

Abdullah Hasan



LANGUAGE LEARNING & TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR YOUNG LEARNERS

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&
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Katalog dalam Terbitan (KDT)
Language Learning &
Teaching Strategies For Young Learners

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Layout : Jonri Kasdi
Design Cover : Cahaya Firdaus Design

ISBN : 978-602-5432-18-7

vi, 105 hal (155x230mm)
Cetakan Tahun 2018

Penerbit :

Cahaya Firdaus

Publishing and Printing

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Pasal 72

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PREFACE

This book is especially presented for teachers or teachers to be as a reference or a concept to implement in teaching and learning process. Many teachers realize that engaged teaching and active learning are desirable. Moreover, the school curriculum of Indonesia keeps on changing, and the last one is the 2013 curriculum revision 2016 using communicative approach which claims the teachers to be more active, creative, and innovative to prepare the teaching materials to be presented to their students. Teaching encourages the students to ask questions and look for answers based on the first and the second steps of scientific approach, to apply what they have learned in order to solve the problems, to listen and interact to each other and debate ideas politely and constructively for three other steps of Scientific Approach. This is teaching students that can provide authentic materials to use in their lives. But knowing that these things are important is not the same thing as knowing how to make them work in the classroom with a crowded syllabus, short class periods and many students in a classroom.

The book of LANGUAGE LEARNING & TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR YOUNG LEARNERS comes about to satisfy the need in the schools for deeper learning, life long learning that the students can use and make them not only better students but more productive members of society. It also comes about in order to teach “the small ideas,” as one teacher calls them. The “small ideas” are how to actually teach for active, creative learning and critical thinking in real classroom. The big ideas are the lofty proclamations about how important active,

creative, effective, joyful learning and critical thinking which are in accordance with 2013 curriculum.

At last, the writer hopes some comments from various teachers and educators for the improvement of this book.

Abdullah Hasan

UIN Sultan Syarif Kasim Riau, January 2018

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

OVERVIEW

Learning strategies are thoughts and actions we engage in, consciously or otherwise, to learn new information. Learning strategies help students to consciously control how they learn so that they can be efficient, motivated, and independent language learners (Chamot, Bernhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins 1999)

Learning strategies are for the most part unobservable, though some may be associated with an observable behavior. For example, a learner could use selective attention (unobservable) to focus on the main idea while listening to a newscast and could then decide to take notes (observable) in order to remember the information (Rubin 1987; Cohen 1998).

Applied research on language learning strategies investigates the feasibility of helping students become more effective language learners by teaching them some of the learning strategies that descriptive studies have identified as characteristic of the 'good language learner' (Rubin 1981; Mohamed Amin Embi et al 2001; Griffiths & Jordan 2005; Lee & Oxford 2008).

An area of basic research in second/foreign language acquisition is the identification and description of learning strategies used by language learners and the correlation of these strategies with other learner variables such as proficiency level, age, gender, motivation, and the like (Chamot & ElDinary 1999; El Dibb 2004; Green & Oxford 1995; Oxford and Bury Stock1995; Zainil 2005).

A number of recent research studies have dealt with language learning strategies aimed at improving teaching techniques and achievement. Syahdan (2012) conducted a research compensatory strategies of first language attrited children. Chuzaimah (2011) carried out an experimental research entitled "3 LS: A Model for Teaching Young Learners. Sri Rachmajanti (2008) conducted a research entitled, "Impact of English Instruction at the Elementary Schools on the student Achievement of English at the Lower Secondary School" Omid Akbari (2008) investigated the effectiveness of teaching vocabulary items through pictures and contextualization to elementary Iranian EFL students. Ya-Ling Wu (2008) determined language learning strategies used at different proficiency levels. Nikolova (2008) presented a critical overview of the current situation in English teaching in public elementary schools in Japan. Vivian Wu and Natalie Wu (2008) studied creating an authentic EFL learning environment to enhance student motivation to study English. Harris (2006) carried out a quasi-experimental research on 12-to-13-year-old students to explore the impact of modern language performance and motivation of encouraging students to transfer language learning strategies across English and ML. Zainil (2005) implemented an experimental research to develop an action-function method by learners of an elementary school in Solok, a town in West Sumatra. Ag.Bambang Setiyadi (2004) conducted a research entitle " Redesigning Language Learning Strategies" . These studies highlight that language learning strategies have been used to investigate various research aspects.

PROBLEMS FACED BY INDONESIAN ENGLISH LEARNERS.

One can hardly deny that English plays a very important role in the major aspects of life in this global era. It is the most widely spoken language in the world nowadays and it is fast becoming a lingua franca of international trade and commerce. With challenges posed by globalization and technological advances, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become crucial in gathering scientific information available on electronic media. Additionally, most science and technology books are written in English.

In Indonesia, English is one of the foreign languages being taught from primary schools up to university. Formerly, based on KTSP curriculum, at the primary level, English was taught as a local subject in year one until three, while in years four to six, it was a compulsory subject with two class-hours a week. Unfortunately, in curriculum 2013, English is dismissed to teach because of the failure to achieve the English learning goal. At junior and senior high schools, it is offered as a compulsory subject with the time allocation of four class-hours a week, whereas at the university or college, it is accorded two to six credit hours and the curriculum focuses on English for Specific Purposes.

The Elementary schools especially private schools, English is taught as a local content. The main goal of teaching English at the primary school level in Indonesia is to have learners possess basic competence as follows: (1) to develop communicative competence of limited verbal language accompanying the four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing in school context; (2) to implant consciousness of the importance and role of English as a competitive language in the global arena.

The objective of teaching English at the secondary school levels (SMP/SMA) in Indonesia is to develop communicative competence in spoken and written English, and to gain informational and literary knowledge through developing skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Having mastered these skills, learners are expected to be conscious of the importance of English and to compete in the global arena. Furthermore, it is hoped that mastering the skills would enable learners to improve their understanding both in language and culture (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan 2005: 2).

Abdullah Hasan (2012:169) state that based on his observation of teaching English at the elementary school level in Riau province, he has discovered that most students are not motivated and interested in learning English. Many English teachers are unable to create different activities to aid the teaching and learning process. They still focus on teacher centered instruction and concentrate on teaching grammar explicitly. They also tend to ask the students to memorize vocabulary words. This has led students to feel bored and uninterested in learning English. Furthermore, students possess a negative attitude and lack of motivation toward English. They do not want to develop their interest in learning English and often leave class during English lessons.

Zainil (2005:10) states that based on his observations and experiences in teaching English at junior and senior high schools in Indonesia, in general, English teachers have employed the communicative language teaching approach for many years based on their own perceptions and understanding. Some teach English using situations related to real life, while some others use artificial situations, and others use both. Most of them teach English in large classes and only a few in small ones, but on the whole, they have not been successful.

Rohaty, et. al (2012) state that most Indonesian students are passive language learners. They are shy to use English in real life communication. They only pay attention to forms and rules when they communicate with others. They do not practice English in real life communication and situations. Only a few of them practice and use it in the classroom. Consequently, they fail to acquire English proficiency (Zainil 2003, 2004).

Suwarsih (2002: 142) has noted that senior high school graduates who have learned English for six years, with almost 900 hours of school teaching, are unable to use this language for communicative purposes. This phenomenon can also be observed among university graduates and even among faculty members. The teaching of English has so far not helped teachers and students achieve their declared goals despite many efforts made to improve its quality.

Despite their enthusiasm towards studying English and improving themselves in various aspects, the profile of Indonesian students' strategies to learn English has not been well researched. Similarly, English learners' strategies are still quite a vague concept to Indonesian EFL learners, particularly, learning strategies in the context of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Zainil 2005) . Likewise, learning strategies could definitely help them learn English more efficiently if they are aware of such strategies consciously and adopt them.

Researchers have discovered that successful L2 learners, compared with less successful learners, use more strategic mental processes (learning strategies) and employ them more frequently; this strategy use was shown to occur before, during, and after the tasks (Oxford 1994; Oxford, Cho, Leung & Kim 2004). Oxford (1990) pointed out the importance of learning strategies for language learners both in theory and practice. Rubin (1994) described learning as behaviors that would

contribute to developing learners' language system affecting learning directly.

TEACHER PROBLEMS IN TEACHING ENGLISH.

The fundamental goal of English teachers at primary schools and junior high schools is to develop students' positive attitude and motivation to learn English. Zainil (2005) observed that most teachers employed English teaching approaches, methods, techniques and strategies based their own perception, and most students still fail to master essential elements of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In addition, they are not able to speak in English clearly, fluently and appropriately, and their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary is very low.

Dealing with intellectual development of six-to twelve-year-old children is what Piaget (1972) refers to as "concrete operation," meaning that we need to remember the children's limitations in understanding abstract concepts. Brown (2001) claims that some rules of thumb for the classroom should be observed, for instance, should not explain grammar using terms such as "present progressive" and rules should not be stated in abstract terms and through difficult concepts or patterns. He says that in reality, during the teaching and learning process, most English teachers teach abstract things, explain grammar explicitly and present difficult concepts or patterns. Consequently, pupils are unmotivated and frustrated in learning English. This has caused hindrances to students' mastery of English.

The teachers still fail to see individual differences in teaching and learning process, some students might use difficult language learning strategies from each other. As learning styles vary among students, they might also use different language

learning strategies. More attentive and effective language learners systematically select and combine strategies relevant to language tasks, while unmotivated learners, seemingly desperate, do not pay sufficient attention to the relevance of a strategy to the task at hand.

This reality indicates that the teachers of English have not implemented the concepts or classroom techniques of communicative language teaching very well yet, as well as the concepts or theories on how to teach English to children at the elementary school level. To practice the concepts, teachers should understand their pupils and apply the strategies according to the pupils' needs; consequently the pupils would be able to implement them in the learning process.

Many factors influence students achieved of instructional objectives in regards to learning English, such as, the affective strategy for students' learning motivation, attitude and interest; cognitive strategy for the competence of English teachers, and memory strategy for students' inadequate basic knowledge (Zainil 2005). Lack of learning facilities, irrelevant methods and ineffective language learning strategies used by students as well as inadequate teaching strategies by teachers are other factors that hinder the English teaching and learning process.

The standard of English language mastery in Indonesia is declining due to the delimitations of the environment in which they are learning the language. English language in Indonesia is taught and learned as a foreign language. In other words, it is not used as a means of communication in daily life. Indonesian students use English only in classrooms when learning the language. Once they study other courses or when they go out of the classroom, they do not use English or they do not hear it being used by the people around them. In addition, they are too shy to practice speaking in English, and the environment in

Indonesia is not conducive for students to practice using English in their daily life. The students usually use either the Indonesian language or their mother tongue as a means of communication.

At present, educators and researchers are of the opinion that the learning of a second language should be meaningful, reflective and learner-centered so that learners can develop learner autonomy for lifelong learning. They stress that learner autonomy can be attained through learner training, that is focusing on not only 'what' to learn but also on 'how to learn' through the teaching of learning strategies (Dickinson 1987; Littlewood 1996).

Research findings such as those by Oxford 1990, O'Malley & Chamot 1990, Mohamed Amin 1996; Drozdial Szelest 1997, and Cohen 1998 support previous studies that successful language learners are those who utilize a wide range of key language learning strategies. One pedagogical implication of this is that less successful language learners can be assisted to improve their language efficiency through learner training or strategy training. Oxford (1990) states that learner training is especially necessary in the area of second and foreign language because language learning in these contexts requires active self-direction on the part of learners.

Wenden (2003) also states that language learning strategies are important because researchers like Chamot (1989) and Cohen (1999) suggest that training students to use language learning strategies could help them become better language learners. Another researcher, Mohammed Amin Embi (1997) who has explored language learning strategies used by successful learners, created a model for learning language strategies, and learning English based on research findings. In the year 2000, Mohammed Amin Embi identified language learning strategies used by students, explained the relationship between social

factors and situational factors, and language learning strategies used by successful learners in a Malaysian context.

FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEMS.

Based on the problems mentioned dealing with student problems in learning English and teacher problems in teaching English, two formulation of the problems are formulated as follows:

- a. What are the appropriate learning strategies owned by the students of young learners in English teaching and learning process?
- b. What are the appropriate teaching strategies presented by the teachers in English teaching and learning process?

CHAPTER II

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions we engage in, consciously or not, to learn new information. The goal of teaching learning strategies is to help students to consciously control how they learn so that they can be efficient, motivated, and independent language learners. (Chamot, Bernhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins 1999)

Furthermore, the intent of learning strategies instruction is to help all students become better language learners. When students begin to understand their own learning processes and can exert some control over these processes, they tend to take more responsibility for their own learning. This self knowledge and skill in regulating one's own learning is a characteristic of learners, including successful language learners.

Research with both first and second language learners is revealing some of the ways of thinking that guides and assists an individual's attempt to learn more effectively (Paris & Winograd 1990). The students who think and work strategically are more motivated and interested in learning and to have a higher sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their own learning ability. That is, strategic students perceive themselves as more able to succeed academically than students who do not know how to use strategies effectively. The students who expect to be successful at learning tasks generally are successful, and each successful learning experience increases motivation.

The term '*strategy*' implies conscious movement toward a goal. "Strategies must be controllable" (Pressley & McCormick 1995:28) because they are steps that learners take in order to

manage their learning and achieve desired goals. Although the precise degree of consciousness has been debated, most researchers (see, e.g. Bialystok 1978; Cohen 1990, 1998; MacIntyre 1994; Oxford & Cohen 1992; Mohammed Amin Embi 2000, 2000b) agree on the necessity of some level of conscious intention in using L2 strategies. When a strategy is so habitual that it is no longer within the learner's conscious awareness and control, it becomes a process (Cohen 1998).

Smaldino, Sharon E, Lowther and Russel (2008:18) state that the word 'strategy' means a way of doing something. An instructional strategy is a way of involving learners in a particular teaching-learning activity. Strategies are described as a procedure of instruction selected to help learners achieve their objectives or internalize content. Examples include presentation, demonstration, cooperative learning, gaming, simulation, problem solving, discussion, drill and practice, discovery and tutorial.

