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READING ONLINE: EVALUATION OF ONLINE SOURCES CREDIBILITY

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Abstract

The vast amount of online information demands readers to check its credibility since fabricated information has widely been misused and also supported by a lack of filters in web-based sources in ensuring its quality. In practice, checking the credibility of an online source is not an easy task to do as searchers need to consider several aspects in its application. This happens due to some factors, such as language and searchers' willingness in identifying the quality of online information. This paper focuses on the evaluation of online sources' credibility covering scholars' definitions of online sources credibility, English-native and foreign searchers' perspective in judging online sources, and varied criteria applied in online sources credibility in which give insight for readers about this issue and provide references for further study.

Keywords: Online sources, Evaluation, Credibility

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INTRODUCTION

The dynamic changes in society as a result of the advancement of technology influence the way on how people search for information as Oktaviani & Desiarti (2017) said that technology has influenced many aspect of human life in the 21st century. In the past few decades, people relied on traditional media to get the sources that they need. Meanwhile, there is a significant transformation as rapidly developed technology plays an important role in providing a convenient platform to access information through electronic media. It is in line with Sari (2020) who mentioned that advanced technology helps people to maximize the use of the internet and digital media to gain abundant sources or information. Therefore, people nowadays tend to use more electronic media integrated with the internet in getting sources, especially digital native (Oktaviani & Mandasari, 2020). The reliance on searching for information on the internet, on the other hand, leads people to the problematic situation in identifying misleading information since the availability of varied sources on the web has led to confusion in determining what and whom to trust (Robins et. al, 2010; Fisher et al. 2008; Goldbeck, 2008). Besides, Tudjman and Mikelic (2003) emphasized that some misinformation misguidedly has been used for information on the internet since it is found that the internet has a limited number of filters toward accessible information online (Flanagin & Metzger, 2000; Johnson & Kaye, 1998; Rieh & Belkin, 1998).

Comparing to conventional based information, people should verify sources anytime they access online-based information. This should be done since the massive quantity and availability of online information creates issues about credibility as the source of information since its quality and accuracy are less clear than traditional-based information. Besides, the information found online is more prone to a modification that needs efforts to detect (Alexander & Tate, 1999; Flanagin & Metzger, 2000). Hence, the process of validating information is emphasized due to the lack of professional gatekeepers in ensuring the accuracy of sources because of the abundance of information that would need to be scrutinized. Johnson and Kaye (1998) stated that the insufficient number of reviews in web-based information leads to hesitancy in confirming the quality of sources. As the result, evaluating online sources is indeed important. However, the increasing dependence on searching sources online does not necessarily make people especially students to judge its quality. This is proven from the study of Media Awareness Network (2001) that the youngest people do not check the quality of online information for its credibility, reliability, or authenticity. In a similar vein, the report of the Stanford University History and Civic group which examined 7,804 of both middle and college students across 12 states about their ability in judging the credibility of information outlined that students were suffering to differentiate reliable sources over the internet. Furthermore, they were also confused to distinguish between advertisements and news articles from websites.

Another study by Lubans (1999) illustrated while most students involved in this study indicated that online sources assist them in obtaining as much information that needs, on the contrary, the students also think that the quality of information is not important for them. Thus, based on studies, it can be concluded that there is hesitancy among students in checking sources that they found online.

Scholars whose expertise in credibility like Wathen & Burkell (2002, p. 153) define credibility as something that is associated with believability. While Rieh (2010, p. 1338) refers to credibility as people's assessment of whether the information is trustworthy based on their expertise and knowledge. Information credibility, additionally, refers to the ability of someone in recognizing information that he or she believes to be true. When checking credibility, the ability of online reading is also considered as it covers searching for and evaluating the information aspects. Serafni (2012) stated that reading online demands readers to interpret and negotiate both the design element and graphic images to comprehend the written language. Lacking reading online ability may lead readers to get confused in evaluating the credibility of sources, and this could be one of the factors that caused unwillingness to check the credibility of online sources. This paper accordingly initiates to highlight about the evaluation of online sources credibility, covering searchers' perception toward online sources credibility evaluation and varied criteria applied in evaluating.

Online Sources Credibility

The term credibility cannot be separated from the evaluation of online source credibility. As an example, Judd et al. (2006) applied credibility and relevance of teaching undergraduate students in assessing information from websites. Fogg (2003, p.122) defines credibility as authenticity. Rieh (2010, p. 1338) illustrates information credibility as people's judgment to determine whether information that they get is credible according to their expertise and knowledge. There are two notions of credibility such as trustworthiness and expertise (Rieh, 2014). Accordingly, trustworthy information is usually defined as real, equal, accurate, and unbiased (Rieh, 2014) while Fogg (2003, p.124) illustrates expertise as apparent knowledge, skill as well as experience of sources.

Traditionally, credibility is distinguished into three aspects, source credibility, message, and media credibility. O' Kaffee (1990, p. 130-131) defines source credibility as an assessment done by a searcher regarding the credibility of a communicator. Message credibility emphasis how the message aspects such as content, structure and language, and presentation can influence opinions toward the credibility of information (Rieh, 2010) and media credibility emphasizes the believability of varied media networks throughout a message is sent (Roper, 1985). Flanagan & Metzger (2008) propose three kinds of credibility: conferred credibility, tabulated credibility, and emergent credibility. Conferred credibility refers to a condition where people identify credibility based on other sources' good reputations, not from the real source. Tabulated credibility depicts people's judgment about credibility based on peer review of individual, group, or product, and emergent credibility comes from enriched sources on the internet like social networking sites made by individuals (Rieh, 2008).

According to Harris (1997), the credibility assessment involves assessment of authority, consistency, style, and accuracy of the text, assessment of the goal of the text, and authentication of the information in the text. Metzger and Flanagan (2013) suggested six methods in evaluating information credibility that is, reputation, authorization, steadiness, self-conformation, probability violation, and convincing intent. The reputation heuristic known as acknowledgment emphasizes that people tend to rely on known alternatives or familiar sources. Particularly, official information sources are more credible and authoritative. The authorization method proposes that people more thoughtlessly believe sites in the form of ratings, feedback, and testimonial suggested by both known and unknown individuals. The heuristic of steadiness indicates that people frequently determine credibility by testing to assess if the information is reliable throughout several different sources. The heuristic self-conformation shows that, if it suits their expectations or preceding views, people frequently interpret information as credible. The heuristic probability violation reveals that websites that are unsuccessful to fulfil the standards of individuals are considered less credible. Lastly, the convincing intent heuristic indicates that information detected as partisan is not considered as reliable.

Evaluation of Online Sources

The rapid development of technology provides a new format for getting information that people can access information online. Online sources as also known as internet sources refer to materials that you find online. It provides people with authentic and real communicating English (Sari, 2016). Since the easy access offered by the internet is promising, most people rely on it to get online information. However, not all online sources available are credible. Therefore, it is suggested to evaluate the online sources because the study conducted by Brandt (1996) showed that information available from varied online sources mostly do not stress resources based on the objectivity and subjectivity of information required by users. Similarly, December (1994) stressed that no matter how good a website is, it would not be useful if it remains filled with low-quality, inappropriate and misleading

information. Furthermore, Kovacs et al. (1994) emphasized the need to analyze information on the internet does not necessarily corroborate what is found but to find out the background as well as the capability of its author.

In a learning context, the importance of online sources is to define the method in information searching as Wu and Tsai (2005) stated that the evaluative principles about precision and effectiveness of information owned by internet users determine their approaches to search information in internet based-learning. Also, MaKinster et al. (2002, p. 167) stated that the students who can assess the quality of search engine results can also identify the effectiveness of web pages.

The importance of online sources credibility evaluation is also emphasized when people seek health information and advice online. As outlined by Kitchens & Harle (2014) and Zhang (2013) that it is necessary for people in evaluating sources concerning health matters since the information obtained will influence their health-related behavior as well as decisions. Besides, Diviani et al. (2015) emphasized that source evaluation is indeed essential that the insufficient ability in evaluating information will lead to people's vulnerability. To sum up, doing the evaluation is necessary as it can help internet users to find credibility as well as the effectiveness of information that they find online.

Searchers' Perception toward Online Sources Credibility Evaluation

The easy access available online is not equal to the process of selecting credible sources. Searchers sometimes find it difficult to select credible sources as there are varied procedures to follow. Besides, challenges like insufficient filtering system, source acknowledgment make searchers get confused in determining the quality of online sources. Therefore, this creates various perceptions toward online sources of credibility evaluation. In the English native context, Rieh et al. (1998) confirmed that information source is one of the crucial aspects in determining searchers' perception toward online information credibility. It is found through their study that searchers prefer to access information online by surfing the web that they have known as credible from their peers or schools. This action is considered as an appropriate way to guarantee the credibility of sources because those searchers were doubtful to apply another way to evaluate the quality of sources without external authority. Meanwhile, Lackaff & Cheong (2008) depicted different perceptions of students in understanding and interpreting online sources through their study that source authority is not the main aspect used by students in evaluating online information. On the other hand, the students apply other aspects assisting them to search and evaluate online information such as heuristic-based on appearance and organization. Small and Ferreira (1994) examined middle school students toward their perception in searching sources using printed and multimedia sources revealed that students take more effort in searching sources on the internet compared to print sources. It also stated that students showed more positive perceptions toward print sources than multimedia sources.

Another study illustrated the perception of the credibility of online sources is done by Mehrabi et al. (2009) through their survey exploring factors affecting non-academic professional staff on their perception toward media credibility. The finding showed that participants felt that television provides more credible information compared to the internet, another result of this study also found that there are correlations among issue, media dependence, and media use regarding perception on internet and television credibility. In a similar vein but different finding, Flanagan and Metger (2000), discussing the comparison of credibility information between television and the internet reveals that participants in this study considered information on the internet is as credible as on television.

