety in order to arouse students' motivation to speak up confidently and fluently in English speaking in Indonesia.*

*Keywords: Students, speaking, anxiety.*

## INTRODUCTION

This research drew on a larger study to identify and understand the sources of senior high school students' English language speaking anxiety in Indonesia. The aim of this paper was to report findings from meta-analysis data on the sources of the English-speaking anxiety of senior high school students in Indonesia.

As an EFL country, teaching and learning English language in Indonesia has been challenging. Moreover, the study revealed that high achievers tend to use approximation methods, to get help and turn to a mother tongue. In the area of communication strategies, Dewi (2007) investigated the strategies deployed by Indonesian senior high school students in overcoming speaking problems. Even though Indonesia as an EFL country, English's position as a medium of international communication is unavoidable. By considering the importance of English, the government put the English as a mandatory subject at school, started from junior high school to college. However, in reality many students still cannot speak English although they have been studying English for many years. Many students feeling anxiety when speaking English, even some of them don't know how to speak English properly. This fact is in line with what Young

(1990) claimed, "Speaking in the ign language is often cited by students as their most anxiety-producing experience" (p. 539) and speaking in a foreign language has been in general acknowledged as the most anxiety-provoking skill (Price, 1991; Palacios, 1998). There are a few possibilities from this point. Firstly, the time to learn English subject at school is limited. Secondly, at some schools, teaching English through Indonesian is carried out. Thirdly, English subject is not used as a teaching medium for other subjects. Another important reason is students in Indonesia never use their English language to each other. That's why the English language degree is not so frequently in the field of education.

Speaking is the most important skills for English language learners need to be developed (Tinjaca & Contrens, 2008) because it is the ability to communicate with others and requires a wide variety of skills (Hadfield & Hadfield, 2012). Harner (2007) notes that effective communication is not only know the characteristics of language, but also the ability to process knowledge. Nonetheless, not all students are able to learn the language orally, given the need for both language features and social processing.

The challenges of speaking English for students in EFL country have been the subject

of many previous studies. Mukminia, Masbirotmi, Noprival, Sutarno, Arif, Maimunah (2015); Noprival, (2016); Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, (1896); Young, (1991); Tinjaca and Contreras (2008). Even language anxiety and foreign language speaking anxiety have been explored by several studies, however, not much studies examine precisely the origins of the anxiety of senior high school students to speak English in Indonesia.

This study is taken to fill the gap of Indonesian senior high school students speaking anxiety in English language. This paper aimed to report some findings on the origins of the anxiety of senior high school students to speak English, particularly on what causes students to be silent in the classroom. The main question that influenced this study was: 'What are the causes or factors of anxiety among senior high school students speaking English?'

## METHOD

The aims of this paper was to report on some results of the qualitative previous studies about the senior high school students' anxiety among English language in Indonesia. In this research, we used a qualitative study as the research approach to identify the sources of senior high school students' speaking difficulties.

We conducted current research at one senior high school in Jambi province, Indonesia and several public senior high school in East Java, Indonesia. A purposeful sampling with a convenience case plan was used in this analysis. According to Merriam (1998), purposive sampling emphasizes on a criterion-based selection of information rich cases from which a researcher can discover, understand, and gain more insight on crucial issues for the study.

In this research, the data were collected through meta-analysis methods for reviewing from several studies among Indonesian senior high school students' speaking English anxiety.

## RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this qualitative study was to analyze the English speaking problems faced by senior high school students in Indonesia. I coordinated review and discussion from several article that has the same discussion as this article theme. An analysis data found that five main topics were linked to the problems of students speaking English, including (1) lack of

knowledge of vocabulary, (2) grammar as a stumbling block, (3) fear of others' negative reactions, (4) low bravery when speaking publicly in English, (5) anxiety when speaking English.

**Table 1. Themes of the English speaking issues faced by Indonesian students**

No.	Themes
1	Lack of knowledge of vocabulary
2	Grammar as a stumbling block
3	Fear of others' negative reactions
4	Low bravery when speaking publicly in English
5	Anxiety when speaking English

### 1. Lack of knowledge of vocabulary

Learning a new language cannot be separated from the vocabulary. Vocabulary can be defined in many ways. Knowing vocabulary in English is also very important in the process of learning English because if we comprehend the vocabulary, we can easily use the words we want to convey. Experts have proposed several terms about vocabulary. According to Richards and Renandya (2002: 255), vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how learners speak, listen, read, and write. In distinction of several articles, it comes up that senior high school students in Indonesia had a low speaking ability. Even, the students admitted that vocabulary was a major problem.