Strategies used by learners at the early stages of their L2 development may be somewhat different from those used when these learners are more proficient. As Cohen (1998:8) stated, "With some exceptions, strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used effectively" by various learners who do particular types of L2 learning tasks at different proficiency levels. More effective L2 learners intentionally, systematically select and combine strategies relevant to the language task at hand and to their own learning style preferences (Ehrman & Oxford 1990, 1995). Less successful L2 learners grab for various strategies in a seemingly desperate, random way and do not pay sufficient attention to the relevance of a strategy to the task at hand (Abraham & Vann 1987; 1990).

Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions we engage in, consciously or not, to learn new information. The goal of

teaching learning strategies is to help students to consciously control how they learn so that they can be efficient, motivated, and independent language learners (Chamot, Bernhardt, El-Dinary, & Robinson, R.J. 1999; Mohammed Amin Embi 2000).

Another version states 'Learning strategies' are "behaviors or thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process" (Weinstein & Mayer 1986:315). More specifically, learning strategies are "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information; specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford 1990: 8). Learning strategies for L2s are "specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques-such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task-used by students to enhance their own learning" (Scarcella & Oxford 1992.)

Learning strategies can be taught to L2 learners (Chamot et. al. 1999; Cohen 1998; Feyten, Flaitz, & LaRocca 1999; Oxford 1990, 1996; Wenden 1987; Mohammed Amin Embi 1997). Such instruction has proved to be most successful when it is tied to the language tasks that students are normally expected to accomplish and when strategies are explicitly taught. Strategy instruction can be woven into regular L2 instruction in an integrated, smooth, as needed way (Chamot Et. al. 1999; Oxford & Leaver 1996).

Furthermore, the intent of learning strategies instruction is to help all students become better language learners. When the students begin to understand their own learning processes and can exert some control over these processes, they tend to take more responsibility for their own learning. This self knowledge and skill in regulating one's own learning is a characteristic of

successful learners, including successful language learners. Research with both first and second language learners is revealing some of the ways of thinking that guide and assist an individual's attempts to learn more effectively (Paris & Winograd 1990).

The students who think and work strategically are more motivated to learn and to have a higher sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their own learning ability. That is, strategic students perceive themselves as more able to succeed academically than the students who do not know how to use strategies effectively. The students who expect to be successful at a learning task are generally successful, and each successful learning experience increases motivation.

Since the 1970s, considerable research attention in second or foreign language learning has been devoted to studying individual differences in language learners. One individual difference variable, L2 learning strategies, has gained increasing popularity among researchers and teachers interested in understanding how languages are learned (Chamot, Barnhard, El-Dinary, & Robbins 1996; Cohen 1998; Hsiao 2001; MacIntyre & Noels 1996; Oxford & Cohen 1992; Hsio & Oxford 2002; Griffith Maleki & Zangani 2007; Manfred 2007; Yang 2007; Lee & Oxford 2008); Although important advances have been made in L2 learners' strategy use, significant questions concerning how to enumerate and categorize these strategies remain.

Exactly how many strategies are available to learners to assist them in L2 learning and how these strategies should be classified are open to debate. Different classification systems based on contrasting criteria (see Oxford & Cohen 1992) have been proposed. Each existing classification system in and of itself involves an implicit theory about the nature of L2 learning strategies and even, to some degree, about L2 learning in

general. For example, if a system contains separate, substantial categories for affective (emotion and motivation management) strategies and social learning strategies, the implicit theory suggests that these types of strategies are important and that student affect and social interaction play key roles in L2 learning.

Mohamed Amin Embi (2000: 11) states that 'Language learning strategies can be defined as the plans and/or actions that learners take to enhance their process of language learning. Although learning strategies are deliberate actions, some of them can be automatic. In the literature, a distinction is often made between three types of strategies; a) learning strategy; b) communication strategy, and c) production strategy. Tarone (1980) regards the last two as strategies for language use. Wenden and Rubin (1987:19) define learning strategies as 'what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning. Furthermore, Oxford (1990:8) defines that language learning strategies are 'specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more efficient and more transferable to new situation'

An area of basic research in second language acquisition is the identification and description of learning strategies used by language learners and the correlation of these strategies with other learner variables such as proficiency level, age, gender, motivation, and the like (Oxford & Burry-Stock 1995; Green & Oxford 1995; Chamot & Eldinary 1999; Mohamed Amin et.al 2001; El-Dib 2004; Maleki & Zangani 2007; Lee & Oxford 2008). Current research is also investigating the effect of the task itself on the selection and use of learning strategies, including the influence of the target language (Chamot & Keatley 2004; Oxford, Cho, Leung & Kim 2004; Manfred 2007; Yang 2007).

DIRECT AND INDIRECT STRATEGIES

Oxford (1990) divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect strategies. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. The direct strategies consist of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. The indirect strategies are composed of meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The following figure is the overview diagram of the strategy system:

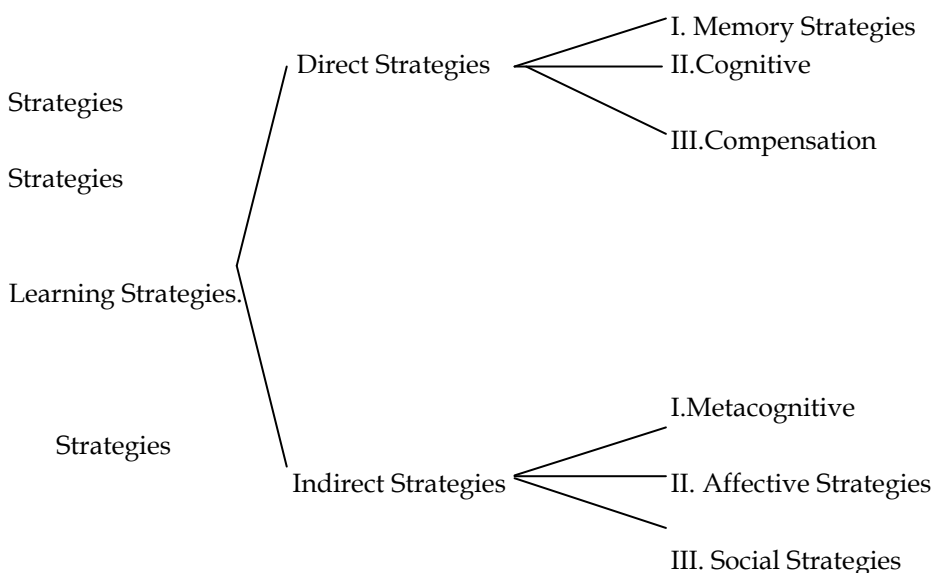


FIGURE. 2.1 Diagram of the Strategy System: Overview (Oxford 1990:16)

‘**The direct strategies**’ are the language learning strategies that directly involve the target language and they are composed of **memory strategies** for remembering and retrieving new information, **cognitive strategies** for understanding and producing the language, and **compensation strategies** for using the language despite knowledge gaps. All direct strategies

require mental processing of the language, but the three groups of direct strategies do this differently and for different purposes.

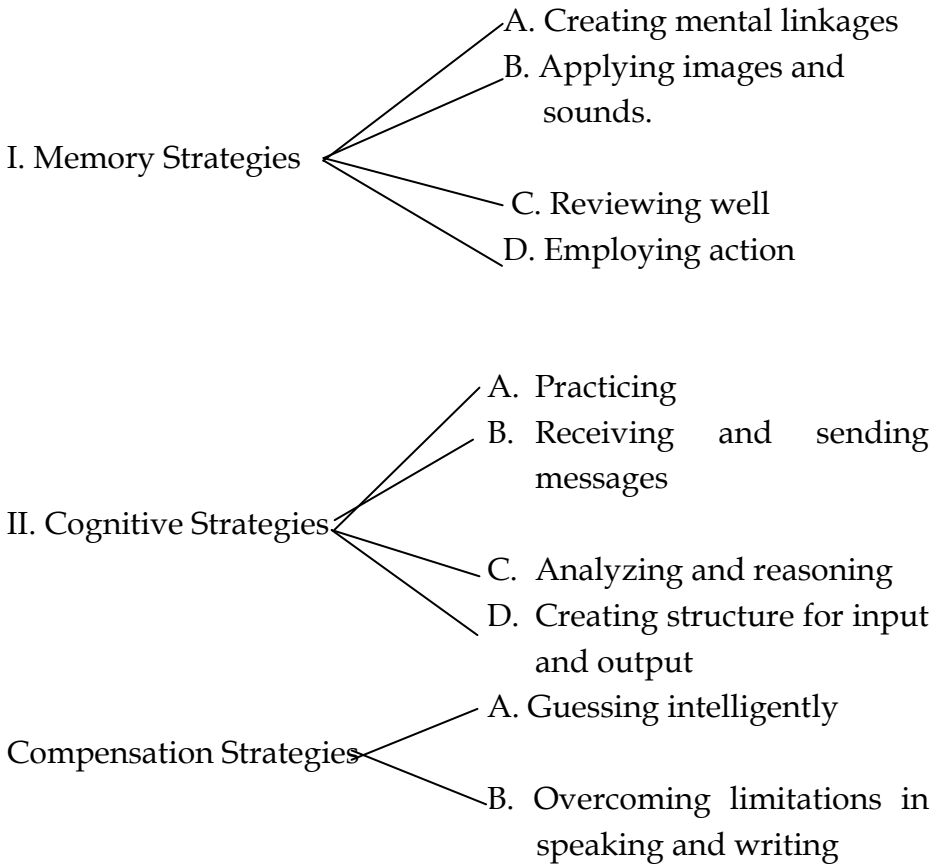


FIGURE 2.2 Diagram of the strategy system showing the direct strategies (Oxford 1990:17).

Indirect strategies refer to language learning strategies that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. They consist of **meta-cognitive strategies** which allow learners to control their own cognition, that is, to coordinate the learning process by using functions

such as centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating. **Affective strategies** help to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. **Social strategies** help students learn through interaction with others.

The following figure shows the diagram of the strategy system showing the indirect strategies:

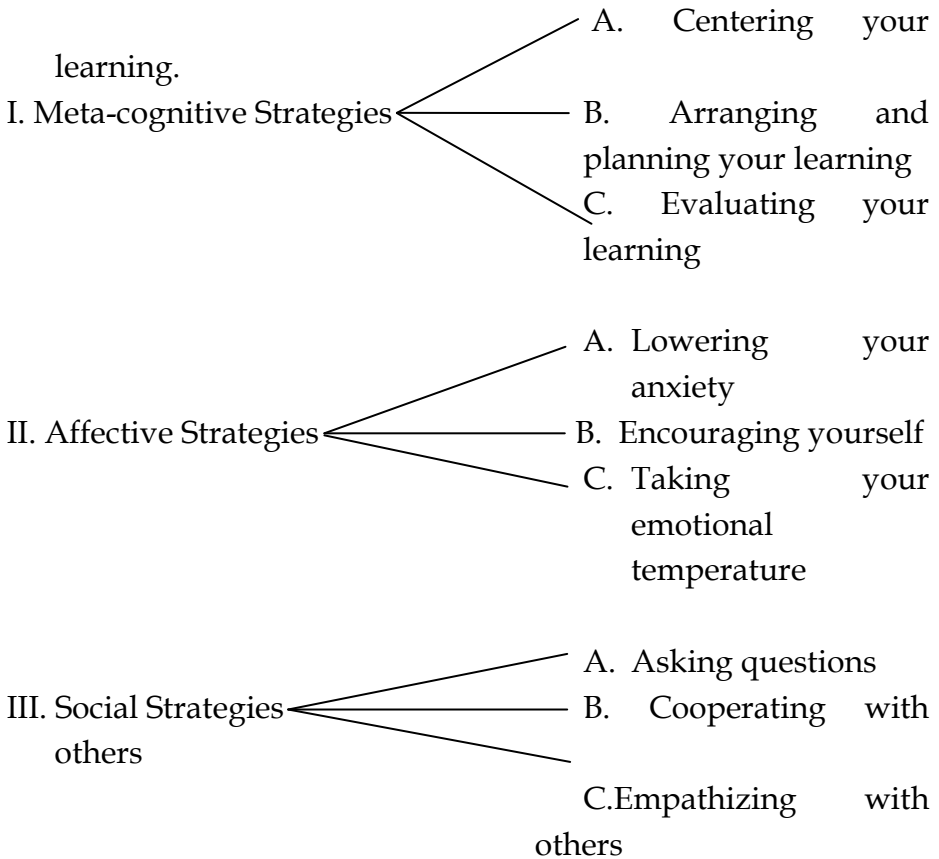


FIGURE 2.3. Diagram of Indirect Strategies (Oxford 1990:18)

Oxford (1990) classifies language learning strategies into two major strategy classes; direct and indirect language strategies; however, both two classes of strategies act

cooperatively and are equally necessary in the language learning process. Direct strategies are those behaviors which require a straightforward involvement with the target language, but each category of direct strategies does this processing differently and for different purposes. Indirect strategies are those behaviors which indirectly involve the target language in learning processes, but which are nevertheless essential for effective language learning strategies into direct and indirect strategies. They divided language learning strategies into three main categories; meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies, almost similar to the second level of Oxford's classification.

Memory Strategies

Memory strategies are techniques that facilitate learners' recall of new input (Oxford 1990). These strategies help learners to store new information and skills in memory and retrieve them later when ever they are needed. These strategies are very important since the brain, more specifically the left hemisphere, functions for the storage of speech and language, and it can store 100 trillion bits of information. Language learners will not be able to functionalize the capability of the brain optimally in the process of learning a second or foreign language unless they use memory strategies.

Memory strategies comprise four sets of learning strategies; creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing actions, and each set further encompasses some subsets of more practical learning strategies. Creating mental linkage strategies cover three subsets of strategies, applying image and sound strategies consist of four subsets of strategies, reviewing well strategies have one subset of strategies. Of all language learning strategies that they have

identified, O'Malley and Chamot (1985) do not classify any language learning strategies into memory strategies. Three groups of strategies that they have identified (grouping, elaboration and imaginary) fall under Oxford's memory strategies (creating mental linkage strategies). O'Malley and Chamot classify them into cognitive strategies.