While in EFL context, Shahibi et al. (2013) examined Malaysian students' perception toward the credibility of information on the internet showed that in determining the credibility of online information, students are more focused on information sources then followed by other aspects such as web design and review of other internet searchers. The study conducted by Ayu (2020) on online materials used by university students showed that the credibility of English web-based sources of foreign-language information seeker was useful to help them learn English. Another result of this study also depicted that the participants of this study tend to trust English language sources if it is familiar with them. This factor is motivated as they found it difficult to evaluate the credibility of online. Similarly, Komlodi et al. (2011) illustrated that people in their study were suffering when conducting online sources credibility assessment in foreign language searching. This issue is supported by the fact that they are not familiar with particular culture as well as the organization of information within which a language is spoken. As the result, it creates negative perceptions among searchers.

Searchers' Behavior toward Online Sources Credibility

Some studies depicted that there are some differences between EFL searchers' and English native searchers' criteria in evaluating the credibility of online sources. This discrepancy could be caused by certain aspects and factors that they consider to do so. For example, in the English native context, Fogg et al. (2003)

indicated that when evaluating the credibility of online sources, the students more rely on the visual design sites compared to their content. Fidel et al (1999) also highlight through one of their findings of high school student's behavior in assessing the credibility of online sources that high school students are more concerned with the graphic and design of a website. Hirsh (1999) outlines the different criteria taken by an adult and young people in judging the credibility of web-based information that adult people tend to depend on accurateness and trustworthiness while young people more prefer topics and preferences. Bateman's (1999) survey on information credibility found that 48% of respondents of this study judging credibility of information based on accuracy, consistency, understanding, and well-written. Additionally, Hillgoss and Rieh (2008) who conducted a study toward the way undergraduate students specify criteria in evaluating the credibility of online information found that students use varied ways in determining the credibility of sources depending on the context or kind of information that they got comparing to use five criteria offered by Hillgoss and Rieh covering truthfulness, believability, trustworthiness, objectivity, and reliability.

While in EFL context, the study of Liu and Huang (2005) in a cross-cultural study in the United States and China toward the behavior of undergraduate and graduate student in judging credibility reported that undergraduate students depend on authors' name, reputation, and website reputation for their credibility evaluation while graduate students more rely on quality and accuracy of the information that they found online. Catherine's (2018) study using survey toward 400 Indonesian respondents in assessing the credibility of online sources by using Flaginin and Metzger credibility model: believability, accuracy, trustworthiness, bias, and completeness showed that people more rely on trustworthiness and completeness in determining the credibility of online sources. Savolainen (2011) through his explorative study examines criteria applied in judging the quality and credibility of information on the internet toward Finnish respondents showed that in evaluating the information credibility, the participants employ reputation, expertise, and honesty of the author's message as the main criteria in the argument while assessing the quality information, they apply positive criteria like validity and negative criteria like dishonesty.

Concerning the differences in choosing criteria in evaluating online sources' credibility, Callister (2000) confirmed that this issue is caused by the breakdown of the standard convention in choosing credibility on the internet. Another anecdote led the discrepancy could be supported by people's cognitive knowledge. Lang (2000) stated that people with a lack of cognitive ability are reluctant to process all messages that they get. Besides, they only choose some noticeable aspects in encoding, storing, and retrieving information. Lastly, the factor that creates varied criteria in credibility evaluation is unnoticed elements provided by websites. Fogg (2003) states that since there are some elements in a website that cannot be detected by users, those elements are excluded in users' credibility evaluation.

CONCLUSION

Regarding with evaluation of online sources' credibility, people have different perspectives in selecting the criteria depend on the source and context of information that they obtain. The unwillingness of evaluating sources' credibility can be caused by varied factors, for example, numerous approaches in determining the quality of information that create confusion. For foreign language searchers, language proficiency is considered as the main aspect that makes them demotivate to judge the quality of the information in English. All in all, no matter what factors support the refusal of assessing the credibility of online sources, evaluation is indeed essential to be applied to avoid the use and spread of fake news, hoaxes and fabricated information.

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INFLUENCE OF SEX ON STUDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES: A CRITICAL REVIEW

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Abstract

Due to the importance of providing learning environment that suits the students' preference in learning a language, many studies have been conducted on the learning strategies employed by the students. Doro and Habok (2013) investigated the learning strategies of Hungarian young students learning English as a foreign language. The instrument they used was the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for adult. It was statistically found that the instrument was reliable and worked well with the young learners. Another result of the study was that meta-cognitive strategies were the most frequently used while compensation strategies were the least frequently employed by the students. The study also discovered that female students showed higher frequency of learning strategy use. I conducted a similar study on Indonesian young students and tried to compare the result. There will be, however, difference in the instrument to collect the data. After consulting an English teacher who teaches young students, I decided to use the modified SILL for Taiwanese children by Lan (2005). This is due to the consideration that Indonesian students might not be able to fill in the complex questionnaire as in the adult version of SILL. The findings show that Meta-cognitive strategies as the most preferred group of the six strategy categories have exactly the same means of both Doro and Habok's and my studies i.e. 3.2 and female students appeared to use language learning strategies more frequently than male students.

Keywords: learning, strategy, sex, influence, language

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INTRODUCTION

The potential of strategies used by language learners has been an interest among many scholars despite some controversy over the basic issues. There was a consensus stated that language learning strategies used by the learners contributes significantly to the mastery of target language. There are many studies that explore the language learning strategies and styles and its significance of target language mastery (Mandasari & Oktaviani, 2018; Wahyudin & Rido, 2020; Lestari & Wahyudin, 2020). However, this paper tried to replicate the study reported in the article entitled *Language Learning Strategies in Elementary School: The Effect of Age and Gender in an EFL Context* written by Katalin Doro and Anita Habok. Doro is a teacher in Department of English Language Teacher Education and Applied Linguistics, while Habok is an employee in the Institute of Education MTA-SZTE Research Group in the Development of Competencies. Both of them work for University of Szeged, Hungary.

An Overview of Doro and Habok's Article

Confronting the terminology

In their article, Doro and Habok consistently use the term gender to classify students into male and female. Oxford Learner Dictionaries (2020) defines gender as "the fact of being male or female, especially when considered with reference to social and cultural differences, not differences in biology. The term gender is also used more broadly to mean a range of identities that do not necessarily fit in with the usual division between male and female." While the word sex simply means "the state of being male or female" (Oxford Learner Dictionaries (2020). Therefore, instead of gender, the term sex is more suitable with the context in Doro and Habok's paper since they do not specify the students being male and female based on social and cultural perspectives. Consequently, in this critical review, the term sex is used to refer to the variable being studied.

The importance of the subject

Doro and Habok implicitly mentioned the importance of writing the article. They illustrated that over the last four decades, valuable insight regarding how learners comprehend and acquire their own second or foreign language teaching in or outside the classroom, has been obtained from research on language learning strategies. The authors, however, observed that there was something missing in terms of research or published literature that specifically focused on language learning strategies employed by primary school students learning English as a foreign language.

In addition, Doro and Habok quoted the statements of some scholars (such as Oxford and Bury-Stock (1995), Yilmaz (2010), and Jin-Suk and Tae-Young (2011)), conveying the need of more research on learner beliefs and strategies from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. In order to contribute to this field, the authors conducted a study on the overall language learning strategies of a great deal of Hungarian EFL fifth and sixth graders and their strategy use according to their grade level and sex. The author, however, did not explicitly relate the cultural and linguistic variation with their research variables (i.e. sex and grade). It would have been better if they provided a clear description of how sex and grade could be the aspects of cultural and linguistic background variation.

The literature review

The review of related literature shows that the article is written based on rather up-to-date references. All of the journal articles and most of the books quoted in this article are written after the year 2001. The older references used by Doro and Habok are the ones that consists of basic underlying theories such as the books by Chamot, O'Malley, Oxford, and Rubin. The authors of this article reviewed some definitions of language learning strategy by some expert such as O'Malley and Chamot, Cohen, and Oxford. Surprisingly, the authors absurdly chose to adopt the definition by Oxford without conveying the motive behind it. A synthesized definition would be more preferable.

The research objectives and methodology

Doro and Habok specified the objectives of their research. The first purpose is to investigate whether the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) for adult is a reliable instrument to be used for children learning English. Secondly, the research aimed at studying the overall language learning strategies used by the students as one main group. The third objective is to determine the significant differences between the fifth and sixth grades in their strategy use. The last aim is to know the significant differences in the students' strategy use according to their sex. Regarding grade and sex as two of the research variables, Doro and Habok did not clearly describe their rationale on why they included those variables.

The methodology employed in this article is an empirical study where the researchers required fifth and sixth graders to fill in questionnaire items i.e. an adapted version of the SILL for ESL or EFL learners. The researchers, however, did not provide explanation on why they used the adapted version (by other researcher i.e. Yang (2002) instead of using the original version by Oxford (1990). Another odd thing is, in all sections of the article (except in the instrument section), the researcher kept mentioning that they used the original version of SILL by Oxford (1990). This can come across as misleading to the readers.

The findings and implications

The findings show that the SILL for adults worked well with Hungarian young students. The researchers stressed that the reliability of the instrument was because it was translated into Hungarian language. The respondents as one group showed more frequent use of meta-cognitive strategies. Regarding the different grades, there were no significant differences in the students' learning strategy use. The study also discovered that female students showed higher frequency of learning strategy use.

The authors seemed to only describe, not discuss the findings. They should have explored what might be the causes of the findings turning out like that. For example, when the result shows that female students employed more frequent strategy use than male students, the authors could have stated that it might be because female students are more meticulous in nature.

In their article, Doro and Habok states "The combination of age, language background and methodology chosen for this study has not been investigated earlier. Therefore, result provides new insight into early strategy use of young foreign language learners". This statement shows that the authors claims to have contributed to new knowledge. In reality, the difference from the previous research is only the background language i.e. Hungarian language. The other variables such as students' age and methodology (the use of the SILL) have been studied by a great number of researchers.