The problems occur when students who lack of vocabulary need to talk and does not know how to combine the words into a good sentence. Khan (2005) once again states that the numbers of students who learn English as a foreign language have difficulties using words and expressions to speak. Students clearly know what they are going to say in the source of language, but when they have to switch the language itself into the target language such as English, they often get confused how to combine and use the proper vocabularies.

### 2. Grammar as a stumbling block

Language learners and language teachers, the pedagogical central role of language teachers is to teach grammar and correct the mistakes of learners. While teaching using a communicative approach, grammar as the use of language represents the foundation for communication.



# Missing in Action: Vocabulary Instruction in Pre-K

Susan B. Neuman, Julie Dwyer

Strategies that introduce young children to new words and entice them to engage in meaningful contexts through semantically related activities are much needed.

**T**alk may be cheap, but it's priceless for developing young minds. Research confirms the importance of language interaction and its profound influences on vocabulary development and reading proficiency (Dickinson & Neuman, 2006). In *Meaningful Differences in the Everyday Experience of Young American Children*, Hart and Risley's (1995) landmark study of early language development, children who scored highest in reading and math at age 10 were reported to have heard 45 million words from birth to age 3, or about 30,000 words per day, compared with those children who scored lowest, at 13 million words. Trends in the amount of talk—the actual trajectory of vocabulary growth—and the styles of interaction were well established at 3 years old, only a harbinger of greater gaps to come.

It's not only the quantity but the quality of talk that plays such an important role in children's lives and future possibilities. Longitudinal studies (Sénéchal, Ouellette, & Rodney, 2006) have demonstrated the critical contribution of a rich foundation of vocabulary knowledge to reading comprehension and achievement. In a meta-analysis of 61 studies, for example, Scarborough (1998) found a significant mean correlation of 0.46 between the complexity of kindergarten vocabulary and student reading achievement two years later. Moreover, unlike constrained skills such as alphabetic knowledge, these relationships persist over time. Cunningham and Stanovich (1997) reported that vocabulary size in 1st grade strongly predicted reading comprehension in 11th grade—a full 10 years later.

The most plausible explanation for vocabulary's connection to better reading ability is that vocabulary is more than words. It is knowledge. To know a word's meaning is to know what a word represents and to begin to understand the network of concepts that goes with it (Stahl & Murray, 1994; Stahl & Nagy, 2006). Research studies (Vollumso, Fletcher, Snowling, & Scanlon, 2004) suggest that it is this rich interconnection of knowledge that drives children's comprehension. Further, knowledge of new words builds upon prior knowledge (Hirsch, 2003). It is cumulative and interactive. The more words you know, the easier it is to learn more words. Even before they enter formal schooling (Neuman, 2006), young children will need a fairly extensive knowledge network of words and concepts to successfully learn to read and comprehend.

Given its substantial role in reading development and the significant vocabulary gap prior to age 4, one would expect to find an emphasis on vocabulary early on, especially in the preschool and primary grades years. Paradoxically, this appears not to be the case. Neuman and Roskos (2005) in their examination of early learning pre-K standards, for example, found that states in the U.S. rarely included specific vocabulary guidelines. Likewise, Beck & McKeown (2007) in their extensive studies reported a paucity of rich, explicit instruction in vocabulary development in the primary grades. Summarizing the research on vocabulary teaching, the National Reading Panel report (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [MCHD], 2000), as well, found little evidence of intentional vocabulary instruction in the early grades.

As the Early Reading First legislation and the recent reauthorization of Head Start make clear, however, curriculum can play an important role in promoting research-based practices. Given the recent attention to pre-K and its important role in promoting vocabulary and school readiness skills,

It seemed logical to examine whether curriculum could provide specific help for teaching vocabulary. Although teachers' manuals and instructional materials clearly do not represent enacted curriculum, a review of these materials could illuminate the prevalence of vocabulary instruction and the pedagogical practices used to support the learning of words and their meanings.