Creating mental linkage strategies, which cover O'Malley and Chamot grouping and elaboration strategies, are strategies; 1) to put words or phrases into meaningful contexts, 2) to make relationship between new language information and the ones that already exist in memory or between two pieces of information, and 3) to make the new input easier to remember classifying them into meaningful units. Applying image and sound strategies help to relate new language knowledge to previously acquired knowledge in memory by means of meaningful visual imaginary, to learn words through semantic mapping, to use key words to remember new words, and to create a meaningful, sound-based association. Reviewing strategies are used to review or re-study the language materials periodically for the purpose of making them become natural and automatic. Employing action strategies use physical responses and mechanical techniques in order to remember new target language information.

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are strategies that involve manipulation and transformation of the language in some direct ways for processing language input and preparing for language output (Oxford 1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1985) describe that cognitive strategies involve interacting with the materials to be learned, manipulating the materials mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task. Therefore,

cognitive strategies are very essential because they deal with the actual processes involved in manipulating the language for reception and production of meanings. Since cognitive strategies allow the learners to better comprehend and produce language in different manners, they are regarded as the most popular strategies by high school ESL learners and university foreign language students (O'Malley et. al 1985).

According to Oxford (1990), cognitive strategies are built up of four sets of learning strategies; practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output and each set covers two or more subsets of strategies. Practicing strategies consist of five subsets of strategies, analyzing and reasoning strategies comprise five subsets of strategies and creating structure strategies consist of three subsets of strategies.

O'Malley and Chamot (1985) include eleven sets of strategies into cognitive strategies; repetition, resourcing, grouping, note taking, deduction, substitution, elaboration, summarization, translation, transfer, and inferencing. They did not provide further classified by O'Malley and Chamot fall under the forth-level subsets of strategies in Oxford's classification. For example, "translation strategies," "induction strategies," and "transferring strategies" in O'Malley and Chamot's classification. However, O'Malley and Chamot proposed more specifications for "elaboration strategies" in comparison to what Oxford did for the same strategies. They divide elaboration strategies into personal, world, academic, between parts, questioning, self-evaluative, and creative elaboration.

Practicing strategies, which cover O'Malley and Chamot's repetition strategies, are the most important one in cognitive strategies because they deal with the exposure to the target

language, and such exposure is hypothesized as enabling to increase language and communicative competence. Receiving and sending message strategies, which cover O'Malley and Chamot's resourcing strategies, concerns with strategies to get the ideas and to use available reference sources of information about the target language such as dictionaries and textbooks for understanding and producing meanings. Analyzing and reasoning strategies, facilitate the learners to understand the meaning of new expressions in the target language by drawing deductive or inductive conclusion, by contrasting with their first language, by translating into their native language, or by using knowledge in their mother tongue. Creating structure strategies, which cover O'Malley and Chamot's note-taking and summarization strategies, facilitate the learners to highlight, to write down key words, and make mental or written summary of language and information presented in the tasks. These activities enable the learners to structure all language input into manageable chunks.

Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies are behaviors that help the learners to overcome any gaps in knowledge of the target language (Oxford 1990). Implementing these strategies allow the learners to use certain skills to compensate their lack of other skills for the purpose of being able to comprehend the input or to express ideas (Rumelart 1977). The language learners may use their syntactical knowledge, for example, to compensate their limited phonological knowledge. Similar to memory strategies, O'Malley and Chamot (1985) do not classify any of all language learning strategies that they have identified into compensation strategies. However, the inferencing strategies" that they classify into cognitive strategies fall under compensation strategies.

Compensation strategies are classified into guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Guessing strategies, for which O'Malley and Chamot use the term "inferencing strategies", are strategies that use available information to guess the meanings or usage of unfamiliar language items associated with language tasks and to predict outcome.

Meta-cognitive Strategies

Meta-cognitive strategies are those behaviors that involve thinking about learning process such as centering the learning, arranging and planning the learning, monitoring the learning tasks and evaluating how well one has learned (O'Malley and Chamot 1985; Oxford 1990; Wenden 1999). These strategies are the executive ones that the learners employ to plan, monitor, hypothesize about, and evaluate the performance of learning tasks. Therefore, by possessing these strategies, the learners would be able to determine what their learning objectives, to monitor their understanding about materials being learned and to evaluate what they have learned and how well they have done it (Wenden 1987b).

The kinds of language learning strategies which Oxford classifies into meta-cognitive strategies are almost the same as O'Malley and Chamot do. The difference only deals with their distribution. Oxford classifies this category of strategies into three sets of strategies; centering the learning, arranging and planning the learning, and evaluating, and each set has two or more subsets of strategies, while O'Malley and Chamot classify it into several sets of strategies; planning, directed attention, selective attention, self monitoring, problem identification, and self-evaluation, and they do not classify each of these sets of strategies into certain subsets of strategies. Some sets of

strategies that O'Malley and Chamot proposed are equal to Oxford's subsets of strategies. In addition, O'Malley and Chamot provide several specifications for "self-monitoring strategies"; comprehension, production, auditory, visual, and plan and double check monitoring, and on self-evaluation; production, performance, ability, strategy and language repertoire evaluation.

As discussed, Oxford (1990) classifies meta-cognitive strategies into centering the learning, arranging and planning the learning, and evaluation the learning. Centering strategies comprising three subsets of strategies deal with behaviors which focus the learners' attention on the material that they are going to learn and that they have learned. These strategies are more or less equal to strategies that O'Malley and Chamot classify as directed attention strategies. Arranging and planning strategies guide the learners to sets their learning goal, organize and plan their learning activities in efficient and effective ways, and seek the opportunities for practice the target language especially in naturalistic situations. These strategies are almost the same as strategies that O'Malley and Chamot classify as planning and selective attention strategies. Evaluating strategies facilitate progress of learning the target language. Oxford's evaluation learning strategies cover the meaning classified by O'Malley and Chamot.

Affective Strategies

Affective strategies are those used for controlling emotions, attitudes, and motivation that influence the success or failure of language learning (Oxford 1990). O'Malley and Chamot (1985) classify several language learning strategies. They have identified into social-affective strategies. They do not develop social and affective strategies separately.

Affective strategies are very important in language learning because they may help the learners to control their emotions, to possess positive attitudes toward the target language and to generate strong motivation (Wenden 1987b). Some researchers found that many second or foreign language learners failed to master the target language because they did not know how to control their emotions and how to build up positive attitudes towards learning and how to generate and increase their motivation to learn a second or foreign language (Bialystok 1981; Gardner 1985).

Three groups of learning strategies included in the affective strategies are lowering anxiety, encouraging and taking emotional temperature (Oxford 1990). Two of four sets of strategies that O'Malley and Chamot (1985) classify as social-affective strategies fall under affective strategies. **Lowering anxiety** strategies, for which O'Malley and Chamot used the term "self-talk", are ways for making the learning process to be in relaxed situation and condition. **Encouraging strategies**, which O'Malley and Chamot classify as self-reinforcement strategies, lead learners to be more confident and take risks in the language learning processes so that they will not be afraid of making mistakes. Lastly, **taking emotional temperature strategies** help learners to discern negative attitudes and emotion. None of the language learning strategies according O'Malley and Chamot's classification, fit with taking emotional temperature strategies.

Social Strategies

Social strategies are the strategies that involve other people in the language learning process.(Oxford 1990). As discussed, O'Malley and Chamot incorporated this category of strategies into social-affective. Social strategies enable to create a better

interaction among learners, between learners and teachers or between learners or other users of the target language. These strategies are needed in the process of learning a language because they involve other people. In a nutshell, learning is not only a pedagogic event, but a social event as well (Allwright 1989).

Social strategies cover three sets of learning strategies:: asking questions, cooperating with others and empathizing with others.(Oxford, 1990). Similar to the discussion of affective strategies, two of four sets of strategies that O'Malley and Chamot (1985) classify as social-affective strategies are exactly the same as the first two sets of social strategies developed by Oxford. The intended strategies are asking questions and cooperating with others. Asking question strategies are very beneficial for learners to clarify materials that they do not understand or to verify the materials to check their correctness. Cooperative strategies facilitate learners to learn the target language in peers or groups cooperatively, after which each learner is held accountable for his/her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of oth

Olsen and Kagan (1992) stated that empathizing strategies help learners to increase their ability to empathize by developing cultural understanding and becoming aware of other thoughts and feelings. None of the language learning strategies classified by O'Malley and Chamot are empathizing strategies. To summarize, the similarities as well as dissimilarities between Oxford's classification and O'Malley and Chamot's classification on language learning strategies are shown in table below.

TABLE 2.1 Comparison between Oxford’s and O’Malley-Chamot’s Classification on language learning strategies

Oxford’s Classification (1990)		O’Malley-Chamot Classification (1985)
Categories	Sets	
Memory	Creating mental linkages Applying images and sounds Reviewing well Employing action	Grouping/Elaboration *) Imaginary *)
Cognitive	Practicing Receiving and Sending Message Analyzing/Reasoning Creating structure for input and output	Repetition Resourcing Deduction/Induction Translation Transferring Note taking Summarization
Compensation	Guessing intelligently Overcoming limitations	Inferencing *) -
Metacognitive	Centering learning Arranging and Planing Evaluating	Directed attention Planning and selective attention Self-management Seld-monitoring and Self-evaluation

Note: *) = these are classified by O’Malley and Chamot into of cognitive strategies.

**) = these are classified by O’Malley and Chamot into of social-affective strategies.

The following table is of three models for language learning strategy instruction presented 1) Styles and Strategies- Based Instruction (SSBI) model by Cohen (1998). 2) Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) model

(Chamot 2005; Chamot et.al 1999). 3) Model of language learning strategies (Grenfell & Harris 1999).

TABLE 2.2 Models for language learning strategy instruction

SSBI*Model (Cohen,1998)	CALLA** Model (Chamot,2005; Chamot et.al., 1999)	Grenfell & Harris (1999)
Teacher as diagnostician: Helps students identify current strategies and learning styles	Preparation: Teacher identifies students' current learning strategies for familiar tasks.	Awareness raising: Students complete a task, and then identify the strategies they used.
Teacher as language learner: Shares own learning experiences and thinking processes.	Presentation: Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it.	Modeling: Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, makes checklist of strategies for later use.
Teacher as learner trainer: Trains students how to use learning strategies.	Practice: Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher fades reminders to encourage independent strategy use.	General practice: Students practice new strategies with different tasks.
Teacher as coordinator: Supervises students' study plans and monitors difficulties.	Self-evaluation: Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice.	Action planning: Students set goals and choose strategies to attain those goals.
Teacher as coach: Provides ongoing guidance on students' progress.	Expansion: Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies.	Focused practice: Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher fades prompts so that students use strategies automatically.

	Assessment: Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance.	Evaluation: Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again.
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* Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction

** Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

CHAPTER III

ACTIVE, CREATIVE , EFFECTIVE AND JOYFUL LEARNING

ACTIVE LEARNING.

In Indonesian basic education, PAKEM is the term usually applied to active learning in elementary schools. In junior secondary schools, the term CTL (Contextual Teaching and Learning) is commonly applied. PAKEM is the acronym for Pembelajaran Aktif, Kreatif, Efektif dan Menyenangkan - learning that is Active, Creative, Effective and Joyful. USAID Managing Basic Education project (MBE) that operated in East and Central Java from 2003 - 2007) presented some distinctions between student-centered learning and conventional teaching (Cannon & Arlianti, 2008) as follows:

TABLE 3.1 Distinctions between student-centered learning and conventional teaching

Student-centered active learning	Conventional didactic or teacher-centered learning
Students have responsible role for interacting with teachers and other students, for finding information, for assessing their own work and for participating in planning their learning	Students are usually passive - they have very limited role in planning learning or working with other students. They usually sit in classes, 'pay attention' and respond to teacher direction
Emphasis on activity (problem solving, discussion, enquiry-type activities) and on higher-order thinking such as analysis, evaluation, application)	Emphasis on recording or copying information and on lower-order intellectual activities such as recall
Intrinsic motivation to learn (from the learning activities)	Extrinsic motivation to learn (from grades, teacher praise and

through interest, curiosity, and responsibility	threats or punishment)
Recognize the importance of emotion in learning (the affective domain) - therefore teachers actively promote joy and pleasure in learning	Generally ignores the positive impact of the affective domain and can rely on threats and fear to motivate learning
Focus on learning cooperatively with other students	Individual learning and competition between students
Attitude that learning can occur anywhere is encouraged; learning inside and outside school is stressed	Attitude that learning only occurs in school is developed; textbook learning is stressed
Greater flexibility in arranging learning and teaching facilities (rooms, desks, locations)	Relatively inflexible arrangements (fixed and formal seating in rows in classrooms)
Greater emphasis on a long-term perspective: emphasis on lifelong learning and learning how to learn to face future challenges and changes	Short-term perspective: emphasis on completing set work and passing tests
Assessment of learning (tests and examinations) used to provide students with feedback to help them learn	Little use of the results of the assessment of learning (tests and examinations) is made to support learning

Active learning is a term that refers to several models of instruction that focus the responsibility of learning on learners. Bonwell and Eison (1991) popularized this approach to instruction. However according to Mayer (2004), strategies like “active learning” developed out of the work of an earlier group of theorists who promoted discovery learning. Practice after initial learning, is of vital importance in one’s education/career,

and it is important for cognitive development, but practice is required learning.

Bonwell and Eison (1991) suggested learners work in pairs, discuss materials while role-playing, debate, engage in case study, take part in cooperative learning, or produce short written exercises, etc. The argument is when active learning exercises should be used during instruction. While it makes some sense to use these techniques as a “follow up” exercise or as application of known principles, it may not make sense to use them to introduce material. Proponents argue that these exercises may be used to create a context for the material, but this context may be confusing to those with no prior knowledge. The degree of instructor guidance students need while being active may vary according to the task and its place in a teaching unit.