Doro and Habok realized the strength as well as the shortcomings of their study. The study has proven that the adult version of the SILL is reliable to be used by the students of eleven years old to do self-reporting. One of the weaknesses of the study is related to the homogeneity of the subjects' educational background. All of the subjects came from similar public elementary schools of the same region. The implication of this reality is that the results of the experiment are only valid for this specific student population. Another limitation is that the results do not necessarily reflect the strategy use related to certain task types used in the classroom. Therefore, the authors pointed out that overgeneralization of the results should be avoided.

RESEARCH METHOD

The research by Doro and Habok inspired the researcher to do a similar study which eventually led to an empirical review of the article. There are, however, some differences between this research compared to theirs regarding the subjects and the instrument to collect the data. The subjects of Doro and Habok's research were Hungarian fifth and sixth graders while this study required responses from fifth grade Indonesian students in an EFL context. The sixth graders were not accessible because they were preparing for National Examination. The details will be explained in the next section.

As for the instrument, Doro and Habok took the result of another research i.e. by Pinter (2006) –which concluded that children of age 10 and 11 can think logically, organize their thoughts and focus on a wide range of cognitive tasks– and their personal experience working with Hungarian 10- and 11-year-old students, as the primary reasons of employing the adult version of the SILL. However, the situation is different in Indonesia (Sinaga and Oktaviani, 2020). After consulting an English teacher who teaches young students, the researcher decided to use the modified SILL for Taiwanese children by Lan (2006). This is due to the consideration that Indonesian students might not be able to fill in the complex questionnaire as in the adult version of SILL.

As the researcher was interested in conducting a similar study on Indonesian EFL learners and in seeking to compare the result, the research questions are formulated as follows.

1. What is the overall language learning strategy use of the fifth-grade students?
2. Are there significant differences between the male and female students in their language learning strategy use?

Participants

Twenty five students of the fifth grade of the Lab UM Primary School gave responses to the questionnaire prepared. Ten of the respondents were females while the other fifteen students were male. The students belonged to International Class Program (ICP) –where English was primarily used as the language of the classroom instruction– and have learned English for roughly five years. Prior to administering the questionnaire, the researcher strived for obtaining consent from the university educational laboratory unit (UPT P2LP) and the headmaster of Lab UM Primary School. The reason why the participants was choose because even though it is ICP, the students have learned English in pretty much the same length as the other primary school students have.

Instruments

In contrast to Doro and Habok's study, –in which the adult version of the SILL was employed– I used the SILL for Taiwanese children proposed by Lan (2006). The questionnaire consisted of thirty-one statements which are categorized into six parts as listed in the Appendix 1.

To make sure that the respondents could clearly understand the statements, the questionnaire was translated to Indonesian language and a modification was made. The modification was in the form of more detailed items by giving clear examples. The items were evaluated using a five-point Likert scale with the following values.

1. Never to almost never,
2. Usually not,
3. Sometimes,
4. Often, and
5. Always or almost always

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The subjects of the study were asked to respond to a five-point Likert scale items to show which language learning strategies they use more often. Just like the in Doro and Habok's research, the students' responses of my research were computer-coded and processed with the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). The results are discussed below.

Overall strategy use

Table 1 illustrates the overall language learning strategy use in all respondents. Memory strategies were the least frequently used by the students with mean only 2.33. Compensation, cognitive, affective, and social strategies held the second to fourth positions in term of frequency of use with means respectively 2.65, 2.88, 2.93, and 2.96. Meta-cognitive strategies (Mean=3.28) are shown to be the most preferred strategies.

These data indicates consistency with the results of Doro and Habok’s study. Meta-cognitive strategies as the most preferred group of the six strategy categories have exactly the same means of both studies i.e. 3.2. The means of compensation, cognitive and affective strategy use are also identical between the two studies (M=2.6, 2.8, and 2.9). The differences are only on the means of memory and social strategies and on compensation strategies being the least preferred strategies in Doro and Habok’s study, while in my study, memory strategies are.

Table 1. Summary of Language Learning Strategy Use in All Respondents

Strategy sub-scales	All respondents
	N=25 Mean
Memory	2.33
Cognitive	2.88
Compensation	2.65
Meta-cognitive	3.28
Affective	2.93
Social	2.96

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The major similarity between the two studies was meta-cognitive being the most frequently used strategies and with identical means. This is probably because the teaching of English in Hungary and Indonesia are similar i.e. students are encouraged to coordinate their language learning process by frequently doing planning and self-monitoring. The reason might be that the English language instructors in both countries are aware of the importance of training meta-cognitive strategies. Goh (2002) argues that learners’ meta-cognitive awareness is related to effective learning in all learning context. In addition, as quoted from O’malley at al (1985), learners who do not employ meta-cognitive approaches have no direction or ability in monitor their progress, accomplishment, and future learning direction.

Strategy use according to sex

Table 2. Summary of Language Learning Strategy Use by Sex

Strategy sub-scales	Boys	Girls
	N=14 Mean	N=10 Mean
Memory	2.14	2.64
Cognitive	3.05	3.15
Compensation	2.4	3.1
Meta-cognitive	3.1	3.54
Affective	2.78	3.13
Social	2.69	3.3

Table 2 illustrates the mean of each language learning strategy employed by male as well as female students. As shown in the table, the female students appeared to use language learning strategies more frequently that male students. The mean differences range from 0.1 to 0.7. The smallest difference among the strategies was cognitive strategies (male=3.05; female=3.15) while the largest one is compensation strategies (male=2.4; female=3.1).

Saville-Troike (2006) states “The tendency of females doing better than males in language learning is a widespread belief among the society of the western cultures. It is a perhaps a social construct”. The female students (in this study) employing more compensation strategies might be because they are more determined and hardworking in term of trying to understand their interlocutors and to make themselves understood. In the

endeavors, female students might want to guess an unknown word or phrase by looking at the whole sentence, use gesture when they do not know how to say it, ask help when they forget a word or phrase, and use alternatives of saying something.

CONCLUSION

The result of this study supports Doro and Habok's findings and indicates consistency of meta-cognitive strategies as the most frequently used by English language learners. Other language learning strategies such as compensation, cognitive and affective strategy use are identical between the two studies. The consistent findings are probably because the instruments of both studies were translated into the students' native language. Therefore, I suggest that other researchers interested in conducting similar studies choose the appropriate instrument and translate it into students' mother tongue.

Since learning strategies can actually be taught (William and Burden, 1997), another suggestion is for teachers to train language learning strategies to their students. Teaching learning strategies can increase student motivation in two main ways: by increasing students' confidence in their own learning ability and by providing students with specific techniques for successful language learning (Wahyudin, 2017, 2018). In addition, students who have learned how and when to use learning strategies become more self-reliant and better able to learn independently. The purpose of employing strategies by learners is to make learning more effective and long lasting (Mitchell & Myles, 2002). Lastly, it is recommended that teachers always include both male and female students in groupwork. This will promote learning opportunity for male students to observe how female students use their learning strategies.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Questionnaire (Proposed by Lan (2005))

Part A (Memory: restoring and retrieving information)

1. I associate new English words with what I already know (for example, when I learn the word *computer*, I associate what I already know about computer).
2. I make a drawing, either in my head or on paper, to help me remember a new word (for example, when I learn the word *bike*, I picture a bike in my head).
3. I learn new words in sentences.
4. I use flash cards to memorize new words
5. I review often.
6. I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly writing.
7. I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing.

Part B (Cognitive: comprehending and producing the element of English language)

8. When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people, in order to pronounce the words correctly.
9. I often practice English alphabet sounds.
10. I often watch TV in English or I listen to English tapes or CDs.
11. I read books in English (for example, English story books)
12. I work with English computer programs.
13. I try to find opportunities outside of school (tutoring or cram schools) to practice my English.
14. I find similarities in pronunciation between Chinese and English (for example, the word *card* sounds similar to the Chinese word *Ka*).
15. I make an effort to understand the sense of what I read or what I hear without translating word for word.
16. I try to discover grammar rules of the English language (for example, using *is* for singular and *are* for plural).

Part C (Compensation: coping with the inadequacy of English language knowledge)

17. When I hear or read a new word in English, I try to guess the meaning by looking at the rest of the sentence.
18. When I have trouble making myself understood in English, I use gestures to express what I want to say.
19. When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help.
20. When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (for example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using *big cat* for the word *tiger*).

Part D (Metacognitive: organizing the language learning process)

21. I organize my time to study English (not just when there is a test).
22. I look for occasions to speak English.
23. When someone speaks to me in English, I listen attentively.
24. I am concerned about my progress in learning English (for example, concerning and understanding if I have learned what I am supposed to and see if I have made progress)
25. I analyse the errors I have made and try not to repeat them.

Part E (Affective: emotion and attitude toward language learning process)

26. Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax.
27. I will still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes.
28. When I succeed, I reward myself (for example, taking a break or doing things I enjoy or treat myself to something good to eat).

Part F (Social: interaction with others during language learning process)

29. If I don't understand what is said to me in English, I ask the person to help me by speaking slowly, repeating, or clarifying what has been said.
30. I practice English with my parents, sibling (or other family members) or my classmates.
31. I am interested in and willing to learn the culture of English-speaking countries (for example America or England).

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EFL STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVE ON WHATSAPP AS MEDIA OF ONLINE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN COVID-19 PANDEMIC

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Abstract

The COVID-19 Pandemic indicated a unique challenge to the educational system. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention recently advised doing social distancing. Many applications were developed and web-based. One of them was developed and become famous was WhatsApp. WhatsApp is one of the mobile phone applications and web-based social network that integrates with various features used to communicate with other users, ranging from education, business, and entertainment developed this social networking site. This study aimed to explore the EFL student's perspective on WhatsApp as media on teaching and learning during this Pandemic. This paper used a qualitative descriptive method. The data was collected through questionnaire and call interview. After the research is conducted, we will find out how EFL students perspective WhatsApp as an online teaching-learning media during a pandemic.