## Our Approach

Recognizing the importance of starting early, the purpose of our project was to examine if and how vocabulary was taught in commercially prepared early literacy curricula for pre-K. Because Early Reading First—a federally funded early childhood program for preschoolers—requires the use of a scientifically based curriculum, it seemed reasonable to select the most common instructional programs adopted by grant recipients. Twelve curriculum programs were identified from grant years 2005, 2006, and 2007. Together, these programs were likely to reach more than 41,000 children throughout this grant program alone. Two programs were eliminated from analysis: High Scope and Building Language for Literacy. The first appeared to be more of a general approach to preschool instruction rather than a targeted literacy program. The second was eliminated because of a conflict of interest.

Contacting representatives from the publishing companies associated with each of the curricula, we requested teachers' manuals and auxiliary materials (e.g., children's books, alphabet cards, etc.). All programs had copyright dates of 1995 or later. Therefore, each program had ample opportunity to include current research in language and vocabulary and its role in learning to read (NICHD, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) and to disseminate what was learned from these consensus documents to form specific suggestions for teaching vocabulary and word meaning in the early years.

Because our goal was to look broadly across curricula, we chose to disguise the names of the curricula, referring to each by a letter name. A full list of the curricula and their publishers are provided in Table 1. Letter names for the curricula used in this article do not correlate to the order shown in Table 1.

**Table 1**  
Curriculum Programs

Breakthrough to Literacy. (2004). New York: Wright Group/McGraw Hill.
D.L.M. Early Childhood Express, Ready, Set, Leap. (2004). New York: Wright Group/McGraw Hill.
Early Childhood Program. (2003). New York: Scholastic.
Houghton Mifflin Pre-K. (2006). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
Open Court Pre-K Reading Program. (2003). New York: SRA/McGraw Hill.
Opening the World of Learning. (2005). New York: Pearson.
Pebble Soup. (2002). Austin, TX: Rigby.
Leap. (2003). Emeryville, CA: LeapFrog.
Rigby's Activate Early Learning. (2005). Austin, TX: Harcourt Achieve.
Trophies Storytown. (2007). New York: Harcourt.

## Conceptualizing Vocabulary and Vocabulary Instruction

Vocabulary refers to the words we must know to communicate effectively: words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary). Children use the words they hear to make sense of the words they will eventually see in print. Vocabulary instruction, therefore, must be more than merely identifying or labeling words. Rather, it should be about helping children to build word meaning and the ideas that these words represent. By understanding words and their connections to concepts and facts, children develop skills that will help in comprehending text.

Although much of the literature on vocabulary instruction focuses on the primary and the upper grade levels, consensus documents (Bowman, Donovan, & Burns, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998) and reviews of best practices suggest that effective teaching should do the following:

- Be systematic and explicit, providing children with plenty of opportunities to use words in classroom transactions (Pressley, 2001; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley, & Hangerston, 1998).
- Involve a good deal of practice that is active, guided, and extensive (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Hoffman, 1991).

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**vitrify** /vɪ'traɪf/ verb (vt) (fml) vit-rif-ee-eyng, vit-rif-ee-d, vit-rif-ee-d; n. || —**adj** (special) to change or make sth change into glass, or a substance like glass • vit-rif-ee-tion /vɪ'traɪf-ee-ɪʃən/ noun (U)

**vitriol** /vɪ'trɪəl/ noun (U) (fml) (used) very cruel and bitter comments or criticism **☞** abuse

**vitriolic** (vɪ'trɪ-ə-lik) /vɪ'trɪ-ə-lik/ adj (fml) (used) of language or comments full of anger and hatred **☞** bitter The newspaper launched a vitriolic attack on the president.

**vitro** **▶** see **VITRO**

**vituperation** /vɪ'tjʊp-er-ee-ɪ-ʃən/ /vɪ'tjʊp-er-ee-ɪ-ʃən/ || (fml) (used) cruel and angry criticism **☞** abuse • vit-uper-ative /vɪ'tjʊp-er-ə-tɪv/ /vɪ'tjʊp-er-ə-tɪv/ adj (fml) a vituperative attack

**viva** /vɪ'va/ exclamation used for expressing support for sb or sth

**viva** /vɪ'va/ noun (pl) a viva viva

**vivace** /vɪ'væ-tʃ-ee/ noun (mus) /vɪ'v-ə-ʃ-ee/ a piece of music to be played in a quick lively way • viv-ace-ly adv

**vivacious** /vɪ'veɪ-ʃ-əs/ /vɪ'v-ə-ʃ-əs/ adj (informal) respectably of a woman having a lively, attractive personality: He had three pretty, vivacious daughters. • viv-acious-ly adv • viv-acious-ly /vɪ'veɪ-ʃ-əs-lee/ /vɪ'v-ə-ʃ-əs-lee/ (U): He was charmed by her beauty and vivacity.