Bell, D & Kahrhoof, J.(2006) state that active learning is a process wherein students are actively engaged in building understanding of facts, ideas, and skills through the completion of instructor directed tasks and activities. It is any type of activity that gets students involved in the learning process.

One of the most common methods for creating courses and learning exercises is content driven development. A frequent problem with content centered creation is that it does not take into consideration situational factors (what and how students learn), and the multiple learning styles of students. A second approach is a “Systematic Learning-Centered Design” model. According to Fink (2003), this model is based on the concept that what and how students should learn is at the heart of creating significant learning, and that through the utilization of systematic tools to develop solutions to these questions, one can implement a pedagogically sound method of creating learning activities.

In active learning, essentially, all of these activities are student centered learning and require the learner to be actively involved in the construction of knowledge or the building of understanding. Adams & Burns (1999) claim that students are actively engaged in the creation of knowledge which focuses on things that are important to the learners. Individuals work together to solve a mutual problem. Each student must actively contribute to the group. Carey & Bowen (2000) state that in engaged learning the students actively involve in their own learning and establish a connection between a learner and the learning object.

It is important to understand the theoretical framework that active learning techniques are built upon. The two primary theories that have been commonly used to describe teaching and learning processes during the last half century are "Information Processing" or "Objectivism," which is often referred to as "traditional teacher-centered instruction," and "Constructivism," which is often referred to as "student-centered instruction."

Objectivists define learning as a change in the learner's behavior or in the learner's cognitive structure. Objectivists hold that there is one true reality and knowledge is the learner's exact reflection of that reality (Vrasidas, 2000). The belief is that effective instruction occurs when the teacher transfers objective knowledge to the learner. For example, a classroom lecture can be an effective teaching method when the instructor accurately feeds the information to the students. While these kinds of traditional forms of teaching are sometimes effective, research has shown undoubtedly that when students are actively involved rather than passively listening they learn more effectively.

Constructivism was founded on cognitive psychology, social psychology, extensive research in education, and

neurological science. The biggest impact that Constructivism has had on education is that it moved the focus of learning from the teacher to the student (Adams & Burns, 1999). In the Constructivist theory, learning occurs when students become engaged in an activity that utilizes the content and skill they are learning. Any new information introduced during the activity that is consistent with current knowledge and understanding is assimilated easily. Any new information that is not consistent with past experiences and understanding is either rejected as being wrong or is built into new knowledge. New knowledge is constructed when students combine new information with existing knowledge through the process of reflection (Adams & Burns, 1999).

Here are examples of active learning activities that involve various learning strategies:

- a. **A class discussion** may be held in unison, in person or in an online environment. This environment allows for instructor or teacher guidance. Firstly, both teacher and learners sing an English song which is related to the topic being taught. Secondly, the teacher gives a model of a task as an initial instruction on how and what activities should be done by the learners. Secondly, they try to follow the instruction and practice among them. Lastly, the teacher asks them to do in a pair work and a group work activity.
- b. **A pair work** activity is when learners take a minute to ponder the previous lesson, later to discuss or practice it with one or more of their peers and finally share it with the class as part of a formal discussion. During this pair work activity the teacher or instructor should observe and clarify misconception or wrong practice. However learners need a background in the subject matter to converse in a

meaningful way of activity. Therefore a pair work activity is useful when learners can identify and relate the activity to real situations and condition what they know to others.

- c. **A group work activity** occurs after a pair work activity when the learners want to practice or share with more friends. Each group consists of four or five persons and led by a chairperson. At the end of a group work activity, a member of the group reports or presents the task to the whole class.

While practice is useful to reinforce learning, problem solving is not usually suggested. Sweller (1988) suggests solving problems can even have negative influence on learning, instead he suggests that learners should study worked examples, because this is more efficient method of schema acquisition. So, teachers are cautioned to give learners some basic or initial instruction first, perhaps to be followed up with a meaningful activity.

The typical method for selecting an appropriate strategy has been through the use of common sense based on teaching experience or by adapting what has worked for others. A common method of designing instruction today is built using “Blooms Taxonomy,” which focuses on the creation of learning objectives and then designing instruction based on meeting these objectives. Although Bloom’s group in fact generated three taxonomies (cognitive, affective, and psychomotor), Instructional Designers have most frequently referred to the one in the cognitive domain. The cognitive taxonomy consists of six kinds of learning that are arranged in a hierarchical sequence. These are, from the highest to the lowest (Bloom, 1956):

1. Evaluation

2. Synthesis
3. Analysis
4. Application
5. Comprehension
6. Knowledge (meaning “recall” knowledge)

This taxonomy has been used both as a framework for formulating course objectives and as a basis for evaluating student learning. While this method has become what effective, individuals and organizations involved in higher education have expressed a need for different types of learning that are not represented in Bloom taxonomy. For example, learning how to learn, adapting to change, leadership, interpersonal skills, communication skills, character, tolerance, and others. These types of learning go beyond the cognitive domain of Bloom’s taxonomy and suggest the need for broader taxonomy of significant learning (Fink, 2003). Significant Learning Taxonomy

The Taxonomy of Significant Learning, developed by L.D. Fink, is based on the idea that all forms of learning require that the learner experience some kind of change. Fink states that without change there is no learning. For lasting change to occur there needs to be a significant connection or high level of importance to the learner’s life. The more significant an activity is to the learner, the greater the change, the greater the amount of learning that occurs. Based of this perspective, Fink created a taxonomy of learning that contains 6 categories of significant learning values or goals. Each of these categories contains more specific learning values that are all important to the learner (Fink, 2003).

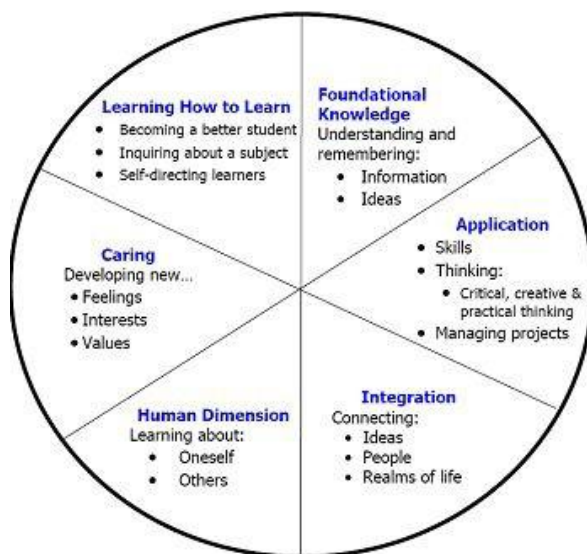


FIGURE 2,4 The Taxonomy of Significant Learning

Significant Learning Value Categories

1. Foundational Knowledge: The basics, what students bring to the table.
2. Application: Doing, can be playing the piano, managing a complex task
3. Integration: When students are able to see and understand the connections between different things, an important kind of learning has occurred
4. Human Dimension: Relates the learning to the learner. This kind of learning informs students about the human significance of what they are learning
5. Caring: When students care about something, they then have the energy they need for learning more about it and making it a part of their lives. Without the energy for learning, nothing significant happens.
6. Learning How to Learn: This kind of learning enables students to continue learning in the future and to do so with greater effectiveness.

Individual learning styles are important in Fink's taxonomy. Each learning value can address multiple learning styles. Fink stresses that these learning values do not exist alone and that they are typically synergetic with each other. When faculty creates activities that incorporate multiple learning values they in turn are influencing multiple learning styles. This becomes important when it is realized that classes are made up of learners with different learning styles. While it would be difficult to develop exercises after inventorying the variety of learning styles that a particular class processes it is important to try and address as many different learning styles as possible. This is accomplished by creating learning activities that incorporate different values - which in turn will impact multiple learning styles. The more types of learning the teacher can promote the greater the potential is for creating a deeper change in the learner.

CREATIVE LEARNING.

In education, the term creativity is often used but seldom defined. Baghetto (2005) points out, teachers might ask students to use their creativity in the design of a project, or might refer to a student's response as creative, without explaining what they mean. A lack of definition of this concept might result in erroneous assumptions (Baghetto, 2005), leading educational actors (including teachers, students, parents, and policy makers) to identify creativity only with talent, the arts and personal characteristics. Creativity is often seen as a talent, or as a characteristic of eminent people. Distinctive personality traits have been identified to exemplify a creative mind. A number of studies recognize that creativity can be enhanced and cultivated.

What is then creativity for education? And what is creative learning? Creativity is currently defined as a combination of

'newness and value which have to coexist in a creative outcome.(Sternberg & Lubart, 1999). The balance between the two concepts is important; something original which has no value could also have negative characteristics (Beghetto, 2005). The application of this definition to education – and to young people in particular – raises a series of questions about the suitability of 'newness and value' to learners' development and achievement. It might be questionable to assume that young children and teenagers could have revolutionary breakthrough ideas that are both original and valuable for society. Originality and value have therefore to be understood in their everyday and mundane meaning (Runco, 2003). Focusing on the potential of all individuals to be or to become creative (Esquivel, 1995). It is important therefore to consider each child at their stage of development (Sharp, 2004) and to allow for a wide spectrum of creative outputs. For instance, we would expect a greater depth of ability and knowledge in a 16-year old drawing than in that of a five-year old (Craft,2005). There is a shared agreement on youth's and children's creative potential (Robinson, 2006; Runco, 2003).

The creative outputs of children are often original and valuable (hence creative) for the children themselves, but not in comparison with larger norms (Runco, 2007). At the same time, children's and youth's new ideas and ability to see things in a new perspective cannot be dismissed as 'non-creative'. It is thus necessary to rethink the concept of value. It has been recognized that the value of a creative expression should be judged by the learners themselves (Craft, 2005; Runco, 2003)

Another aspect of the emphasis is on the process instead of the product (Sharp, 2004). If we look at products and achievements, children will seldom have an opportunity to be judged or to judge themselves creative when compared to adults

(Runco, 2003). A similar point can be found in Malaguzzi (1993), who maintains that creativity is more visible when adults pay attention to the process and not to the product. Michalco, (2008) considers that the secret of creativity is collaboration, insisting on the fact that creativity depends on the way in which the participants combine their talent and effort, keeping their personal note at the same time. Simplicio (2000) sees creativity as a method and an approach to thinking and living. The focus on the development of thinking skills can be understood as a priority of the process over the product.

While it has been proven that intelligence is not a necessary prerequisite for creativity (Sternberg, 1999), knowledge seems to be a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for creativity (Boden, 2001). It is nevertheless, still unclear how knowledge proficiency shapes creative outputs, as research findings seem to be contradictory, stating on the one hand that extreme expertise will hinder creative outcomes (Simonton, 1990) and on the other that there is no limit to the amount of knowledge needed to be creative (Weisberg, 1999). Knowledge and expertise are unquestionable attributes of the creative eminent mind, regardless of the debate about the amount and the kind of knowledge needed (Scott, 1999).

Knowledge is of substantial importance to trigger a creative outcome; but the reverse is also true. Creativity allows for the making of connections across different areas of knowledge (Burke, 2007). This is an important point, as research shows that students, and especially young children, find it very difficult to transfer learning from one area to another, or to apply former knowledge to new topic (Sharp, 2004). They need to be trained and taught how to make connections and to build on previous understanding. In turn, this scaffolding allows an expansion of knowledge. The relationship between creativity and knowledge

could therefore be seen as a virtuous circle, where creativity stimulates knowledge acquisition and new knowledge permits new and creative thinking paths. In addition, building a creative bridge between different domains provide results in holistic approach to knowledge. Taking the individual as the reference for the originality and value of outcome leads to an assumption of creativity as a model of understanding and of knowledge creation. Craft (2005) and Runco (2003) certainly support this view. Runco (2003) sees creativity as the construction of personal meaning and Craft (2005) views creativity as a form of knowledge creation.

Learning in a creative way is certainly a form of meaning making. Constructivist approaches to learning involve understanding and making new and valuable connections between old and new knowledge. As Piaget (1973) had claimed, 'to understand is to invent'. Understanding is a form of meaning creation- just as creativity is. Therefore, creativity is an aspect of learning (Craft, 2005). Creative learning is hence any learning which requires understanding, invention, making new connections, seeing things in a different perspective. Non-creative learning, on the contrary, comprises all learning privileging memorization over understanding; rote learning and learning of facts.

The notion of innovative teaching stems for the creative learning. Innovation is the implementation' (OECD, 2005) or the 'intentional introduction and application' (West & Richards, 1999) of a novelty which aims to ameliorate a particular situation. Teaching can be seen as the implementation of methods and pedagogies, of curricula and contents. Any kind of teaching which addresses creativity and applies it to methods and contents can be seen as innovative teaching. The first term refers to the possibility for learners to develop their creative

skills and to learn in a new creative way. The second term includes both the process of teaching for creativity and the application of innovation to teaching practices. Creativity is not only desirable but also necessary because it involves co-construction of meaning and promotes an active role of the learners. At the same time, it requires new methods, formats and approaches, thus asking for an innovative role of the teacher.

EFFECTIVE LEARNING

Effective learning is the ability to accomplish a purpose of learning; functioning effectively. People who will do nothing unless they get something out of it for themselves are often highly effective persons. The other definition is 'Producing or capable of producing an intended result or having a striking effect. Furthermore, Hewitt (2008) states that Effective Learning is an understanding and conscious reflection on learning strategies which are insufficient for effective learning: the learner must know which strategy is right, how to use it and when to use it most appropriately.

Research has identified numerous broad-based principles that characterize current knowledge about effective teaching. We encourage readers not to interpret these principles as 'dictums' for educators to follow, but to use them as guides to either confirm or disconfirm personal beliefs about teaching.