Keywords: COVID-19, Online Learning, WhatsApp, EFL Students

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INTRODUCTION

COVID-19 has become a global phenomenon because it is overgrowing. The first case identified and announced is on December 1, 2019. As stated by Huang et al. (2020), a novel coronavirus, known as COVID-19, was discovered in the last month of 2019 in Wuhan's seafood market. Followed on December 30, 2019, a new cluster of pneumonia patients was reported to WHO (Guarner, 2020). After the research was conducted, the result showed that the virus has the same strain as the pneumonia virus strain, then called 2019-nCoV or the 2019 coronavirus novel (Huang et al., 2020). March 2020 (WHO, 2020), the Director-General of WHO declared COVID-19 as a pandemic after assessing the quick spread and seriousness of the dangerous virus worldwide with the additional declaration of social distancing to stop the spread of the widespread. The COVID-19 health emergency has constrained millions of schools and colleges worldwide to be closed temporarily to moderate the dangerous virus's spread. Many countries decided to close schools, colleges and universities, including Indonesia. On March 2, 2020, Indonesia has reported two confirmed cases of COVID-19. On March 29, 2020, the cases have increased to 1285 cases in 30 provinces. There are five highest provinces in the COVID-19 cases. They are Jakarta (675), West Java (149), Banten (106), East Java (90), and Central Java (63) (Kementerian Kesehatan Republik Indonesia, 2020). The number of cases has increased quite quickly. There has been a spread between countries; in response to that, WHO set COVID-19 as a pandemic (Cucinotta and Vanelli, 2020). All sections of human life on earth are disturbed, including education. The online system is expected to be a solution for the education system to survive during the Pandemic.

The Indonesian government followed suit by changing the teaching and learning process from face to face to online learning. There are two impacts of education caused by the COVID-19 Pandemic. The first is a short-term impact. It felt by many families in Indonesia both in the city and in the village. In Indonesia, many families are less familiar with online school. Online school for Indonesian families is a big surprise, especially for the productivity of parents who are usually busy with their work outdoors—similarly, the psychological problems of students who are accustomed to learning face-to-face with their teachers. The online learning process runs on an unprecedented and untested scale for unprecedented reasons. The second is the long-term impact. Many community groups in Indonesia will be exposed to the long-term impact of COVID-19. The impact of long-term education is fairness and increasing inequality between community groups and between regions in Indonesia.

Unexpected changes in online learning are a measure of organizational agility to make new changes so that education can adapt to a pandemic (Wu, 2020).

Hrastinski (2008) points out that the two types of online learning, namely asynchronous and synchronous online learning, are majorly compared. The instructors, organizations, and institutions must understand the benefits and limitations so that online learning can run effectively and efficiently. Online teaching and learning can be fully-online or mixed with face-to-face interactions (Bakia, 2012; Nguyen, 2015). Fully online learning is a distance education form in which all instructions and assessments are implemented using online, internet-based delivery (Picciano and Seaman: 2009). In contrast, blended learning (also known as hybrid learning) lets the students receive essential instruction portions by face-to-face and online means (Graham, Allen, and Ure, 2005; Watson et al.: 2010). Recent studies on distance education form have shifted from focusing on the technology itself to its effects on learners (Hiltz 1997, Sherman 1998, Wegner et al. 1999, Loomis 2000, Shapley 2000, Bangert 2006, Dziuban et al. 2006, Otte et al. 2006; Wahyudin & Rido, 2020).

Additionally, Gilbert (2015) explained more types of online learning besides those former two, which are traditional courses using web-based supplements that use online technology as a medium for presenting supplemental material for traditional classroom study. Moreover, several researchers have attempted to prove mobile learning's applicability as modern teaching and learning (Naismith, 2004). James M. Marshal (2002) stipulates that people are only able to remember 10% of what they read, 20% of what they heard, 30% of what they had seen and only 50% of what they had heard and seen. The advent of such technologies, which combine images, texts, and audio, can make the percentage even higher than 50%. Going in the 21st century, technology has attacked our lives and we find that education gets its impact and is developed quickly (Oktaviani & Desiarti, 2017). Teachers also began to pay attention to new technology and explore its influence on students' behaviour and performance as they are digital native (Oktaviani & Mandasari, 2020). Lam and Lawrence (2002) argue that technology provides learners with the regulation of their learning process and easy access to additional information the teacher may not provide. Technology even also stimulate students' autonomous learning (Aminatun & Oktaviani, 2019). Numerous applications were developed and web-based. Most people also use WhatsApp, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Telegram. Mobile devices offer educational prospects by enabling students to access course-related content and communicate with course instructors and their peers (Shih & Mills, 2007; Kukulka Hulme & Shield, 2008; Richardson & Lenarcic, 2008; Cavus & Ibrahim, 2008, 2009; Nihalani & Mayrath, 2010; Sari & Wahyudin, 2019a; Sari & Wahyudin, 2019b). Social media is highlighted as a media of social interaction among students, supervisors, and lecturers (Habibi et al., 2018).

One of the applications that are created and gotten to be prevalent presently is WhatsApp. WhatsApp is a mobile phone application and web-based social network that integrates different features to communicate with other clients. Extending from education, trade, and excitement, numerous created this social organizing location. The applications being created nowadays are expected to operate from social networking destinations like chatting or broadcasting messages, collaboration applications (collaboration applications), and data sharing (data sharing) will discover that the purpose of e-learning can be reached. According to (Bere, 2012), WhatsApp has collaborative features as follows:

- a) Multimedia: It allows the user to transfer videos, files, text messages, pictures and VN or voice notes.
- b) Group Chat: It encourages the communication of up to 250 group members.
- c) Unlimited Messaging: The number of messages that can be shared on WhatsApp is infinite. The application uses a 4G/3G/EDGE internet data plan or Wi-Fi to ensure continuous data synchronesh across platforms.
- d) Cross-Platform Engagements: Interaction with different devices (personal digital assistants, Smartphones, Galaxy tablets) can message one another through various media (text messages, files, pictures, videos, voice notes).
- e) Offline Message: Messages are stored automatically when the device is off or outside the coverage field.
- f) No Charges required: there are no charges required for using WhatsApp as it uses the same internet data system, which is used for email or website browsing.
- g) Pins and Users Name: WhatsApp users do not need to remember passwords or usernames as they manage via phone numbers and integrate with users' address books.

Riyanto (2013) claims that WhatsApp can socialize with friends and study and even learn a new language. Special features available in WhatsApp can boost students' active participation in EFL classrooms and inspire them to get involved in purposeful activities with a particular emphasis on practical learning outcomes (Beetham & Sharpe, 2013). WhatsApp as an English language learning tool has been studied in various contexts (Çam & Can, 2019; Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Esfahani, 2018; La Hanisi, Risdiyany, Utami, & Sulisworo, 2018). WhatsApp's effects on students' enhancement of English language learning have been explored by several studies (Ahmed, 2019; Andujar, 2016; Alsaleem, 2013; Asif, 2018; Nasr & Mustafa, 2018; Sari & Wahyudin, 2019).

Thus, this article discussed EFL students' perspectives on Whatsapp as media of online teaching and learning in the COVID-19 Pandemic.

RESEARCH METHOD

The study analyzed in this paper used a case study research using a closed-ended questionnaire and call interview as its primary data collection methods. The purpose of this research was to indicate and describe the EFL student's perception of the strength and challenges of learning via social media, mostly using WhatsApp. The participants of this research were 40 English Department students in Universitas Tidar. They have done teaching and learning activities through Whatsapp for approximately two semesters, starting from the beginning of the Pandemic until now. During the Pandemic, they engage in learning ranging from material giving, explanations, and assignments to collecting tasks done through Whatsapp. The instrument of the questionnaire consists of eight statements adapted from (Yunus & Salehi, 2012). The first up to fifth statements were used to describe the EFL students' perceptions of the strengths of online teaching and learning via WhatsApp. In contrast, the rests statement were the challenges of implementing certain social media platform, WhatsApp, on online teaching and learning process. The detail statements in the questionnaire are presented as follows:

1. I feel comfortable doing online teaching and learning via WhatsApp coded by ST1
2. I prefer discussing topic/material using WhatsApp instead of other social media coded by ST2
3. The discussions via WhatsApp helped me to understand the material effectively coded by ST3
4. During online teaching and learning, I join the discussion on WhatsApp actively coded by ST4
5. I understand the material easily coded by ST5
6. During teaching and learning online, I utilize all of WhatsApp features coded by ST6
7. I always check online teaching and learning notifications regularly coded by ST7
8. While doing online teaching and learning, I tend to be distracted by other notification that it is not related to the material coded by ST8
9. My Internet connection supports online teaching and learning through WhatsApp coded by ST9

In completing the questionnaires, the participants are expected to choose the option that most appropriate of 4-level Likert Scale, labelled by strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree. Different from other questionnaires that usually comprised of five options, the neutral option was omitted in order to know the participants' perspective.

The data collected through questionnaires were triangulated with the data taken from the call interview. In order to get detailed information, the interview was recorded and transcribed in the form of conversations. Detailed evidence-related strengths and challenges of implementing online teaching and learning via WhatsApp were noted and coded by CI. After the data collection, the further step done was data analysis. The data obtained from the questionnaire were observed by using descriptive statistics and presented in percentages. In comparison, the data obtained from the call interview were observed qualitatively. Finally, the results were presented and arranged in nine sections, referring to the questionnaire's total.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

WhatsApp is a chat-based social media. WhatsApp can instantly exchange messages and information and make it possible to upload images, videos, status, location, and voice mail. WhatsApp is also supported by a group chat feature that can be used to communicate with many people to share information and discussions. According to (Mahesh & Meerasa, 2016), WhatsApp has been instrumental in e-learning education for the last ten years.