**vivarium** /vɪ'væ-ri-əm/ /vɪ'v-ə-ri-əm/ noun (pl) viv-ə-ri-ə /vɪ'v-ə-ri-ə/ noun (pl) /vɪ'v-ə-ri-ə/ a container for keeping live animals in, especially for scientific study

**viva voce** /vɪ'və-voʊ-ʃ-ee/ /vɪ'v-ə-voʊ-ʃ-ee/ (fml) also **viva-voce** noun (used with a spoken exam, especially in a British university)

**vive la différence** /vɪv-lə-ˌdɪf-er-əns/ /vɪ'v-ə-ˌdɪf-er-əns/ exclamation (from French, formal) used to show that you think it is good that there is a difference between two people or things, especially a difference between men and women

**vivid** /vɪ'vɪd/ adj 1 (of memories, a description, etc.) producing very clear pictures in your mind **☞** graphic vivid memories • He gave a vivid account of his life as a fighter pilot. 2 (of light, colours, etc.) very bright vivid blue eyes • a vivid red • vividly /vɪ'vɪd-lee/ adv 1 (of sb's imagination) able to form pictures of ideas, situations, etc. easily in the mind • vividly adv: I vividly remember the day we first met. vividness /vɪ'vɪd-nəs/ noun (U) the vividness of my dream

**viviparous** /vɪ'vɪ-p-er-əs/ adj (biol) (of an animal) producing live babies from its body rather than eggs **▶** CONVERSE VIVIPAROUS, OVIDIPAROUS

**vivisection** /vɪ'vɪ-ʃ-ən/ noun (U) the practice of doing experiments on live animals for medical or scientific research

**vivo** **▶** see **VIVO**

**vixen** /vɪk-sən/ noun 1 a female fox (= a wild animal of the dog family) 2 (informal) an unpleasant and bad-tempered woman

**viz.** /vɪz/ adv (fml) (used especially BrE) used to introduce a list of things that explain sth more clearly or are given as examples **☞** namely four major colleges of surgery, viz. London, Glasgow, Edinburgh and Dublin

**vizier** /vɪ'zɪ-ər/ /vɪ'z-ər/ noun (also **vazir**) noun an important official in some Muslim countries in the past

**VJ** /vi: dʒen/ noun a video journal

**VLE** /vi: el/ noun (pl) the abbreviation for 'virtual learning environment' is software system for teaching and learning using the Internet

**vlei** /vlei/ noun (SAF) (C, U) an area of low land that is always wet and wet; a shallow natural pool of water

**V-mail** noun (U) NAME 'V-mail' • VOICE-MAIL He didn't only call, text and receive V-mail messages.

**V-neck** noun an opening for the neck in a piece of clothing shaped like the letter V, a piece of clothing with a V-neck • a V-neck sweater • a navy V-neck **▶** VISUAL NOOBS PEAR VOT **▶** VISUAL AT NOOBS • V-necked adj • a V-necked sweater

**VOA** /voʊ-ə-ˌveɪ-ʃ-ən/ noun (U) VOICES OF AMERICA

**vo-cab-u-lary** /və'kæb-ju-l-er-ee/ /və'k-ju-l-er-ee/ noun (C, U) (pl) -er-ee 1 (used) the words that a person knows or uses; to have a wide/limited vocabulary • your active vocabulary is the words that you use • your passive vocabulary is the words that you understand but don't use • Reading will increase your vocabulary. • The word 'failure' is not in her vocabulary (= for her, failure does not count). **▶** SYNONYMS AT LEXICONS **▶** SEE ALSO VOCABULARY VOCABULARY 2 (used) the words in a particular language: When did the word 'hangover' first enter the vocabulary? **▶** SYNONYMS AT LEXICONS 3 the words that people use when they are talking about a particular subject: The word has become part of advertising vocabulary. **▶** SYNONYMS AT LEXICONS 4 (used) a list of words with their meanings, especially in a book for learning a foreign language **▶** WORDS UNDER NOTE AT WORDS

**vocal** /vəʊ-kəl/ /və'k-əl/ adj noun

**adj.** 1 (only before noun) connected with the voice: vocal music • the vocal organs (= the tongue, lips, etc.) **▶** SYNONYMS AT LEXICONS **▶** WORDS UNDER NOTE AT VOICE 2 (used) people give opinions or protesting about sth loudly and with confidence: He has been very vocal in his criticism of the government's policy. • The protesters are a small but vocal minority.