Brown (2001) adapted from Brophy stated effective praise for creating a classroom climate that is positive, stimulating, and energizing as the followings; a teacher :

- shows genuine pleasure and concern,
- shows verbal and nonverbal variety,
- specifies the particular of an accomplishment, so students know exactly what was performed well,
- is offered in recognition of noteworthy effort on difficult

task,

- attributes success to effort, implying that similar success can be expected in the future,
- fosters intrinsic motivation to continue to pursue goals,
- is delivered without disrupting the communicative flow of ongoing interaction.

Cooper, P and Donald McIntyr (1998) have stated that the dominant model of the 1970s for research into teaching effectiveness was the *process-product* model, at the heart of which was the examination of correlations between *product* measures of, for example, desired pupil attainments and selected *process* measures of classroom activities hypothesized to be conducive to these desired outcomes. These concern with what teachers and pupils try to achieve in their classroom work, and with how they try to achieve these things, offer an important perspective on the work of schools.

Most obviously, any serious attempts to improve the quality and effectiveness of teaching and learning in schools must start from an understanding of what people in classrooms do at present. More specifically, the initial and continuing professional education of teachers needs to be informed by understandings both of how experienced teachers do their work and of the ways in which pupils set about their classroom learning. Similarly, the curriculum frameworks within which teachers are asked to plan and conduct their teaching, and the assessment and reporting frameworks through which both teachers and pupils are held accountable for their work, will be sensible and useful only in so far as they take account of how teachers and pupils do their work and of why they work as they do.

Furthermore, Cooper and Donald McIntyr (1998) claim that the way forward must be one which recognizes the dangers of making assumptions about what happens in classrooms or what effective teaching involves and which takes as its starting point the attempt to understand what people in classrooms are trying to do, and how they go about trying to do it effectively. There is no suggestion here that the people who work in classrooms already know all about effective teaching and learning, but three things *are* suggested.

1. First and most important, the things that teachers and pupils try to achieve in their classroom teaching and learning, the ways they try to achieve these things and the problems they encounter offer very fruitful starting points for generating hypotheses about effective classroom teaching and learning.
2. Only through knowing about teachers' and pupils' classroom practices and the thinking that underlies them will it be possible to theorize incisively about the limitations of current classroom practice.
3. Only through knowing about teachers' and pupils' classroom practices and the thinking that underlies them will it be possible to educate beginning teachers or to plan curricula or in other ways to plan intelligently for the development of classroom practice.

The use of the analogy does not imply any further preconceptions about the knowledge that guides teachers' classroom practice. Teachers of course do have other kinds of knowledge, which they use for other purposes, and their craft knowledge is likely to be more or less integrated with the totality of their professional knowledge; but it is with their professional craft knowledge, the knowledge that informs their everyday classroom teaching, that we are especially concerned.

JOYFUL LEARNING

The goal of joyful learning is to make learners to be joyful and feel pleasure during the process of teaching and learning so that they are brave to express their ideas and give response to someone's idea as well as to behave and act out joyfully. Then the ultimate goal of A-C-E-J learning is to make learners active and creative in a joyful condition and situation to create harmonious interactions between the teacher and the learners and among learners themselves within sufficient and limited time in order to achieve teaching and learning objectives.

Price (2005) has stated a model of joyful learning on a case study depicts a choral play where all players are members of a chorus: speaking or singing together as a collective story teller, while simultaneously observing the unfolding action of the story. Individuals take it in turn to step out of the group and become a character. When they have played their part, they melt back into the group and once more become storyteller and audience. The children remain continually engaged in the storytelling while individuals have scope for playing character parts without being overstretched. Using this formula, teachers can effectively introduce singing, movement, dance and recitation, together with parts for individuals who relish a challenge, provided this is done in such a way that the children do not get bored or marginalised. The teacher using the medium of the choral play can be confident that rehearsals and the performance stay well disciplined for the children remain absorbed in the story they are telling. Being both audience and performers keeps everyone thoroughly engaged.

Hayness (2007) claims that applying joyful learning is by stimulating and motivating children in the classroom. Responding to children's questions creates situation in which it

is more likely that children will be motivated and able to ask them in the first place. Then, one of the most important judgements teachers make on a daily basis is the choice of resources to use for teaching. The judgement influences the kind of learning interaction that is likely to take place. Teachers should avoid those sources that seem to tell them exactly what to think and to choose starting points that are genuinely thought provoking. Luckily, there is plenty of this kind of material around. We might want to begin from a work of art or music, a photograph, a poem, a cartoon or a real-life event.

Furthermore, Haynes (2007) states that one of the most accessible places to find material that stimulates deeper questioning is in high-quality children's literature, particularly picture books. There are practical, educational reasons why pictures and picture books are so suited to encouraging questioning and to teaching thinking. Pictorial material offers easier access to ideas for a greater number of children – ideal for young readers or children with reading problems. Picture books can be funny and imaginative, and they are short, entire stories that can be managed in a single lesson slot. A good selection of picture books can include a wide variety of aesthetic styles and cultures, offering children a rich source of ideas. The aesthetic quality of the book enhances the power with which ideas are conveyed – the better a book is illustrated, the more thoughts, feelings and images the reader can work with. The best picture books can be used with any age group to generate stirring and memorable conversations.

Classroom interaction such as questioning, reasoning and dialogue able to apply joyful learning for children in teaching and learning process. Doddingdon (2001: 273) states that talking is a fundamental form of expression for each individual located 'between' persons as conversation. It is the basic vehicle for

personal engagement with others and serves to develop thought and identity. This implies that educational practice in speaking and listening should support and give opportunity for talk and opportunity to listen in ways that are authentic rather than contrived. Each speech event relates to the particularity in which it is embedded; the objective of classroom talk should enable speakers to become perceptive listeners, interpreters and versatile participants rather than to be programmed.

The classroom is a very different kind of learning context from the worlds that children have experienced before they come to school. In schools pupils talk far less and much more rarely initiate the kind of verbal interaction that leads to deep intellectual quests for understanding. In the classroom teachers are in charge and most verbal interaction is planned and initiated by them. Teachers know how important questions are but, even when they encourage questioning and keep a careful log of questions asked, they can be disappointed by both the quantity and quality of pupil questioning and the resulting interaction. The vast majority of teachers' questions, perhaps necessarily, are 'closed', i.e. they already know the answer and they are 'fishing' to check whether pupils do as well. While this kind of questioning is an essential part of the teaching repertoire, if it happens too frequently or is the only type of teacher-pupil interaction that takes place, children can quickly learn that there is usually only one 'right answer' to a question.

As seen from some of the children's questions mentioned already, not all questions have a single answer and vast areas of human knowledge are much more uncertain and provisional. When it comes to these deeper questions about the world or how we live, a distinctive kind of interaction is valuable in helping to create meaning and in encouraging deeper thinking and independent reasoning. Fisher (1990) claims that the teachers

need to thoughtfully cultivate the kind of teaching space where conversation is kept open and where everyone feels confident and free to explore ideas in progress. This is all very well in spontaneous interaction between adults and children, but how can these qualities of learning be nurtured in the more formal and organised setting of the primary classroom? How can we generate the kind of activity of minds sometimes referred to as 'higher order' thinking and interaction. Children describe it as the kind of thinking that makes their minds burst or their brains hurt.

Brown (2001) states how to create a positive classroom climate by establishing rapport. Rapport is a somewhat slippery but important concept in creating positive energy in the classroom. Rapport is the relationship or connection the teacher establishes with his/her students a relationship built on trust and respect that leads to students' feeling capable, competent and creative as well as joyful learning. Here are how a teacher sets up such a connection by:

- showing interest in each student as a person,
- giving feedback on each person's progress,
- openly soliciting students' ideas and feelings,
- valuing and respecting what students think and say,

ACHIEVEMENT.

Morgan (1981) states that the word 'achievement' refers to what someone has done. This word should be distinguished from 'ability' which refers to something a person can do. In addition, Morgan gives a definition that 'achievement' is accomplishment on a test of knowledge or skill, also a personal motive. In brief, 'achievement' is the result that is gained by someone after learning the materials of a subject matter within certain period of time.

Achievement is closely related to learning because learning itself is the process, while the achievement is the result. Learning as a process of getting knowledge and a new skill will be definitely influenced by learning factors. The mastery of the knowledge and the new skill will not be successfully achieved if it is not supported by the learning factors.

According to Best and Kahn (1989), achievement tests attempt to measure what an individual has learned. They are particularly helpful in determining individual or group status in academic learning. Achievement test scores are used in diagnosing strengths and weaknesses and as a basis for awarding prizes, scholarships, or degrees. Then, Carter and Nunan (2001) stated that language achievement is the extent to which the students have learned the contents or achieved the objectives of a particular curriculum of a language program.

MOTIVATION

In teaching and learning process of active. Creative, effective and joyful learning, motivation is the most important affective factors to be owned by the learners, the higher the motivation, the better the learning achievement will be. Definition and two types of motivation are clarified as follows:

Winne (2004) defined that 'motivation' is as cause that motivated individuals to act in 'forms of behavior'. Furthermore, Harlen and Crick (2003) say that motivation is a multifaceted concept, deeply related to a number of psychological factors, personal determination, self-esteem, self efficacy, effort, self regulation, locus of control and goal orientation. Similarly, the concept of achievement motivation is not a single concept, rather, it is a complex thought that involves a number of factors that motivate students to achieve. Then, Escribe and Huet (2005) defined achievement motivation as the individuals' perception

or purpose towards their achievement, while Carol, Kaplan, and Michael (2001) described it as 'the purposes for behavior that are perceived or pursued in a competence-relevant setting'. Achievement motivation includes several areas such as goals orientation, intrinsic motivation, short and long terms goals' However, this study was designed and restricted to goals orientation namely mastery goal performance goal and performance-avoidance goal orientations in learning English.

The mastery goal addresses students' reasons to engage in learning English during their teaching and learning process using deeper cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to acquire knowledge. Mastery goal orientation refers to how students engage in learning for the sake of knowledge. Performance goal deals with students' reasons to engage in learning for the purpose of grades or competition. Performance-avoidance goal is related to students' low ability perception, and avoidance behaviors of it refers to students' motivation to avoid negative results and perceived failure as a result of insufficient capacity. (Elizabeth and Pintrich 2003)

Salwa (1999) provides extensive evidence and documented findings to conclude that theory of achievement motivation merges several motivational factors, such extrinsic incentive, students' perception toward learning activities, parents and home influence, teachers' interaction and methods of teaching, learning environments and peers' effects, goals and task value among others.

Motivation is classified into two main types as follows:

1. Integrative Motivation

A learner is said to be integratively motivated when he/she wishes to identify with another ethno-linguistic group (Gardner and Lambert,1959). This concept is further

advocated by Brown (1987: 115) An integrative motive is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of that society”

According to Brown (1987) integrative motivation may indeed be an important requirement for successful language learning. Many of Lambert’s studies (1972) and a study by Spolsky (1969) found that ; integrative motivation generally accompanied higher scores on proficiency tests in a foreign language. The conclusion from these studies was that integrative motivation may indeed be an important requirement for successful language learning. And some teachers, generally, have even gone so far as to claim that Integrative motivation is absolutely essential for successful second language learning.

In an expansion of integrative motivation, Graham (1984) claims that integrative motivation is the desire on the part of a language learner to learn the second language in order to communicate with, or find out about members of the second language culture. It does not necessarily imply direct contact with the second language group..

The most dominant work in SLA studies of motivation has been done by Gardner and his associates (1991). In his socio-cultural approach, attitudes play an important role. He stated that “motivation to learn a second language is influenced by group related and context related integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation respectively”. A person who has positive attitudes toward the target culture and people is thus considered well-motivated.

McDonough. (1986) notes that there are two types of integrative motivation. The first one is motivation to “belong” to the target group and acquire a psychological character, or “assimilative motivation”. The other is called “affiliative motivation”, a general desire for wider social contact with the language speaker. So we can divide “integrative motivation” types into two, assimilative, which means to participate in a foreign society and affiliative which means to be friend with foreign people or to travel and stay in a foreign country.

2. Instrumental Motivation

In contrast to integrative motivation, Gardner and associates (1972) described “instrumental motivation” as a motivation to acquire some advantages by learning a second language. A learner with instrumental motivation regards languages as an instrument to get a reward. Though “instrumental motivation” also influences second language learning to the extent that an instrumental motive is tied to a specific goal, its influence would tend to be maintained only until that goal is achieved. Once, any chance for acquiring the reward is disturbed, the learner will stop making anymore efforts.

Brown (1987) refers to instrumental motivation as motivation to acquire language as means for instrumental goals, for example, furthering a career, reading technical material, translating a text and so forth. Instrumental rewards are a motivating source when individuals believe that the behaviors they engage in will lead to certain outcomes as pay, praise and others of such.

Futhermore. Gardner & Lambert (1972) claimed that integrative orientation (desire to learn a language stemming

from a positive affect toward a community of its speakers) was more strongly linked to success in learning a second language than an instrumental orientation (desire To learn a language in order to attain certain career, educational, or financial goals), later studies showed that both could be associated with success.

Two important points based on the research by Gardner and his colleagues centered on a dichotomy of orientation, not motivation. Orientation means a context or purpose for ; motivation refers to the intensity of one's impetus to learn. An integrative orientation simply means the learner is pursuing a second language for social and or cultural purposes, and within that purpose, a learner could be driven by a high level of motivation or a low level. Likewise, in an instrumental motivation, learners are studying a language in order to further a career or academic goal. (Brown, 2001)

CHAPTER IV

STRATEGIES FOR THE VARIOUS SKILL AREAS

This section provides a sampling of the literature on language learner strategies in the skill areas of listening, reading, speaking, writing, vocabulary learning, and grammar. With regard to strategy instruction in general, interest in enhancing the learning and use of an L2 through strategy instruction has been on the rise at the elementary and secondary schools and at the university level, adult centers, as well as in self-access centers (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2007; Chamot, 2008). While strategy instruction may vary in form, it is likely to have the following features: (1) raising awareness of the strategies that learners are already using; (2) presenting and modeling strategies so that learners become increasingly aware of their own thinking and learning processes; (3) providing multiple practice opportunities to help learners move toward autonomous use of the strategies through gradual withdrawal of teacher scaffolding; and (4) getting learners to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies used and any efforts that they have made to transfer these strategies to new tasks.