Furthermore, this research focused on the EFL Students' perspective on WhatsApp as Media of Online Teaching and Learning in COVID-19 Pandemic. The data obtained from the result of the questionnaire and call interview. The findings of this research are divided into nine sub-sections based on the students' statements to answer the questionnaire. The results of the questionnaire in total can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Results of the Questionnaire Responses

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I feel comfortable doing online teaching and learning via WhatsApp	2.5%	17.5%	50%	30%
2.	I prefer discussing topic/material using WhatsApp instead of other social media	5%	27.5%	42.5%	25%
3.	The discussions via WhatsApp helped me to understand the material effectively	7.5%	35%	45%	12.5%
4.	During online teaching and learning, I join the discussion on WhatsApp actively	5%	35%	45%	15%

5.	I understand the material easily	10%	42.5%	45%	2.5%
6.	During teaching and learning online, I utilize all of WhatsApp features	5%	15%	52.5%	27.5%
7.	I always check online teaching and learning notifications regularly	2.5%	10%	35%	52.5%
8.	While doing online teaching and learning, I tend to be distracted by other notification that it is not related to the material	2.5%	12.5%	55%	30%
9.	My Internet connection supports online teaching and learning through WhatsApp	5%	5%	30%	60%

I feel comfortable doing online teaching and learning via WhatsApp (ST1)

In response to ST1, 50% of students agreed with the statement. On the contrary, several students represented by 17.5% of the respondents believed that they did not feel comfortable doing online teaching and learning via WhatsApp. Slightly different from the previous percentage, 30% of students strongly agreed with the statement, and only 2.5% of student chose strongly disagree. Cumulatively, 80% of students agreed that they felt comfortable doing online teaching and learning via WhatsApp, while the other 20% have different opinions. To supporting data, the evidence is taken from interviews. Based on the interview, students feel comfortable undergoing online teaching-learning via WhatsApp because some of its features support it to be used. Students A viewed that learning through WhatsApp because the material being taught can be relearned anytime and anywhere. The extract of the interview of Student A was as followed.

Extract CII. Student A

“I feel more comfortable using this WA as an online learning platform because I can read or listening again the explanation of material from the lectures. I can read the material anytime and anywhere even it does not have a good connection.”

Besides, Student B stated that apart from having supportive features, it gives many opportunities to be active without being judged. The extract of Student B’s statement could be seen as followed.

Extract CII. Student B

“So far, during online teaching and learning through WhatsApp, I have been obtaining much insightful knowledge from my lecturer and friends. Since through WhatsApp, we can share many sources or materials with others in any form or file, for instance, picture, link. , document, video etc. My lecturers mostly utilize those features to support online teaching-learning. Besides, online learning via WhatsApp gives me many opportunities to be active in the classroom, without worrying to be judged by others or feeling nervous. For that, I feel comfortable with WhatsApp, especially in online learning.”

From CII, it can be seen that comfort is very important when doing online teaching-learning. (Prensky, 2007) stated that the only way our schools will adopt and benefit from the new technology students wants and need if everyone, students and teachers, remains comfortable (or at least comfortable enough) in the process.

I prefer discussing topic/material using WhatsApp instead of other social media (ST2)

In response to ST2, the option “agree” to be the dominant choice was selected by 42.5% of students. Although 20% chose strongly agree, 27.5% of students decided to disagree with the statement in the second percentage. Moreover, 5% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, the total of students who agree with the statement ST2 is more than students who disagree with the statement ST2. Also, the above data validation, interviews were conducted. Based on interviews, students are more familiar with WhatsApp on other social media. For them, WhatsApp’s features are sufficient to support online discussion activities, so they do not need to use other social media. Student A stated that the material presented in the discussion via WhatsApp could be reviewed at any time. The extract of the interview of Student A was as followed.

Extract CI2. Student A

“I have a poor connection here. I prefer using WhatsApp because the lectures will give the material and explain the material using the VN (Voice Note), they also doing QnA, which we can listen to it anytime, even when we have a bad connection. That is the system of forum discussion on WhatsApp Group. I do not have other social media, such as Line, Telegram, etc., and the lectures also never ask us to use those social media.”

Furthermore, Student B added that WhatsApp’s features support online discussions, both for lecturers and students. In line with the statement (Boyd, 2005), WhatsApp allows the creation of closed groups, provides a safe environment, where academic discussions, as well as social dialogue, can take place with lecturers as participants and safety facilitators/moderators. The extract of Student B’s statement could be seen as followed.

Extract CI2. Student B

“I prefer discussing topic/material using WhatsApp to any other platform or social media since I can deliver my idea freely. Also, I notice that my friends, those who seem not too active in offline learning, become more active to express their ideas on online learning during WhatsApp. For that, the class will not be passive anymore, and I can bounce off my ideas together. Moreover, the lecturer can control her students as well because WhatsApp provides special features that can detect those who have already read messages, a record for those who were paying attention to the discussion or not. It will be different from any other social media since the lecturer cannot see who follow the class from the beginning to the ending. I have been using WhatsApp for six years, and I do not know much about any other social media which has the same qualification as WhatsApp.”

The discussions via WhatsApp helped me to understand the material effectively (ST3)

Reacting to ST3, 7.5% of students were firmly disagreed with the statement. Although 35% of students chose disagreed, the total number of participants who chose to agree was more, accurately, 45%. Additionally, 12.5% chose "strongly agree" option. The additional evidence related to the statement was found in the interview. Based on the interview, discussion through WhatsApp can understand the material effectively. As said (Lestari & Wahyudin, 2020), when students find difficulties in learning, they without hesitation share their problems with others and let their friends help them learn more about the target language. Although, each student has a different understanding of the material. Student A, who uses discussions on WhatsApp to understand the material. The extract of the interview of Student A was as followed.

Extract CI3. Student A

“As I have said before, if I use zoom/google meet the explanation depends on how good my connection is. As long as I have good connection, I do not have to worry about losing my connection. It is different from the discussion via WhatsApp; the material that can be review and discussion via WhatsApp is very helpful to understand the material effectively.”

Unlike Student B, who has a different way of understanding the discussion material, Student B is accustomed to reading material first before the discussion. The extract of Student B’s statement could be seen as followed.

Extract CI3. Student B

“I try to read the material given via WA first as well to make sure that I can follow the discussion well. Besides, I try to check the message, which is linked to the previous message by using the reply to the button and try to connect it. So I can understand the core of the discussion.”

During online teaching and learning, I join the discussion on WhatsApp actively (ST4)

In responding to ST4, 45% of respondents chose to agree with the statement. Another 35% chose not to agree with the statement. Different from the option ‘strongly agree,’ which only got 15% votes. Moreover, the rest stated that they strongly disagreed with the statement. Thus, the number of students who agreed with the statement was more than those who disagreed with the statement. To verify the above results, an interview with students has been conducted. Based on interviews, students took part in online discussions during online teaching-learning for various reasons. As was done by Student A, he actively participated in discussions via WhatsApp, triggered by the others. The extract of the interview of Student A was as followed.

Extract CI4. Student A

“At the beginning of the learning contract, the lectures told us about the new result system, the resulting system that took 50% from our assignment. They told us to be active in class, and it will affect our assignment result, so I followed the discussion via WhatsApp actively. Besides, actively discussing in class is a form of appreciation for the lecturer who teaches and explains the material. “

Furthermore, in addition to having the same will to get the additional score, Student B has other reasons to participate in discussions via WhatsApp actively. The extract of Student B’s statement could be seen as followed.

Extract CI4. Student B

“I choose to join the discussion actively for some reason, such as I want to share my perspective on a particular material which I have learned. Therefore, it can help my friends to understand the material in case some of them may do not know about it. Second, because the discussion is done one, for that the only thing that I can do to get a remark on that course is to get involved in the discussion actively.”

The interview results above are in line with the statement (Aicha Blehch, 2014) that the learning situation becomes more personal and effective through online social interaction. This situation allows students to work in a collaborative and portable process. Learning is always present, durable and different from formal education.

I understand the material easily (ST5)

It is undeniable that more than 50% of students disagreed with the statement on ST5. More precisely, 52.5% of students disagreed that they could understand the material conveyed easily through WhatsApp media. 42% of students chose the 'disagree' option, and another 10% chose the "disagree" option. Even though the 'agree' option was chosen the most, 45%, the total could not compensate for the total students who disagreed with the statement because only 2.5% chose the "strongly agree" option. It was supporting the data, evidence taken from the interview. While connecting with the interview results, several things support students in understanding the material easily during online teaching-learning. Student A and Student B agreed; aside from the WhatsApp features, that does help it, other factors also affect it. The extract of the interview of Student A and Student B was as followed.

Extract CI5. Student A

"Apart from the supporting features, there are other factors that make me understand the material easily, namely mood. To improve my mood, before the online class begin, I always do a push up maybe 30-40 times. It can refresh my mind then makes me more focus while studying the material. So that the material being taught can be understood easily."

Extract CI5. Student B

"I can understand all the material easily on online learning since I can comprehend my knowledge with others and share my ideas without worrying about losing my notes. In this case, this platform can keep up the track of what quite material that has been learned. However, in general, I can understand the material during online learning since I have much time to study the material first, and the atmosphere of the classroom interaction seems not too nerve-racking."

During teaching and learning online, I utilize all of WhatsApp features (ST6)

Responding to ST6, "agree" was the most dominant choice chosen by 52.5% of students. The second percentage was the "strongly agree" option, where 27.5% of students chose it. Different from the "disagree" option, which 15% of students chose, and the "strongly disagree" option, which was only chosen by 5%. Therefore, the total number of students who chose to agree with ST6 was more than those who disagreed. It is in line with the results of the interviews that have been conducted. During online teaching-learning, students and lecturers take advantage of the features on WhatsApp. It is conveyed because these features can support their learning. The students' viewpoints were as followed.