**noun** (usually pl) the part of a piece of music that is sung, rather than played on a musical instrument: backing vocals • In this recording Armstrong himself is on vocals.

**vocal cords** noun (pl) the thin strips of tissue in the throat that are moved by the flow of air to produce the voice

**vo-cal-ic** /və'kæ-lik/ /və'k-ə-lik/ adj (grammar) relating to or consisting of a vowel or vowels **▶** CONVERSE VOWELIC

**vo-cal-ist** /və'kæ-ll-ɪst/ /və'k-ə-ll-ɪst/ noun a singer, especially in a pop, rock or soul band • lead/guest/backing vocalist **▶** CONVERSE VOCALISTS

**vo-cal-iza-tion** /və'kæ-ll-ə-ɪ-z-ee-ɪ-ʃ-ən/ /və'k-ə-ll-ə-ɪ-z-ee-ɪ-ʃ-ən/ noun (pl) -ee-ɪ-ʃ-ən 1 (U) a word or sound that is produced by the voice: the vocalizations of animals. 2 (U) the process of producing a word or sound with the voice

**vo-cal-ize** /və'kæ-ll-ə-ɪ-z-ee/ /və'k-ə-ll-ə-ɪ-z-ee/ verb (trans) 1 (U) —**sth** to use words to express sth **☞** articulate, express: Showing children pictures sometimes helps them to vocalize their ideas. 2 (U, U) —**adv** to say or sing sounds or words: Your baby will begin to vocalize long before she can talk.

**vo-cally** /və'kæ-ll-ee/ /və'k-ə-ll-ee/ adv 1 in a way that uses the voice to communicate vocally 2 by speaking in a loud and confident way: They protested vocally.

**vo-ca-tion** /və'kæ-ʃ-ən/ /və'k-ə-ʃ-ən/ noun 1 (C) a type of work or way of life that you believe is especially suitable for you **☞** calling: Nursing is not just a job—it's a vocation. • She believes that she has found her true vocation in life. • You missed your vocation—you should have been an actor • a vocation (of) one 2 (C, U) —**the sth** a belief that a particular type of work or way of life is especially suitable for you: He has a vocation for teaching. • She is a doctor with a strong sense of vocation. 3 (C, U) a belief that you have been chosen by God to be a priest or nun; a vocation in the priesthood

**vo-ca-tional** /və'kæ-ʃ-ən-əl/ /və'k-ə-ʃ-ən-əl/ adj connected with the skills, knowledge, etc. that you need to have in order to do a particular job: vocational education/qualification/teaching

**vo-ca-tional school** noun (C, U) in the US a school that teaches skills that are necessary for particular jobs

**vocative** /və'kæ-ʃ-eev/ /və'k-ə-ʃ-eev/ noun (grammar) (in some languages) the form of a noun, a pronoun or an adjective used when talking to a person or thing **▶** CONVERSE VOCATIVE VOCATIVE, GENITIVE, NOMINATIVE • vocative adj: the vocative case

**vo-cif-er-ous** /və'kɪ-f-er-əs/ /və'k-ə-ʃ-eev-əs/ adj (fml) expressing your opinions or feelings in a loud and confident way **☞** vibrant, vociferous protests • a vociferous critic of the president's stance • vociferously adv: to complain vociferously

**vod-cast** /və'vɒ-d-ə-ʃ-ən/ /və'v-ə-ʃ-eev-əs/ noun a videotape or video with video content: She plans to create a vodcast tour of her studio for the DVD or DVD menu. • vodcasting noun (U) Many newspapers are choosing

**vit-rify** /'vɪtrɪfaɪ/ verb (vit-ri-fies, vit-ri-fy-ing, vit-ri-fied, vit-ri-fied) [I, T] ~(sth) (specialist) to change or make sth change into glass, or a substance like glass ▶ **vit-ri-fi-ca-tion** /'vɪtrɪfɪ'keɪʃn/ noun [U]

**vit-riol** /'vɪtriəl/ noun [U] (formal) very cruel and bitter comments or criticism **SYN** abuse

**vit-ri-ol-ic** /'vɪtri'ɒlɪk; NAmE -'ɑ:lɪk/ adj. (formal) (of language or comments) full of anger and hatred **SYN** bitter: The newspaper launched a vitriolic attack on the president.