A review of listening strategy research looked at studies on approaches to strategy elicitation, on the relationship between strategy use and listening success, on prior knowledge as a processing strategy, and on efforts to improve strategy use (Macaro, Graham, & Vanderplank, 2007)

Listening Strategies

The conclusions were that the relationship between successful listening and strategy use needs to be explored more

rigorously, that prior knowledge can easily be misused, and that, although there is a considerable body of literature exploring listening strategy use, the literature related to strategy instruction is more sparse.

A qualitative, classroom-based investigation serves as an illustrative study of listening strategies (Farrell & Mallard, 2006). The study described the types and frequency of receptive strategies used by 14 learners at three different proficiency levels in French while engaged in a two-way information gap task. The findings were that the learners at all proficiency levels were able to use three types of strategies: (1) obtaining new information from interlocutors (forward inference, uptaking – indicating they were listening and presumably understanding, and faking – indicating comprehension when they had not understood); (2) confirming old information (hypothesis testing and text-level reprise – repeating the speaker’s words with a rising or falling intonation); and (3) clarifying old information (sentence-level reprise – repeating a word or words without understanding them at the sentence level, and global reprise – signaling a comprehension problem but without indicating what). Despite the findings that learners across proficiency levels used these strategies when needed, the researchers still recommended strategy instruction, especially for beginning L2 learners.

A recent study looked at the impact of strategy instruction in listening (and reading) relative to other powerful factors such as socio-economic background (Harris & Grenfell, 2008). The researchers conducted a quasi-experimental study, involving 120 from intact experimental and control classes of 12-to-13-year-olds learning French. Whereas the experimental class was exposed to explicit strategy instruction in listening and reading during their French lessons, the control class was not. Over a nine-month period, the experimental classes were taught 25

lessons or parts of lessons incorporating strategy instruction. The results were that listening strategy instruction benefited all students regardless of their prior attainment or prior attitude, their gender, or bilingual status.

Another study involving strategy instruction investigated the effects of a meta-cognitive, process based approach to teaching L2 listening over a semester (Vandergrift & Tafaghodatari 2010). The 106 participants came from six intact sections of a French L2 course at the University of Ottawa, Canada. The 60 students in the experimental group listened to texts using a methodology that led them through the meta-cognitive processes (prediction/planning, monitoring, evaluating and problem-solving) that underlie successful L2 listening. The 46 control-group students, taught by the same teacher, listened to the same texts the same number of times, but without any guided attention to process. As hypothesized, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the final comprehension measure, after statistical adjustment for initial differences. Transcript data from stimulated-recall sessions provided further evidence of a growing learner awareness of the meta-cognitive processes underlying successful L2 listening, as student responses on the Meta-cognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire changed over the duration of the study.

Speaking Strategies.

A review article by Nakatani and Goh (2007) examined trends in L2 communication strategy research from both an interactional approach (i.e., a focus on the way learners use strategies during interaction that could help to improve negotiation of meaning and the overall effectiveness of their message) and a psycholinguistic view (i.e., a focus on mental

processes that underlie learners' language behavior when dealing with lexical and discourse problems). They highlighted how different researchers have described communication strategies and how the use of such strategies is examined in relation to learner and task variables in different contexts. They also examined intervention studies involving strategy instruction and their pedagogical implications.

A recent study of speaking strategies at the group level involved 94 Taiwanese junior-college English majors (Wu & Gitsaki, 2007). The study found that in general the higher-level English speakers reported themselves as using more oral communication strategies than the lower-level speakers. The only two strategies with an opposite result were "message reduction and alteration strategies" and "nonverbal strategies while speaking." The results showed that the high-proficiency subjects reported making significantly more use of fluency-maintaining, accuracy-oriented, and social affective strategies than the low-proficiency subjects.

One study involved 30 participants receiving one week of strategy instruction and 30 receiving two weeks, with 15 in a control group (Iwai, 2006). The main finding was that teaching communication strategies have a potential for L2 learners' declarative knowledge to become procedural knowledge, thus enhancing oral performance. A second study looked at strategies for oral communication, the degree to which these strategies could be explicitly taught, and the impact of strategy use on communicative ability (Nakatani, 2005). In a 12-week EFL course based on a communicative approach, 28 female learners received meta-cognitive strategy instruction, focusing on strategy use for oral communication, whereas the 343 females in the control group received only the normal communicative course, with no explicit focus on communication strategies. The findings

revealed that participants in the strategy instruction group significantly improved their oral proficiency test scores, whereas improvements in the control group were not significant. The results of transcription and retrospective protocol data analyses confirmed that the participants' success was partly due to an increased general awareness of oral communication strategies to the use of specific strategies, such as maintenance of fluency and negotiation of meaning to solve interactional difficulties.

A third study focused on the effect of a cooperative strategy instruction program on the patterns of interaction that arose as small groups of students participated in an oral discussion task (Naughton, 2006). Intact classes of Spanish EFL students from the University of Granada were randomly assigned to three experimental groups ($n = 24$) and two control groups ($n = 21$), and triads from within each group were videotaped at the beginning and end of the experimental intervention. The pretest showed that prior to strategy instruction, interaction patterns frequently did not reflect those interactions deemed important for language acquisition as identified within both traditional L2 acquisition and socio-cultural research. The posttest revealed, however, that the program of strategy instruction was largely successful in encouraging students to engage in these types of interactional sequences (i.e., use of follow-up questions, requesting and giving clarification, repair, and requesting and giving help).

Reading Strategies.

A review of reading strategy research presents an overview of empirical research published since the 1970s on strategies for L2 reading comprehension, beginning with a conceptualization of the processes involved in reading, and noting that research findings are still not conclusive as to whether these processes

are, on the whole, universal or language specific (Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007). Researchers look at various aspects of how first language (L1) reading impacts L2 reading, and consider the nonlinguistic factors as well, such as cultural knowledge, motivation, and interest.

An illustrative example of a group study of reading strategies is that by Ho and Teng (2007). The participants of the study were 152 11th-grade EFL students at a vocational high school in northern Taiwan. The study administered two instruments to these low-intermediate-level English students: (1) a 32-item questionnaire asking participants to report the frequency with which they use certain EFL reading strategies; and (2) an interview guide used to probe participants' reading strategies. The results showed that compensatory strategies were reportedly used the most frequently, with translation being the most frequently-reported strategy in this category. Metacognitive strategies were reportedly the strategies least used by these vocational high-school students. In addition, female students had higher mean scores on most of the reading strategy items, and proficient students used more strategies than less proficient ones. The explanation offered was that the proficient students chose to use various EFL reading strategies in order to comprehend the text, while less proficient students tended to skip the unknown parts.

A case study illustrative of work on reading strategies examined the socio-cultural variables that influenced the strategy choices of two international students studying in the US, one at law school and the other doing a masters in business administration (Uhrig, 2006). The study documented how the two students used language strategies differently to succeed in their respective programs. The researcher used verbal report protocols, strategy logs, and interviews to arrive at a picture of

how these students handled assigned readings and other course demands. Uhrig found that learning style preferences had a notable influence on language strategy choices. This finding confirmed and expanded the hypothesis that strategy use can be predicted by an analysis of task and learning style (Cohen, 2003). For example, the business student's response to the teamwork requirement of the MBA program was to worry about communication in English. Because of his concrete-sequential and introverted learning style, he adapted to this challenge by creating and relying on summaries, and by working individually and comparing results with team members after establishing his own understanding. The law student, on the other hand, responded to the workload in his program with a general strategy of extending the minimum effort sufficient for getting by. His abstract-intuitive and extroverted learning styles led him to rely on his background knowledge and on other students as resources to minimize his efforts.

Strategy Instruction in Reading

Two studies were illustrative of strategy instruction in reading, one involving elementary-level students and the other involving college-bound students. The first study was of strategy instruction at the upper elementary level in Singapore, where learning to read in English was regarded as essential because it was the medium of instruction in the education system, although the majority still learned it as an L2 (Zhang, Gu, & Hu, 2008). The participants were 18 pupils in grades 4, 5, and 6 from three neighborhood primary schools. The results suggested that the use of reading strategies varied according to language proficiency and grade level. High-proficiency learners seemed to be more concerned about meaning and knew that they needed to predict, summarize, infer meaning, and monitor their

comprehension processes. For the low-proficiency learners, the attempt to read in English possibly terminated at the perceptual processing stage, and in other cases wild speculation and guessing permeated the process.

The second study examined the willingness of English-as-a-second-language (ESL) students to be engaged in strategic reading instruction in Singapore (Zhang, 2008). The study involved classroom activities over two months, following a social constructivist approach where meaning was constructed through dialog between an “expert” (i.e., a more competent learner/peer) and a “novice,” during which the latter internalized the new concepts under the teacher’s guidance as facilitator, participant, and interact throughout each lesson. This quasi-experimental study involved an experimental and a control group of 99 college-bound ESL students from the People’s Republic of China (average age of 18). The strategy instruction program started with awareness-raising activities, followed by explaining, modeling, monitoring, and evaluating strategy use. The results showed that the teacher’s strategy-based instructional intervention evolving around participatory activities affected changes in the ESL students’ use of reading strategies and improvement in comprehension. The experimental group benefited more than the control group from group sharing and discussion of many of the instances or contexts where particular strategies were used. The two most prominent strategies distinguishing the two groups were previewing or survey texts and identifying organizational patterns of text.

Writing Strategies.

A study of strategy instruction for business writing was conducted at a technical college in Taiwan (Huang, 2007). The instructor-researcher drew heavily on a meta-cognitive framework in her approach to teaching 34 3rd-year students the basics of business writing—including explicit instruction, scaffolded instruction, expert modeling, think-aloud training, and self-questioning. While the study intended to explore how a meta-cognitive approach could enhance students' ability to deal with business English writing tasks, low proficiency level and lack of motivation shifted the focus to describing reasons why learners did not make use of meta-cognitive strategies in dealing with problems in their business correspondence. Qualitative data were collected through: (1) information about work experience from a pre-course questionnaire; (2) students' reactions to the instruction from a mid-term course feedback; (3) students' comments in class, including oral feedback, group discussions and presentations, and individual students' verbal report protocols; (4) students' written assignments, feedback, and responses on test; and (5) the instructor's reflective notes.

Manchón, Roca de Larios, and Murphy (2007) conducted a systematic review of the empirical research on composing strategies published in English since 1980. They analyze how the strategy construct has been conceptualized in the empirical research on composing and identify the frameworks informing these conceptualizations. They summarize the main research insights regarding descriptive studies of the strategies used by L2 writers, and the impact of strategy instruction on writing strategy use. They also discuss the use of the L1 in planning, writing, revising, and monitoring L2 writing; strategies internal to the writer and socio-cognitive variables that are external to the

writer; and studies dealing with the transfer of strategies across languages.

Vocabulary Strategies.

Nyikos and Fan (2007) consider the lexical dimension of language learning in a report on studies that describe strategies through which L2 learners discover the meaning of unknown words, and integrate and consolidate newly acquired vocabulary. This chapter examines vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) with particular focus on learner voice (i.e., how learners report their own perceptions regarding their actual use of VLS). They look both at de-contextualized VLS (memorization strategies, repetition, association, and keyword mnemonics) and at contextualized vocabulary inferencing strategies, as well as at dictionary and electronic look-up strategies. They also consider factors that affect VLS use, including proficiency, individual variation, and learning environment.

A study looked at word-decision strategies while reading among 40 US college learners of Chinese at the beginning and advanced levels (Shen, 2008). The study compared the strategies used by these two groups and then identified the most effective out of 100 strategies. It was found that both the beginning and the advanced learners accessed their mental lexicon in the decision process. Other strategies both groups used included making guesses based on intuition, combining the semantic information of each constituent character, deriving word meaning based on the semantic information about the constituent characters, applying knowledge of parts of speech to the target item or adjacent characters, and using contextual information. The advanced learners were more likely to use contextual knowledge. Word-decision accuracy rating for

beginners was 50%, and perhaps surprisingly, only somewhat higher (54%) for advanced learners.

Out of 106 college English majors in Hong Kong who responded to a questionnaire about their dictionary use, 25 agreed to participate in a strategy-instruction workshop (Chan, 2005). The participants were given a list of 25 erroneous sentences and were asked to use the dictionary that they would regularly consult. Areas of incorrect usage included the transitivity of verbs, countability of nouns, choice of verb forms, and choice of prepositions. Verbal report was used for recording the process of locating a target word, searching for the appropriate usage, and determining which was correct. Although students regularly consulted one or more dictionaries in their ESL learning, their dictionary skills were found to be inadequate and the recommendation was that they get instruction in it.

Grammar Strategies.

Although it was the intention of Oxford and Lee (2007) to review the literature on grammar strategy studies, they found that there was such a paucity of studies that instead they wrote a position paper instead on how grammar strategies had largely been ignored in the research literature. Their chapter starts by offering an overview of the instructional modes that teachers employ for dealing with grammar in L2 classrooms. The first two entail either implicit instructional treatment of grammar with a focus on meaning or with a focus on form. The third and fourth entail either an explicit instructional treatment of grammar with an inductive focus on forms or a deductive focused on forms. Next, the authors explore diverse types of grammar strategies in connection with different kinds of grammar learning. As a link to the real world, they quote from a

teacher's diary about grammar instruction and grammar strategies.

One recent study conducted during a 20-week course entitled "English for Living and Working in New Zealand," investigated the students' attitudes about ways that grammar could be dealt with in the course (Bade, 2008). The 14 students taking the course were all immigrants to New Zealand with less than two years in the country. The students responded to a 20-item questionnaire in the first week of the course, with 15 of the items focused, and another five open-ended (e.g., what they were doing with their knowledge and why they were doing it). The questionnaire related grammar to course content, inquiring about the kinds of resources that students used to assist in language learning, and the students' preferred teaching methodology, kinds of feedback, and types of error correction. Reported strategies included using time outside of class to practice each grammar point for 10 minutes, trying out grammar forms in their own sentences based on a model sentence, and basing their learning of a grammar point on explicit rules and a text that exemplified these rules so that they could learn the points accurately.