Extract CI6. Student A

"During online learning, we always use the features in WhatsApp such as voice notes, media files like pdf ppt documents etc., also the WhatsApp group. It helped me in this online learning using WhatsApp."

Extract CI6. Student B

"I utilize WA features such as 'make it as favorite', all kinds of buttons to share a link, document files, pics, video, so on and so forth easily. I realize that those features especially "make it as a favorite," truly help me because sometimes I forgot my homework or what I have to do."

I always check online teaching and learning notifications regularly (ST7)

In responding to ST7, 52.5% of students chose the "strongly agree" option, followed by the number of students who chose the "match" option, 35%. Inversely comparable to the number of students who disagreed with ST7, 10% of students chose "disagree," and the remaining 2.5% chose the "strongly disagree" option. This result shows that students' dominant choosing to agree with ST7 with an interval of 75%. This result was proven through the interviews conducted. Based on the interview, the students agreed that they always check online teaching and learning notifications regularly, so they do not miss any information. Student A stated that he/she should always check online teaching and learning notifications regularly for good grades. The extract of the interview of Student A was as followed.

Extract CI7. Student A

"Of course I have to check the notification regularly because I do not want to absent in my online class because it can impact for my result later. Besides that, I am trying to be an ambitious person who wants to be done my assignment quickly so I can have my free time or doing another task, besides I want to get a better result. That is why I always check online teaching and learning notification regularly."

Almost the same as what Student A said, Student B always checked online teaching and learning notifications regularly because he had missed online classes. The extract of Student B's statement could be seen as followed.

Extract CI7. Student B

"I always check the notification regularly, especially in weekdays, since I am afraid that I will miss my project or lecturer's instructions during online learning. I had ever experienced a moment when I missed my online class so that I try to check my notification regularly."

While doing online teaching and learning, I tend to be distracted by other notification that it is not related to the material (ST8)

The reaction on ST8 shows that the “agree” option is still the most preferred, as many as 55% of students. Besides, another 30% of students chose the “strongly agree” option. Thus, the total number of students who agreed on the ST8 statement was as much as 85%. On the other hand, in total, only 15% of students disagreed with the ST8 statement, with details, 12.5% of students chose the “disagree” option, and 2.5% of the other students chose “strongly disagree.” To verify the above results, the following interviews were conducted.

Extract CI8. Student A

“I often tend to be distracted by other notifications that are momentarily unrelated to the material. However, it is not a big problem for me as long as I can focus on the discussion, and I can handle it.”

Extract CI8. Student B

“I tend to be distracted by others notification that is not related to the material because I tend to read those messages and leave the discussion room. So once, I read other messages, no matter what I have to reply as soon as possible. , I am afraid if I did not reply to the messages, I would hurt others’ ego since they could notice that I am online at the moment. after I reply to others message, I try to go back to the main room discussion, and I have to adjust to the discussion for a moment, however.”

The students’ responses showed that even though they were distracted by notifications that were not related to the material during online teaching and learning, they could compensate and stay focused on the discussions via WhatsApp media.

My Internet connection supports online teaching and learning through WhatsApp (ST9)

Unlike the eight previous statements, in response to this ST9, 90% of students agreed with the statements on ST9. With details, 60% of students chose the option “strongly agree,” which made a choice dominating. Additionally, 30% of students agreed to choose the “agree” option. On the other hand, only 10% of the total students disagreed with the statement. “Disagree” and “strongly disagree” choice was agreed to be chosen by 5% of the students, respectively. To supporting data, the evidence is taken from interviews. Based on the interview, students have an internet connection that supports online teaching-learning. According to them, WhatsApp does not need a strong signal. So that online learning via WhatsApp continues even though the signal is not very good. The extract of the interview of Student A was as followed.

Extract CI9. Student A

“My internet connection supports online teaching-learning via WhatsApp. Because I think, when I use WhatsApp, I do not need a very good signal. So it is not a big deal for me if I do not have a good signal because I am still can take part in online teaching-learning.”

Unlike Student A, Student B always has a stable internet connection. Even though he had lost his signal, he was still able to follow online teaching-learning via WhatsApp. The extract of Student B’s statement could be seen as followed.

Extract CI9. Student B

“Internet connection is everything on online learning. Mostly I have a stable connection. However, I had ever faced a moment when I lost my signal during online classroom using WA. I got panic attacked then, and when I got back my stable signal, I had to adjust to the discussion for a while.”

Discussion plays an important part in a scientific article. This part answers the problems, interprets the research results and the findings into the already known knowledge, confirms and contrasts with the research of other researchers, constructs the new theory, and modifies the previous theory. Discussion may also contain the implications of both theoretical and implementation results. Results and discussion should answer what, why and what else questions. The research findings must be stated explicitly. After stating the research findings, the research findings and the relevant theory or hypothesis must be discussed comprehensively. The discussion section also must explain the comparison of the research findings with the relevant results. Therefore, a notable citation must be found in the discussion section. In the last part, the implication of the research finding to sciences should be stated clearly.

CONCLUSION

The spread of the Covid 19 virus which has become a global phenomenon has greatly affected the education system. many countries have decided to do online learning at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels, including in Indonesia. Besides, in the industrial era 4.0, social media has become a part of social life today. So, educators take advantage of the use of social media for online EFL learning, one of which is the WhatsApp application.

Based on the discussion above, it could be decided that two main points relate to student perceptions and the challenges of implementing online learning through WhatsApp for EFL students.

First, the students' perception of the strengths of Instagram-enhanced writing class was confirmed. Most students believed that WhatsApp social media helped them in online teaching and learning. They feel comfortable and actively participate in the discussion of the materials during online teaching-learning and can understand the material easily and effectively. This condition, of course, can be achieved with social interaction assistance that is fostered by students and the teacher's role to administer and control the classroom activity.

Second, another finding mention that most students take advantage of all the features on WhatsApp to support online teaching-learning. Besides, because learning is carried out online, it requires students always to check notifications so that they do not miss any information. Additionally, most students tend to be distracted by other notification that it is not related to the material. Even so, they remained focused and able to keep up with online teaching-learning. Another challenge students face internet connection. In this study, the problem can be overcome because WhatsApp does not require a stable network to keep it running.

Finally, the use of WhatsApp as an online media for solving learning during this Pandemic in the EFL class is strongly recommended even though there are still challenges that must be addressed properly. In order to maximize its strength, student interaction, student knowledge of technology, the role of teachers, and the accessible internet provided by the institution must be enhanced. The teaching of English in higher education is characterized by its close association with specific academic and professional settings.

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AN ANALYSIS OF VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION IN AUTISTIC CHILDREN

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Abstract

Autism is a developmental disorder characterized by difficulties with social interaction and communication, and by restricted and repetitive behavior. Autistic is a person affected by autism. The level of autism of each individual is varied. It can range from mild to severe. Due to this condition, the person shares some symptoms of difficulties with social interaction. To make them involved in social interaction, it needs special effort to make them be able to speak or communicate first. For this reason, there should be the use of a combination of verbal and non-verbal communication. Thus, this study attempted to investigate the process of using both kinds of communication in teaching children with autism since children are easier to be treated than adults. To make the distinct result, the participants were from a different level of autism. Then, based on the observation and interview, the findings showed that the verbal and non-verbal communication used by the therapist in teaching autistic children can enhance their social interaction and communication skills.

Keywords: autistic, verbal communication, non-verbal communication, children, speaking.

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INTRODUCTION

Every child is unique and has different skills and difficulties. It also happens for children who have some sort of disorder, such as autism. According to Ousley and Cermak (2013), "Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a behaviorally defined neurodevelopmental disorder associated with the presence of social-communication deficits and restricted and repetitive behaviors". Autistic children cannot be generalized into one group because they all differ from each other in terms of different symptoms that may lead to different types and levels of autism. Moreover, Rapin and Tuchman (2008) said that autism cannot be defined as a disease; rather it is a symptom of a typical development of the immature brain. Autism is a behaviorally distinct syndrome with many known and unknown causes. It has a wide range of severity and it has no clear borders, so symptoms of the disorder cannot be fenced. It can be like disorders of sleep and feeding, gastrointestinal tract symptoms, obesity, seizures, attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, anxiety, and wandering (Hyman, Levy, and Myers, 2020).

Autistic children encounter difficulties regarding communication that children without a disorder do not have to encounter. They cover a wide range of cognitive handicaps, including the progress of their speech development and the understanding of language (Rutter, 1974 in Bartak, Rutter & Cox, 1975). Besides, Rapin & Tuchman (2008) argued that with the slow development of speech, autistic children also have problems with social interaction which results in them secluding themselves and not communicating with others in a way that seems regular to other people. As stated by Sari (2018), interaction has emerged from verbal communication and non-verbal communication that promote successful interactive systems in the teaching and learning process. Thus, diagnosing as early as possible prevents them from another problems in their future (Hosozawa, Sacker, and Cable, 2021), and teaching and learning verbal skills have to be done in an adapted way so that children with autism still acquire a large vocabulary and certain language skills.

An alternative procedure that may evolve speech development in autistic children is simultaneous communication, like how parents and children interact and speak during playing (Lewis, 2003). It can be the use of spoken language and signing of keywords. According to Paul (2008), the intervention in pre-linguistics stage

and adult direction method improve language and communication development. Many autistic children in such treatment programs have demonstrated increases in spoken language development (Yoder & Layton, 1988). The result of the study showed that the combination of sign and speech helped autistic children to increase their oral language skills after participating in the training. This could indicate that combining non-verbal communication with spoken words increases the level of language ability of autistic children.