**vitro** ⇨ IN VITRO

**vi-tu-per-ation** /vɪ'tju:pə'reɪʃn; NAmE vaɪ'tu:-/ noun [U] (formal) cruel and angry criticism **SYN** abuse ▶ **vi-tu-per-a-tive** /vɪ'tju:pərə'tɪv; NAmE vaɪ'tu:pə'reɪtɪv/ adj.: a vituperative attack

**viva**<sup>1</sup> /'vi:və/ exclamation used for expressing support for sb or sth

**viva**<sup>2</sup> /'vaɪvə/ noun (BrE) = VIVA VOCE

**viv-ace** /vɪ'vɑ:tʃeɪ/ noun (music, from Italian) a piece of music to be played in a quick lively way ▶ **viv-ace** adv., adj.

**viv-a-cious** /vɪ'veɪʃəs; NAmE also vaɪ'v-/ adj. (approving) (especially of a woman) having a lively, attractive personality: He had three pretty, vivacious daughters. ▶ **viv-a-cious-ly** adv. **viv-a-city** /vɪ'væsəti; NAmE also vaɪ'v-/ noun [U]: He was charmed by her beauty and vivacity.

**viv-ar-ium** /vaɪ'veəriəm; vɪ'v-; NAmE -'ver-/ noun (pl. viv-ar-ia /vaɪ'veəriə; vɪ'v-; NAmE -'ver-/) a container for keeping live animals in, especially for scientific study

**viva voce** /vɪvə'voʊs; NAmE 'voʊs/ (BrE also vɪvə)

**vo-cab-u-lary** ③ /və'kæbjələri; NAmE -ləri/ noun [C, U] (pl. -ies) **1** ʔ all the words that a person knows or uses: to have a wide/limited vocabulary ◊ your active vocabulary (= the words that you use) ◊ your passive vocabulary (= the words that you understand but don't use) ◊ Reading will increase your vocabulary. ◊ The word 'failure' is not in his vocabulary (= for him, failure does not exist).

⇨ **SYNONYMS AT LANGUAGE** ⇨ **SEE ALSO** DEFINING VOCABULARY **2** ʔ all the words in a particular language: When did the word 'bungalow' first enter the vocabulary? ⇨ **SYNONYMS AT LANGUAGE** **3** the words that people use when they are talking about a particular subject: The word has become part of advertising vocabulary. ⇨ **SYNONYMS AT LANGUAGE** **4** (also informal **vocab** /'vəʊkæb; NAmE 'voʊkæb/) a list of words with their meanings, especially in a book for learning a foreign language ⇨ **WORDFINDER NOTE AT WORD**

**vocal** /'vəʊkl; NAmE 'voʊkl/ adj., noun

■ **adj.** **1** [only before noun] connected with the voice: vocal music ◊ the vocal organs (= the tongue, lips, etc.) ⇨ **SYNONYMS AT SPOKEN** ⇨ **WORDFINDER NOTE AT SING** **2** telling people your opinions or protesting about sth loudly and with confidence: He has been very vocal in his criticism of the government's policy. ◊ The protesters are a small but vocal minority.

■ **noun** [usually pl.] the part of a piece of music that is sung, rather than played on a musical instrument: backing vocals ◊ In this recording Armstrong himself is on vocals.

**vocal 'cords** noun [pl.] the thin strips of TISSUE in the throat that are moved by the flow of air to produce the voice

**vo-cal-ic** /vəʊ'kælɪk; NAmE voʊ-/ adj. (phonetics) relating to or consisting of a vowel or vowels ⇨ **COMPARE CONSONANTAL**



**compound eye** *noun* (biology) an eye like that of most insects, made up of several parts that work separately

**compound fracture** *noun* an injury in which a bone in the body is broken and part of the bone comes through the skin ◊ COMPARE SIMPLE FRACTURE

**compound interest** *noun* [U] interest that is paid both on the original amount of money saved and on the interest that has been added to it ◊ COMPARE SIMPLE INTEREST

**com-pre-hend** /kəm'pri:hend; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *verb* [I, T] (often used in negative sentences) (formal) to understand sth fully: *He stood staring at the dead body, unable to comprehend.* ◊ **-sth** *The infinite distances of space are too great for the human mind to comprehend.* ◊ **-how/why, etc...** *She could not comprehend how someone would risk people's lives in that way.* ◊ **-that...** *He simply could not comprehend that she could be guilty.* ◊ SYNONYMS AT UNDERSTAND