In another study, 20 highly-motivated students of Spanish were asked to describe their strategies primarily for dealing with grammar (Morales & Smith, 2008b). These were students who had attained high levels of proficiency on the ACTFL proficiency scale as compared to average students of Spanish. Nine were studying Spanish in university classes and 11 were home-schooled. The authors give examples of how the students used strategies involving mental images in order to remember the correct use of grammatical forms (verb inflections, *por-para*, *ser-estar*, direct vs. indirect pronouns, gender of nouns, and article use).

While much attention is focused on the teaching of grammar, not much attention has been paid to how learners are to go about learning and performing it. And the somewhat unfortunate reality is that grammar forms are not just magically acquired. Even though in this era of communicative language teaching, there is a tendency to play down the issue of grammar and even relegate grammar learning to homework assignments, the hard fact is that learners encounter grammar forms that are problematic and may well cause them repeated difficulties, regardless of how well they are presented in textbooks, drilled in class, or exercised in homework assignments. As Oxford and Lee note in their review of grammar strategy issues, “grammar learning might or might not occur for a particular student. At heart, learning depends on the student”. (Oxford & Lee, 2007 : 119)

One strategy instruction study focusing on grammar entailed exposing American university students of Spanish to mental image associations in order to assist them in differentiating the uses of the verbs *ser* and *estar* (Morales & Smith, 2008a). The reason for the strategy instruction was that the uses of these verbs were seen to present special challenges to the learners, for whom the verb “to be” was generally used for both *ser* and *estar*. The study demonstrates that the 113 students with brief exposure to visual images associated with the uses of *ser* and *estar* showed a greater improvement in their ability to distinguish the correct use of each verb than did the 90 students in the control group who did not get exposure to visual images to help in learning the distinction. The article provides useful samples of the instructional materials used to teach the distinction.

Another effort at grammar strategy instruction involved the construction of a website featuring over 70 strategies

deployed successfully by learners of Spanish grammar, including strategies from nonnative teachers of Spanish—who need to learn Spanish grammar in order to teach it (Cohen & Pinilla-Herrera, 2009). The website has audio- and video-clip descriptions from learners and nonnative teachers of Spanish about strategies that they have used for successfully learning problematic grammar forms. The website also includes diagrams, mental maps, charts, visual schemes, and drawings used to convey strategy information. The website can be used for obtaining strategies to enhance the learning of specific grammar forms, or to get ideas for strategies that could be applied to the learning of various grammar forms.

In the summer of 2008, 12 learners of Spanish participated in a usability testing of the website, and changes were made to the site based on the feedback. In the spring of 2009, two University of Minnesota undergraduates similar in age and status to the website potential users conducted evaluation research with 18 undergraduate students of Spanish to determine the strategies that they chose to incorporate into their grammar strategy repertoire and what they thought of the experience. The study consisted of a website orientation session and two follow-up interviews. Findings suggested that students appreciated the practical nature of the website and the usefulness of the strategies. They tended to find that the strategies that they incorporated into their repertoire helped to improve their oral and written work, and had a positive effect on their achievement in class (Cohen, Pinilla-Herrera, Thompson, & Witzig, in press).

Teaching Integrated Skills and Language Components.

Language skills consist of listening, speaking, reading and writing, and language components which refer to vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. There is a recent trend toward skill integration rather than treating the four skills in separate of a curriculum. Curriculum designers for English language at the elementary school level in Indonesia take more of a whole language approach where by reading is treated as one of two or more interrelated skills. A course that deals with reading skill, then, will also deal with related listening, speaking and writing skills and they are also related to language components like vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Abdullah Hasan, et.al (2017) state that in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), the teachers or the candidates of teachers should consider the four skills in English – listening, speaking, reading and writing as the achievement to be reached.

Brown (2001) states that some English experts may argue that the integration of the four skills diminished the importance of the rules of listening, speaking, reading and writing that are unique to each separate skill. Such an argument rarely holds up under careful scrutiny of integrated-skills courses. If anything, the added richness of the latter gives students greater motivation that converts to better retention of principles of effective listening, speaking, reading and writing. Rather than being forced to plod along through a course that limits itself to one mode of performance, students are given a chance to diversify their efforts in more meaningful tasks. Such integration can, of course, still utilize a strong, principles approach to the separate unique characteristics of each skill.

Teaching Listening

Listening as a major component in language learning and teaching first hit the spot-light in the late 1970s with James Asher's (1977) work on Total Physical Response. In TPR, the role of comprehension was given prominence as learners were given great quantities of language to listen before they were encouraged to respond orally. Similarly, the Natural Approach recommended a significant "silent period" during which learners were allowed the security of listening without being forced to go through the anxiety of speaking before they were ready to do so.

Technique purpose for beginners in listening is to focus on components (phonemes, words, intonation, pronunciation, etc) of discourse may be considered to be intensive – as opposed to extensive – in the requirement that students single out certain elements of spoken language. They include the bottom-up skills that are important at all levels of proficiency. Brown (2001) gives examples of intensive listening performance include these:

- Students listen for cues in certain choral or individual drills.
- The teacher repeats a word or sentence several times to imprint it in the students' mind.
- The teacher asks students to listen to a sentence or a longer stretch of discourse and to notice a specified element, such as, intonation, stress, a contraction, a grammar structure, etc.

When teaching listening for beginning-level listeners, Brown (2001) claims that bottom-up exercises are appropriate especially these aim to discriminate between intonation contours in sentences, to discriminate between phonemes, such as listening to pairs of words; to listen selectively for morphological endings such as to listen to a series of sentences

or to choose true or false sentences; and to listen selectively details from word recognition, such as, match a word with its picture.

Teaching Speaking

From a communicative, pragmatic view of the language classroom, listening and speaking skills are closely intertwined. Curricula that treat oral communication skills will simply be labeled as “Listening/Speaking” courses. The interaction between these two modes of performance applies especially strongly to conversation, the most popular discourse category in the profession. Some of the components of teaching spoken language were covered closely at teaching listening comprehension types of spoken language, and listening microskill becomes a factor of the oral code. In teaching English skills for children, Brown (2001) states that the teachers should consider five categories that may help give some practical approaches. They cover (1) intellectual development, (2) attention span, (3) sensory input (4) affective factors and (5) authentic, meaningful language. Specifically for teaching speaking, the material given to the students should involve concrete operation, authentic and meaningful language based on real situation.

An example of teaching speaking through song with the procedure as follows:

- Teacher turns on a song and the students listen to it.
- Teacher reads lyrics of the song and the students repeat it.
- Teacher turns on a song and the students follow it slowly.
- Teacher gives a model by asking two students to sing and then, change some lyrics to the real one

- Teacher asks the students to practice it in a pair work, then in a group work.
- Teacher turns on the song and ask the students to sing together by deviding into two groups, and then interchange the parts.

The lyrics of the song : WHAT'S YOUR NAME?

A: Hello, friend! What's your name?

B: My name is **SUZANA (SUSANTO)**

A: How do you spell it? 2x

B: S - U - Z - A - N - A. (**S-U-S-A-N-T-O**)

A: What is your nick name?2x

B: Just call me **ANA (ANTO)**

A: Where are you from?2x

B: I am from **Pekanbaru**

(Bangkinang)

A: Where do you live?

B: **At 6**

Sudirman street (At 10 A.Yani street) A:

Thank you 2x

B: You're welcome.

Another example of teaching speaking through a pair work and a group work.

The teacher gives a model first, then the students try to practice it by answering with the real condition and situation.

Question & Answer (PAIR WORK) & SELF INTRODUCTION

No	Questions	No	Answers
1	What is your name?	1	
2	What is your nick name?	2	
3	Where are you from?	3	
4	Where do you live?	4	
5	Where do you go to school?	5	

6	What class are you now?	6	
7	What is your hobby?	7	
8	What is your favorite drink?	8	
9	What is your favorite food?	9	
10	What is your favorite subject?	10	

Teaching Reading

As it was mentioned beforehand, integrated approaches to language teaching emphasize the interrelationship of skills. Reading ability will be developed best in association with writing, listening and speaking activities as well as the involvement of language components such as vocabulary and grammar. Even those courses that may be labeled as “reading”, will be best achieved by capitalizing on the interrelationship of skills, especially the reading-writing connection. It is important to focus on reading as a component of general second language proficiency, but ultimately reading must be considered only in the perspective of the whole picture of interactive language teaching.

For most second language learners who are already literate in a previous language, reading comprehension is primarily a matter of developing appropriate, efficient comprehension strategies. The strategies of teaching reading for beginners or children are related to bottom up procedures. At the beginning levels of learning English, one of the difficulties, students encounter in learning to read is making the correspondences between spoken and written English. In many cases, learners have become acquainted with oral language and have some difficulty learning English spelling conventions. They may need hints and explanations about certain English orthographic rules and peculiarities. While it can be assumed that one-to-one grapheme-phoneme correspondences will be acquired with ease,

other relationships might prove difficult. At the beginning level, Brown (2001) states oral reading can:

- a. serve as an evaluative check on bottom-up processing skills.
- b. double a pronunciation check, and
- c. serve to add some extra student participation if the teacher wants to highlight a certain short segment of a reading passage.

1. The procedures of reading aloud:

- a. The teacher reads a paragraph of reading text.

Mr. and Mrs. Amir have a small family. They have two children, a son and a daughter. Their son is Rudy, and he is handsome and tall. He is 13 years old. He is at Grade VII of MTsN 2 Pekanbaru. He is a smart student and he masters 2 foreign languages; English and Arabic. He is the best student at his class. Their daughter is Mary. She is 16 years old. She is at the tenth year of State Islamic Senior High School 2 Pekanbaru. She speaks English, Arabic and German. Both of the children are diligent and clever. Their parents love them very much.

- b. The teacher reads a sentence by a sentence and all students repeat
- c. The teacher asks the students to close the book and to repeat the first sentence twice or 3 times.
- d. The teacher continues reading the second sentence and the students repeat the sentence twice or three times.
- e. The teacher reads the first sentence and continued to the second sentence, and the students repeat twice or three times.

- f. The teacher reads the third sentence, and he/she asks the students to repeat twice or three times.
- g. The teacher reads again the first, the second and the third sentence and he/she asks the students to repeat twice or three times.
- h. The teacher does the same thing up to the end of a paragraph, until the students memorize the whole paragraph.

2. The procedures of reading comprehension by using Directed Reading Activities (DRA)

Alan Crawford, et.al (2005) states the procedure of DRA methods is as follows:

- a). The teacher begins with one or two anticipation activities designed to motivate students and to activate or install needed background knowledge.
- b). The teacher should chunk the text by dividing it into manageable pieces for the students to read silently. Then, the teacher should prepare one or two comprehension level questions for each chunk to be read by the students.
- c). The teacher provides a culminating activity that allows students to review their understanding of the text and to apply them.

TEACHING WRITING

Trends in the teaching of writing in ESL and EFL have, not surprisingly, coincided with those of the teaching of other skills, especially listening and speaking. Communicative language teaching gathered momentum in the 1980s, teachers learned more and more about how to teach fluency, not just accuracy, how to use authentic text and context in the classroom, how to focus on the purposes of linguistic communication, and how to capitalize on learners' intrinsic motives to learn. Those same trends and the principles that undergirded them also applied to advances in the teaching of writing in the second language context.

At the beginning level of learning to write, Brown (2001) states that students will simply "write down" English letters, words and possibly sentences in order to learn the conventions of the orthographic code. Some forms of dictation fall into this category, although dictations can serve to teach and test higher-order processing as well. Dictations typically involve the following steps:

- a. Teacher reads a short paragraph once or twice at normal speed.
- b. Teacher reads the paragraph in short phrase units of three or four words each, and each unit is followed by a pause.
- c. During the pause, students write exactly what they hear.
- d. Teacher then reads the whole paragraph once more at normal speed so students can check their writing.
- e. Scoring of students' written work can utilize a number of rubrics for assigning points. Usually spelling and punctuation errors are not considered as severe as grammatical errors.

TEACHING VOCABULARY

Vocabulary as one of English components of language learning has been the object of numerous studies each of which has its own contribution to the field. Laufer (1997) states that vocabulary learning is the heart of language learning and language use. In fact, it is what makes the essence of a language. Without vocabulary speakers cannot convey meaning and communicate with each other in a particular language. Vocabulary is viewed as a significant component of standardized language tests; and attention is being given by methodologists and program planners to the most effective ways to promote the command of vocabulary among learners.

There are various techniques and devices for teaching of vocabulary in methodology textbooks. Weatherford (1990) stated that there are a variety of classroom techniques for second language vocabulary learning. The techniques include rote rehearsal; the use of visual aids; role-playing; vocabulary learning in a specific cultural context; vocabulary learning through art activities; the root-word approach; mnemonic techniques, such as the key word approach; use of the notion of semantic fields to illustrate conceptual relationships between words; two types of vocabulary learning through music (simple song, and the suggestopedia method); physical activities, as in Total Physical Response (TPR) instruction; study of cognates and direct borrowing; study of loan translations; use of soap-opera style drama tapes in the language laboratory; analogies; computer-assisted instruction through drills and games; and synonyms.

The former way to add new words to one's vocabularies is by locating words in the dictionary and learning what they mean, and memorize it in a single word. But this is a slow

process to increase word power. The other way to improve vocabulary is through context. As we listen and read, we often meet new words in contexts. O’Harra (1984) claimed that context is the setting or surroundings of a word; therefore, when we listen to someone’s talk, the context of a word is the statement that includes the word. Sometimes we read words in a written context. Thus, the paragraph may tell us what the new word means, or enough clues may be provided in the sentence which contains the word; or even one or two nearby words may explain the meaning of a new word we find in the text when reading.