Many studies have discovered a common denominator named non-verbal communication, a sign language that can be facial expression, or body movement (Buck and VanLear, 2002). Non-verbal communication seems to be a tool that can help improve the language skills of children with autism. Bartak, Rutter, and Cox (1975) found that children with autism score higher on tests that include non-verbal elements, than children without a disorder. When non-verbal elements, such as gaze, pointing, and mimicking were involved in the experiment, autistic children would recognize the displayed item faster. It is also Wing & Gould (cited by Ricks & Wing, 1975) supported by showed that implementing non-verbal cues while talking to children with autism is helpful in terms of their understanding of what is verbally said. Longitudinal studies by Drew et al. (2002) also showed that incorporating non-verbal communication into language learning helps autistic children acquire more new words over some time. Niederer (2013) also stated that there is a huge impact in implementing non-verbal communication in improving language acquisition of autistic children.

Lord et al. (2000) showed that children with mental retardation, with or without autism, appear more socially competent, less anxious, and more flexible when the language demands are low concerning their level of language ability. This shows that language is a problem for autistic children, but that language and autism diagnoses are not always connected. Although verbal communication is problematic for most of them, non-verbal communication could help these children to connect to the outer world. Autistic children have been found to show a limited range of non-verbal behaviors. In particular, less frequent use of eye contact, pointing, and showing objects has been reported (Stone, et al., 1997). In their study, autistic children have also been reported to be more likely to use pointing to request than for indicating interest. Early non-verbal communication and functional play skills have been linked to gains in language skills. One to three-year-old children with autism who responded more frequently to calls for joint attention by others made larger gains in language skills throughout both 1 year (Mundy et al., 1990 in Siller & Sigman, 2002) and 9 years (Sigman & Ruskin, 1999 in Siller & Sigman, 2002) than children with autism who initially responded less to others' calls for joint attention, this supports the idea that non-verbal communication will help autistic children learn a language or new words.

As mentioned above, this study tries to investigate the use of verbal and non-verbal communication in developing communication skills of autistic children. Based on the studies above, it is proven that verbal and non-verbal communication are interrelated to each other in developing autistic children's communication skills. However, there was no deeper explanation about the process of verbal and non-verbal communication applied in developing communication skills of children with different levels of autism. Thus, this study aims to discover the process of verbal and non-verbal communication applied in developing the two levels of autistic children's communication skills.

RESEARCH METHOD

The objective of this study was to investigate the process of developing communication skills in autistic children by combining verbal and non-verbal communication. Thus, the descriptive qualitative research method is used to obtain the data.

This study involved 2 autistic children who were 10 and 12 years old. These children were in the therapy center to get special treatment dealing with their autism. Both children had a different level of autism and also had a different length of time in joining the therapy center. these two children were selected because among all the autistic children in that therapy center, only the two selected children had better interaction and communication. Another reason was that they had a quite different level of autism that might give a distinct comparison and lead to the varied findings.

The writer used two kinds of techniques to obtain the data; observation, and interview. The observation was done to investigate directly the process of using verbal and non-verbal communication in developing communication skills. After doing the observation, interview was conducted to get deeper information.

To analyze the data from observation, the data were categorized into two types, verbal and non-verbal communication. Moreover, the data from the interview was to add the information for the whole collected data. Then, it is used to correlate how verbal and non-verbal communication can enhance the communication skills in autistic children.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the result of data analysis from observation, it was found that both participants had a different level of autism. The participant who was 10 years old (A) had a better way of communication than the other one

who was 12 years old (B). Participant A got quite clear pronunciation in speaking, yet he got a little bit difficult in pronouncing R. On the other hand, participant B could be able to pronounce only some vocals yet he lost many consonants. This condition made it him difficult in expressing what he wanted to say and also might lead to misunderstanding in communication. This way, the role of the therapist is crucially needed. The therapist has to know what the best way in making both of them improve their communication skill based on their different ability.

The process of verbal communication

The data were obtained from the therapist's instruction in the process of teaching autistic children. The process of teaching autistic children that involved verbal communication could be shown in the step of asking the children to imitate what the therapist said. In this session, the therapist showed several flashcards and said a different word that represents the picture in the flashcard. The pictures are about vegetables, colors, activities, bedroom set, and bathroom accessories. The therapist had different times in giving therapy to both participants. So, the therapist could focus on only one participant while another participant was given another activity. In engaging verbal communication, the therapist stimulated the participants to repeat what she said after showing the flashcards. The participants were expected to speak clearly in pronouncing every word.

Participant A	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Be able to imitate the words almost clearly yet it will get unclear when it comes to the word with R- Example: Clear words → kuning, hijau, membaca Unclear words → merah, tempat tidur- Be able to memorize the words, so he can recognize the flashcards given to him previously.- Be able to answer the short questions given by the therapist: name, father's and mother's name, and the therapist's name well
Participant B	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Be able to imitate the words with unclear pronunciation.- Example: kuning (ui), hijau (ijau), merah (meah), ibu (iu)- Be able to answer the short questions given by the therapist: name, father's and mother's name, and the therapist's name yet with the unclear pronunciation.

The process of non-verbal communication

In the process of imitating, the therapist said that the participants subconsciously did the non-verbal communication. The therapist also said that after imitating the words, the participants were asked to guess the flashcards given previously. Then, the therapist checked the participants' memorization by asking them to point out the provided flashcards. An example of this session was when the therapist provided several flashcards on the table. She said "*kasih bu Ida wortel*". The participants would select and directly took the picture of carrot and gave the card to the therapist. When they took the wrong card, the therapist did not want to receive the card which means it would allow them to select the right card. Besides, the participants liked to point out their bottles when they felt thirsty. The therapist's reaction was just giving her a gesture to say "no" to show them that they should focus on learning first.

CONCLUSION

Based on the theories and the previous research that showed the effective correlation between verbal and non-verbal communication in improving the communication skill in autistic children, this study has proven this kind of motion. Therefore, as the researchers can conclude to make autistic children get better development in communication skills, it should be taught the combination between verbal and non-verbal communication constantly or make it routine to achieve the best improvement.

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EXPLORING THE LEVEL AND PRIMARY CAUSES OF PUBLIC SPEAKING ANXIETY AMONG ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS

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Abstract

English public speaking anxiety is a crucial issue experienced by students and it needs to be coped with acknowledging the importance of public speaking proficiency concerning today's demands. As EFL students, many studies have found that they encountered a considerable level of public speaking anxiety in which significantly affects their speaking quality. Therefore, measuring students' public speaking anxiety is essential since it can help both the students and teachers to know the level and primary causes of public speaking anxiety so that effective strategies can be designed to overcome this particular issue. Hence, the researchers attempt to investigate the level and primary causes of EFL students' public speaking anxiety. This present study participated by 34 third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar. In collecting the data regarding the public speaking anxiety level, the researchers used the Public Speaking Class Anxiety Scale (PSCAS) proposed by Yaikhong & Usaha (2012). Furthermore, the results from the questionnaire are delineated to explore the causes of public speaking anxiety. The study found that 58.8% of students experienced a medium level of public speaking anxiety. In addition, most of the students agreed that fear of negative evaluation becomes the major anxiety-provoking factor following by communication apprehension and test anxiety—lastly, only almost half of the students' experience comfort in speaking English.

Keywords: anxiety level, anxiety-provoking factors, EFL students, public speaking class anxiety

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INTRODUCTION

Public speaking refers to a type of communication addressed in front of many people and usually in the form of a lecture or speech. It proposes to deliver information, influence, or entertain the audiences. Astuti (2011) revealed that public speaking is an approach to transferring a message or idea to people to build their understanding of the information or change the audiences' point of view or opinion. Moreover, Beebe and Susan J. Beebe (2013) pointed out that public speaking is the process of speaking to a group of people with a unique point of view. Being able to master the art of public speaking and public appearances will differentiate and bring the speaker above the average individuals whose ideas, quality, and features are rarely concerned and rearranged by society as potential, which deserves their attention (Novaković & Teodosijević, 2017). It implies that public speaking can help the speakers improve their quality and facilitate them to transform their ideas, which may benefit others. Its importance is in line with Baccarani & Bonfanti (2015) study, which claimed that public speaking is a persistent and vital activity in today's workplace. Public speaking abilities can support an individual's career, and successful speakers are often recognized as leaders (Rowh, 2009). Therefore, it can be viewed that public speaking is an essential ability to master, considering today's demands in many kinds of fields.

As public speaking requires the speaker to stay in front of people whose focus of their eyes and attention are on the speaker; thus, it can drive the speaker to experience pressure either before or during giving the speech. Consequently, this pressure leads the speaker to feel like they shouldn't make any mistakes, which makes them tense and experience anxiety. Sadiq (2017) affirmed that anxiety was considered a comprehensively measured aspect in foreign language context for the past few decades. Suleimenova (2012) discovered that speaking anxiety occurs among the Kazakh second-year university students, and students who have higher anxiety encountered obstacles to make a better performance. Furthermore, public speaking anxiety can be one of the critical constraints people have to deal with when they feel anxious about speaking. They prefer to evade

situations where they have to perform. Still, when they face such situations, they endure extreme stress and anxiety (Hidayoza et al., 2019). When the speaker encounters speaking anxiety in their public speech, it will affect their speaking quality, leading them to feel embarrassed if they make mistakes and further drive them to eliminate the chance to do a public speaking activity. As stated by Davidson (2002), public speaking customarily constructs the top 10 lists of things people would tend to avoid. Generally, people negatively evaluate and appraise those who display their fears concerning public speaking and unable to create a strong image through convinced gestures (Katz, 2000).