**com-pre-hen-sible** /kəm'pri:hensəbl; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *adj.* **-(to sb)** (formal) that can be understood by sb: *easily/readily comprehensible to the average reader* **OPPOSITE** incomprehensible ▶ **com-pre-hen-si-bil-i-ty** /kəm'pri:hensə'bɪləti; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *noun* [U]

**com-pre-hen-sion** /kəm'pri:hənʃn; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *noun* **1** [U] **the ability to understand:** *speech and comprehension* ◊ *His behaviour was completely beyond comprehension* (= impossible to understand). ◊ *She had no comprehension of what was involved.* **2** [U, C] an exercise that trains students to understand a language: *listening comprehension* ◊ *a reading comprehension*

**com-pre-hen-sive** **AWL** /kəm'pri:hensɪv; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *adj., noun*

◊ **adj.** **1** including all, or almost all, the items, details, facts, information, etc., that may be concerned **SYN** complete, full: *a comprehensive list of addresses* ◊ *a comprehensive study* ◊ *comprehensive insurance* (= covering all risks) **2** (BrE) (of education) designed for students of all abilities in the same school ▶ **com-pre-hen-sive-ness** *noun* [U]

◊ **noun** (also comprehensive school) (also informal comp) (in Britain) a secondary school for young people of all levels of ability

**com-pre-hen-sive-ly** **AWL** /kəm'pri:hensɪvli; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *adv.* completely; thoroughly: *They were comprehensively beaten in the final.*

or more things cannot exist together as they are, in which each thing is reduced or changed slightly so that they can exist together: *This model represents the best compromise between price and quality.* **3** [U] the act of reaching a compromise: *Compromise is an inevitable part of life.* ◊ *There is no prospect of compromise in sight.*

◊ **verb** **1** [I] to give up some of your demands after a disagreement with sb, in order to reach an agreement: *Neither side is prepared to compromise.* ◊ **-(with sb) (or sth)** *After much argument, the judges finally compromised on* (= agreed to give the prize to) *the 18-year old pianist.* ◊ *They were unwilling to compromise with the terrorists.* **2** [T, I] to do sth that is against your principles or does not reach standards that you have set: *-sth I refused to compromise my principles.* ◊ **-(on sth)** *We are not prepared to compromise on safety standards.* **3** [T] **-sb/sth yourself** to bring sb/sth/yourself into danger or under suspicion, especially by acting in a way that is not very sensible: *She had already compromised herself by accepting his invitation.* ◊ *Defeat at this stage would compromise their chances* (= reduce their chances) ◊ *reaching the finals of the competition.*

**com-promis-ing** /kəm'prəmaɪzɪŋ; NAmE 'kɑ:m-/ *adj.* sth is **compromising**, it shows or tells people sth that you want to keep secret, because it is wrong or embarrassing: *compromising photos* ◊ *They were discovered together in a compromising situation.*

**comp-rol-ler** /kən'trəʊlə(r); NAmE -'trou-/ *noun* = CONTROLLER (3)

**com-pul-sion** /kəm'pʌlʃn/ *noun* **1** [U, C] (formal) strong pressure that makes sb do sth that they do not want to do: **-(to do sth)** *You are under no compulsion to pay immediately.* ◊ **-(on sb) to do sth** *There are no compulsions on students to attend classes.* **2** [C] **-(to do sth)** strong desire to do sth, especially sth that is wrong, silly or dangerous **SYN** urge: *He felt a great compulsion to tell her everything.* ◊ SEE ALSO COMPEL

**com-pul-sive** /kəm'pʌlsɪv/ *adj.* **1** (of behaviour) that is difficult to stop or control: *compulsive eating/spending/gambling* **2** (of people) not being able to control their behaviour: *a compulsive drinker/gambler/liar* **3** that makes you pay attention to it because it is so interesting and exciting: *The programme made compulsive viewing.* ▶ **com-pul-sive-ly** *adv.* *She watched him compulsively.* ◊ *a compulsively readable book.*

**com-pul-sory** /kəm'pʌlsəri/ *adj.* that must be done because of a law or a rule **SYN** mandatory: *It is compulsory.*



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Practice and theory

*Penny Ur*

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