O’Harra (1984) claims pictures can help the teachers and students in teaching and learning vocabulary, and other components of language. As a matter of fact pictures can help students to imagine the real object. In short, the concept of picture is the shared experience of many people because of their matching ability which enables them to match the words with pictures. It should be mentioned that pictures as mental representation of mind can better affect learning. Pictures are used in the classrooms as teaching devices and can be found to give practice in most skills and components and in most stages of teaching. Pictures can motivate students and nowadays, motivation is found to be an important factor in learning everything. Allen (1983) also has shown that the more modalities are involved in association, the more readily items will become available in various situations. Items should therefore be presented in association with visual representations (pictures, objects), aurally, and in association with activities of all kinds. Hence, there is a great need for research into the vocabulary teaching methods to guide us toward the most effective one.

Different techniques to teach vocabularies are used by teachers, such as teaching the words: through lists, translation,

synonyms, antonyms, contexts, realia, and songs. Some teachers believe before teaching vocabulary to their students, they should have been taught the grammar of the foreign language. Therefore, they give little or no attention to vocabulary. Allen (1983) also states that in many English language classes, even where teachers have devoted much time to vocabulary teaching, the results have been disappointing. Sometimes, after months or even years of English, many of the words most needed have never been learned. Especially in countries where English is not the main language of communication, many teachers want more help with vocabulary instruction than they used to receive.

In this study, vocabularies is focused more on teaching through real manipulatives and people through action and function, games, pictures and songs. For example, in teaching things in the classroom. The teacher can start with the song: "That is a window". The song is as follows:

That is a window.

That is the door.

That is a whiteboard.

This is the floor.

That is a table.

That is a chair

That is a cupboard.

This is the wall.

That is a picture.

That is a clock.

That is a duster.

This is a pen

(Adopted from English text book for SMP).

While singing a song, the teacher and the students point to the things mentioned in the song. After the song, it is continued by action and function through things around the classroom. For instance:

“Teacher asks a student to stand up and come to the door, touch the door, and describe it to the class. When the student touches the door, he/she says to the class, “Hello, friends. This is the door. It is brown and it is made of wood. Look! I am opening the door now.” The teacher continues by giving some models before asking the students to do in a pair work and in groups.

Although vocabulary has been the subject of many studies, few studies have revealed the effective techniques of vocabulary teaching. So it is of prime importance to attempt to find the most effective technique of vocabulary teaching. According to Allen (1983), all experienced language teachers confirm the important role of words and know that the lack of them leads to feeling of insecurity; on the other hand, the teachers’ attitude toward teaching vocabulary and the classroom techniques varies enormously.

A model of games in teaching vocabulary for young learners:

PESONA 13 GAME

Procedure of Pesona 13 Game: Students are divided into two groups. Each group consists of 4 persons. They are an instructor and 3 guessers. The judge leads the game.

**Personnels:
judge/juror**

- One timer, one scorer and one
- Time for guessing Maximum : 1 minute, if it can be answered less than 20 second , the team is given bonus : 50
- If the answer is correct = 100 , if wrong means zero.

1. Parts of the Body - Upper part: Outside : head, forehead, eyes, ears, nose, mouth, hair, chin, eyebrow, eye-lace, cheek, neck, beard, mustache, adam's apple

Inside : brain , skull, tongue, teeth, throat, blood, bone

Middle Part: Outside: fingers, - thumb, middle finger, middle finger, little finger

- Wrist, hand, elbow, arm. shoulder, back, stomach, waist, chest, arm-fit

- Inside : heart, lung,

- Lower Part : thigh, knee, culf, heel, toes,

-

2. Animals: Wild animals: tiger, lion, rhinosaurus, deer, bear, pig, elephant, zebra, wolf, giraffe, deer, leopard, gorilla, bison hippopotamus, kangoro, blackbuck, alligator, fox

Tame animals: camel, goat, cow, buffalo, horse,

Pets: cats, dogs, rabbit, a kind of birds :owl, peacock, hen.

3. Professions: teacher, student, headmaster, housewife, midwife, singer, policeman, postman, public servant, employee, town major, secretary, manager, president, headmaster, chef, waiter, waitress, driver, nurse. Doctor, internist, dentist, surgery, blacksmith, machinist, tourist, bricklayer, dean, rector,

4. Vegetables: bean, spinach, cabbage, carrot, broccoli, celery, tomato, string-bean, radish, asparagus, onion, garlic, potato, lettuce, pea, cauli flower, chili, pumpkin, mushroom, etc.

5. Transportation: - Air transportation : plane, helicopter, jet, Apollo, glider, blimp, ballon

- Land Transportation: car, bus, taxi, motor-cycle, tri-cycle, bicycle, truck, carriage, tractor, ambulance, fire truck, etc.

- Water transportation: Ship, canoo, sailboat, boat, submarine, etc.

6. **Fruits:** water melon, melon, mango, papaya, apple, avocado, lychee, coconut, banana, pineapple, pear, blackberry, cherry, grape, lemon, etc.
7. **Food :** sate, meatball, soto, cheese, fried chicken, fried rice, noodle, fried egg, peanuts, chocolate, biscuits, cakes, doughnuts, bread, sandwich, pastry, candy, etc
8. **Drink:** ice-cream, juice, apple juice, mango juice, coke, milk, coffee, mineral water, etc.
- 9 **Sports :** Football, volleyball , badminton, archery, swimming, polo, basketball, baseball, table tennis, tennis, boxing, rugby, golf, hockey, shooting, rowing, hockey, diving, hiking,, judo, water polo, gymnastics, athletic, etc
10. **Buildings:** Offices, hotel. School, townhall, governor office, mosque, church, vihara, mall, SKA Mall, post office, super market and etc.
11. **Things:** furniture , In the classroom: teacher, table, fan , cupboard, ceiling, air condition, picture,
At home, in the dining-room, in the bedroom: pillow, mattress, bed, blanket, bolster, carpet
In the kitchen.: plate, knife, fork, spoon, frying pan, pot, stove, basin, etc
Outside : trees, road, park, etc
At the sea: water, beach, sand etc.
12. **Accessories:** ring, earring, blacelet, necklace, wallet, purse, handkerchief, etc.
13. **Lessons:** Mathematics, Social sciences, Natural Sciences, Islamic Religion, Indonesian language, English language, sports, arts and handicraft, civic and moral education, chemistry, biology and etc.

TEACHING GRAMMAR.

Teaching grammar in English has always been one of the controversial issues in language teaching. Some experts claim that grammar should be taught explicitly and some others

convey it should be taught implicitly. There have always been many arguments about the best way of teaching grammar. Different methods, techniques and strategies have permanently waxed and waned in popularity. According to Piaget (1972), the children up to the age of about eleven are still in an intellectual stage and called “concrete operations”, we need to remember their limitations. Rules, explanation, and other evenslightly abstract talk about language must be approached with extreme caution. Children are centered on the here and now, on the functional purposes of language. Futhermore, Brown (2001) states: “Don’t explain grammar using terms like ‘present progressive or relative clause”, rules stated in abstract terms should be avoided; some grammatical concepts, especially at the upper levels of childhood, can be called to learners’ attention by showing them certain patterns and examples with concrete or real situation; certain more difficult concepts or patterns require more repetition than adults need.

Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined grammar as a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in a language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions these sentences have in the overall system of the language. Nunan (2003) distinguished two types of grammar, namely prescriptive grammar, which refers to rules concerned with right and wrong, and descriptive grammar which deals with the ways people actually use language.

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), in the past teaching language in general and teaching grammar were synonymous. A number of methodologies have emerged with regard to teaching grammar, one of which was the audio lingual method replete with usually monotonous and mechanical drills. Two recent trends have emerged: focus on form (Doughty and

Williams, 1998) and consciousness raising.

Spada (1997) defined form focused instruction as "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly." Consciousness-raising according to Larsen-Freeman (2001) does not require students to produce target structures. In-stead, students are made aware of the target grammatical item through discovery-oriented tasks. Finally, Brown (2001) postulated that whether you choose to explain grammatical rules or not depends on your context of teaching. If you are teaching in an EFL context in which students share the same native language elaborating on grammatical minutiae will not be an activity in vain. On the other hand, in an ESL setting explaining grammatical rules might overwhelm students and will not prove an efficacious strategy. The first technique employed in the present study was dialogue practiced through role-plays.

Literally, according to Brown (2001: 183), "Role play minimally involves (a) giving a role to one or the other members of a group and (b) assigning an objective or purpose that participants must accomplish." Brown suggested role play can be conducted with a single per-son, in pairs or in groups, with each person being assigned a role to accomplish an objective. Also as Larsen-Freeman (2000) pointed out, role-plays give students the chance of interacting and practicing communication acts in different contexts and because of this they are of primary importance in language teaching.

A model of teaching grammar through a song:

An English Song: Doing activities

I am washing 3x **my** face. (He is- his / She is - her /
They are - their / We are-
our)

I am brushing 3x my teeth
I am eating 3x my food
I am drinking 3x water.

I am going 3 x to school.
I am taking 3x my bag
I am waving 3x my hands
It is the time 2x for me to say Goodbye

The procedures of teaching grammar through a song:

- a. The teacher turns on the song and he or she asks the students to listen
- b. The teacher turns on the song and he or she asks the students to repeat.
- c. After the students master the lyrics of the song, then the teacher changes:

Subject pronoun “**I**” into “**he**” and be (**am**) into “**is**” and possessive adjective “**my**” into **his**.

Subject pronoun “**I**” into “**she**” and be (am) into “**is**” and possessive adjective “**my**” into her.

Subject pronoun “**I**” into “**they**” and be (am) into “**are**” and possessive adjective “**my**” into their.

Subject pronoun “**I**” into “**we**” and be (am) into “**are**” and possessive adjective “**my**” into our.

- d. The teacher asks the students to sing a song with action and function or activity and oral

TEACHING INTEGRATED SKILLS THROUGH SCIENTIFIC APPROACH

The scientific approach includes three competencies of attitude, skill and knowledge. Learning outcomes are able to

produce students become productive, creative, innovative and effective through the integration of the strength of attitude, skill and knowledge. The aspect of attitude makes the students able to transform the teaching materials in order to lead them “why to know”; and the aspect of skill makes the students able to transform the teaching materials the students able “how to know”; the aspect of knowledge makes the students able to transform the teaching materials able “what to know”; and the last result is to improve and to make the students to have balance between softskill and hardskill which covers the aspects of attitude, skill and knowledge competencies. (Guidelines of Curriculum, 2013).

The scientific approach focuses on the dimension of modern paedagogy in teaching and learning process. The communicative approach places emphasis on developing the communicative competence, viewed as “the overall underlying knowledge and ability for language use which the speaker-listener possesses” (Brumfit and Johnson 1983). Futhermore, it also integrates information communication and technology (ICT) to all subject matters of syllabuses. The consequence of this integration, subject matter of Information Technology has been dismissed at junior high school level and it is integrated to every subject matter. Five steps consist of observing, questioning, associating, experimenting and networking are administered in teaching and learning process of scientific approach of every subject matter. The approach is conducted on student centered instruction, and the roles of a teacher in teaching and learning process are as controler, organiser, assessor, prompter, participant, resourcer, tutor and observer.(Harmer.J 2001,p.56-62). The students are arranged into pairs and groups. Futhermore, Harmer (2001.p.120) states a key consideration when putting students in pair or groups is to make sure that we

put friends with friends, rather than risking the possibility of people working with others whom they find difficult or unpleasant. The use of student -centered activities allows teacher to spend more of their time diagnosing and correcting student problems, consulting with individual students, and teaching one-on-one and in a small group.(Smaldino, 2008). Intertion is the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, ideas between two or more people, resulting in a reciprocal effect to interact on each other.(Brown, 2001)

The procedures of teaching integrated skills through the scientific Approach are divided into three steps:

- a. Pre-activities consist of opening the lesson, motivating strategy, apperception and presenting the learning objective..
- b. Whilst- activities cover five steps of observing, questioning, associating, experimenting and networking.

In observing step, the teacher asks the students to observe video or picture and to listen to the song which depend on the facilities provided by the teacher.

In questioning step, the teacher facilitates the students to give question and answer based on the video, picture or English song. The teacher just starts one or two questions and then, he/she asks the students to do question and answer among them.

In associating step, the teacher facilitates the students to do the tasks in a pair work or in a group work and to get more resources about teaching materials either from printed materials like books, magazines , newspapers; or internet resources and realia.

In experimenting step, the teacher asks the students to do the task or an experiment in a group work in written form.

In networking step, the teacher facilitates the students in groups to share their work or ideas and to communicate among groups by questioning and answering.

c. Post-activities implement reflexion, conclusion and closure.

In the whilst-activities, the teachers needed to use ICT like multimedia teaching aids to implement the five steps that made the students became more active, creative, effective and joyful learning to achieve the objectives of the lesson. Besides, teaching and learning process tended to be a student centered instruction with modern pedagogy through the integration of the threnghth of attitude, skill and knowledge.

SUMMARY

Learning strategies are specific action taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation.. Learning strategies are divided into major classes: direct and indirect strategies. These two classes are subdivided into a total of six groups. The direct strategies consist of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies. The direct strategies are composed of meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The identification and description of learning strategies used by the language learners, many researchers have correlated these strategies with other learner variables such as proficiency level, age, field of study, gender, attitude, motivation, anxiety and cultural background. Wenden (2003) also stated that learner training is especially necessary in the area of second and foreign language because language learning in these contexts require active self-direction on the part of learners.

At last, the English teachers are fully hoped to be able to find out the solutions of students' problems in learning English

by mastering various teaching and learning strategies. The teachers apply student centered instruction in teaching and learning process in order to create the students' positive attitude, motivation, interest and self confidence. Teaching students of young learners, the teachers have the capability to apply active, creative, effective and joyful learning strategies. The teachers really master how to implement the scientific approach which combines three aspects of attitude, skill and knowledge. They appropriately implement five steps of observing, questioning, associating, experimenting and networking that focus on student centered instruction and able to achieve the desired goal of English.

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ISBN 978 602 5432 18 7



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