Considering the importance of public speaking for students both for educational purposes and future careers, therefore, they are expected to have excellent public speaking ability. Bodie (2010), public speaking is a crucial part of leadership communication, an essential workplace skill, and the ability to make good presentations is frequently becomes a substantial part of work responsibilities. Therefore, many universities include the Public Speaking course as one of the compulsory subjects that students must enroll in, such as in the English Education Study Program at Universitas Tidar. This course facilitates the third-semester students to learn the nature of public speaking and the opportunities to speak in front of the class. However, as EFL students, they might experience a more challenging situation when required to deliver their speech in front of others. This often leads to what is called anxiety; in this case, it is specifically called Public Speaking Anxiety (PSA). Students who experienced a low level of anxiety can perform better and actively participate in the classroom (Bashosh et al., 2013). Nevertheless, Tiyas et al. (2020) stated that students try to avoid public speaking as much as possible since they feel that factors forced them to avoid public speaking. Spijck (2011) found out almost eighty out of every hundred people encountered public speaking anxiety at a small or large scale. Public speaking is such a commonplace encounter by several people, including students in a specific case, and becomes one of the barriers that students experience in their academic process (Pratama, 2018). Therefore, they cannot actively share their ideas and opinions loudly due to factors such as fear of making mistakes, negative evaluation, and minimum preparation.

EFL students' public speaking anxiety can be derived from several factors. Horwitz, et al (1986) stated that three different situations arouse foreign language anxiety, those are communication apprehension (CA), fear of negative evaluation (FNE), and test anxiety (TA). First, communication apprehension is a type of anxiety that evokes speakers' fear of making a communication transaction (DeVito, 1986; Horwitz et al., 1986). In communication apprehension, the students feel uncomfortable, shy, and fear when they have to engage in real communication with other people (Horwitz et al., 1986). Several cases of communication apprehension influence the students' difficulty not only in speaking with others but also in listening to or learning the spoken messages (Horwitz et al., 1986). The level of communication apprehension (CA) is based on EFL students' levels of proficiency. Thus, it can be said that CA may be the major source of anxiety for EFL low proficiency students. In contrast, it is not the major source of anxiety for high proficiency students (Aydin, 2016). Furthermore, Horwitz et al., (1986), fear of negative evaluation deals with students' apprehension of others' evaluation. It emerges them to avoid evaluation situations and build the expectation that others would evaluate them negatively. This type of anxiety is not limited to test-taking situations; instead, it may occur in any social, evaluative situation, including an interview for a job or speaking in a second or foreign language class. Lastly, test anxiety refers to the students' fear of failure in a test. It arises since the students have thoughts that the only acceptable performance in a test is when they can do it perfectly. Test anxiety holds an important role in affecting students learning outcomes, several feelings such as fear of failure or unpleasant experience are forms of test anxiety that happens in students' minds (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Measuring the level of students' public speaking is highly recommended as it can help the students to know how the degree of their anxiety and what are the major causes influenced their anxiety. It can also provide the teacher with information to design effective strategies to overcome students' public speaking anxiety. As the study executed by Sikandar (2017) found that the public anxiety faced by students is mostly caused by the fear of speaking in front of others, it is seen by 75% of the students who agree with the statement whether or not they experience fear of public speaking. Furthermore, Hidayoza et al. (2019), in their study entitled "Level of Public Speaking Anxiety and Coping Strategy used by English Debaters at Unit Kegiatan Bahasa Asing in dealing with English Debate," discovered that English department debaters, Unit Kegiatan Bahasa Asing, Universitas Negeri Padang, experienced a medium level of public speaking anxiety. It is counted by 50% of the respondents who claimed that they experienced public speaking anxiety, particularly when joining debates. Sulastiani (2017), in her study, found that 82.5 % of students experienced a medium level of fear and anxiety when they speak English in public speaking class. This study revealed that students' anxiety had negative impacts on their performance in public speaking class, such as forgetting their speech and disarrange their speech preparation, feeling confused, and often break off their speech, also make them uncomfortable to speak English in public speaking class. Pratiwi et al. (2017), in their study, showed that 52% of the third-semester students of the English Education Study Program at Sriwijaya University (52%) experienced a medium level of speaking

anxiety. It demonstrates that most of the students face a considerable level of public speaking anxiety in which it needs to be kept being evaluated whether strategies implemented are prevalent to cope with their anxiety in public speaking.

Determining the importance of measuring students' level of public speaking anxiety motivated the researchers to investigate English public speaking anxiety faced by the third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar. This present study also aims to explore the major causes that influenced their public speaking class anxiety. By knowing the level and major caused of students' public speaking class anxiety, it is expected that the next research conducted will investigate the strategies that can effectively help students to reduce their problem with public speaking anxiety. Hence, this current study intended to answer the following research questions.

1. What are the levels of public speaking class anxiety (PSCA) experienced by the third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar?
2. What are the primary factors that influence the public speaking class anxiety (PSCA) among third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar?

RESEARCH METHOD

This present study aims to expose the level and the major factors influencing students' public speaking class anxiety. Therefore, a quantitative descriptive method was utilized in this study since the data were presented in numerical and descriptive form. Aliaga and Gunderson (2002) elaborated quantitative research as an inquiry into a social problem that reveals phenomena by collecting numerical data identified using mathematically based methods, for instance, particular statistics. Sugiyono (2005), a descriptive method is an approach that is designed to elaborate or analyze research findings but is not used to make broader.

The participants of this study consist of 34 third-semester students of the Education Study Program Faculty of Teacher Training and Education at Universitas Tidar. Furthermore, the final version of the Public Speaking Class Anxiety Scale (PSCAS) proposed by Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) was used to collect the data regarding students' level of public speaking anxiety. Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) stated that the PSCAS can provide a respectable preliminary internal consistency at .84 after being piloted with 76 participants. It showed a construct composition around the speaking component in a public speaking class setting. This type of questionnaire consists of 17 items with positive and negative statements to determine students' public speaking class anxiety levels. Every item was remarked on a five-point Likert Scale. For the positive statement items, the scale is ranging from 5 "Strongly Agree" to 1 "Strongly Disagree." There are four positive statement items in PSCAS Questionnaire (item 4, 8, 10, and 12), and to adjust the scores for those items, Liu and Jackson in Yahikong and Usaha (2012) offered to adjust the values assigned to different alternatives from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" so that the response "Strongly Disagree" received a score of 5 instead of 1 and vice versa. Additionally, to identify the causes of students' public anxiety, the results reported from the questionnaire will be static explained since it contains four major causes of anxiety, namely communication apprehension (CA), test anxiety (TA), fear of negative evaluation (FNE), and comfort in speaking English (CNE).

Table 1. The Scoring Scale of PSCAS

Positive Attitude Statement Score		Negative Attitude Statement Score
1	Strongly Agree	5
2	Agree	4
3	Undecided	3
4	Disagree	2
5	Strongly Disagree	1

The scoring interval was cited in PSCAS (Public Speaking Class Anxiety Scale) by Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) to examine the level of anxiety.

Table 2. The Scoring Interval

Interval score	Category
>68	High anxiety
50-68	Medium anxiety
<50	Low Anxiety

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The Level of Students' Public Speaking Class Anxiety

As mentioned before, the researchers adopted the final version of the PSCAS questionnaire proposed by Yaikhong and Usaha (2012). The results of the PSCAS questionnaire reflected from 34 samples of third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar shows that the highest score of level anxiety was derived from the medium score. It is displayed in Table 3 that 58.8% of students have a medium level of public speaking class anxiety. Following this, 14.7% of students experienced a low level of public speaking class anxiety, and only 2% of students encountered a high level of anxiety.

Table 3. Students' Level of Public Speaking Class Anxiety

Level of speaking anxiety	Scores	Percentage	Frequencies
High level of speaking anxiety (total score >68)	368	14.7	5
Moderate level of speaking anxiety (total score 50-68)	1198	58.8	20
Low level of speaking anxiety (total score <50)	409	2	9
Total	1.975	100	34

Peplau (1989) found that at a medium level of speaking anxiety, students likely to focus exclusively on the stressful situation directly in front of them and ignore other tasks. Still, on his finding, Peplau (1989) stated that students who have medium anxiety level might experience a faster heartbeat, dry mouth, sweating, and stomach pain or nausea in which it would make them only focus on their performance. Melouah (2013) identified the sources and levels of 54 Algerian EFL university students' oral performance anxiety, and the study indicated that students experience a moderate level of speaking anxiety due to low language proficiency. Horwitz and Young (1991), as it is cited in Rachmawati (2020), affirmed that students who experienced moderate anxiety levels are caused by less confidence in a certain condition. Therefore, to explore the major causes of the public speaking anxiety of the third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar, the researchers will explain the data obtained from the PSCAS questionnaire.

The Factors of Students' Public Speaking Class Anxiety

To answer the second research question, the researchers investigated the factors arousing public speaking class anxiety among English Department students at Universitas Tidar by calculating and combining the percentage of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' to get the whole score of agreement of the items in PSCAS questionnaire. To accelerate analyses and discussion, the researchers sorted the data provided in Table 4, 5, 6, 7 in a descending order where the frequencies are listed from highest to the lowest score. Furthermore, public speaking class anxiety comprises communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and comfort in using English, which forms around the speaking component in a public speaking class (Yaikhong & Usaha, 2012).

Communication Apprehension Factor

Table 4. Frequencies and percentages of Communication Apprehension (CA) items

No.	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA	A+SA
2.	I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation in advance.						
	F	0	5	4	11	17	28
	%	0	14.7	11.8	32.3	50	82.5
3.	In a speaking class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.						
	F	0	2	8	16	8	24
	%	0	5.9	23.5	47	23.5	70.5
5.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English.						
	F	1	6	8	14	6	20
	%	2.9	17.6	23.5	41.1	17.6	58.7
15.	I dislike using my voice and body expressively while I am speaking English.						
	F	2	16	8	5	4	9
	%	5.9	47	23.5	14.7	11.8	26.8
Average of SA+A		20.25					

From the table above, the data showed that the third-semester students experienced communication apprehension with an average frequency of 20.25 of the responses agreeing to items 2, 3, 5, and 15 in which those are classified into communication apprehension factor. The highest percentage among the items is showed with the percentage of 82.5: item 2, which stated that most students agree that they start to panic when they have to speak English without preparation in advance. It demonstrates that in terms of speaking English without preparation, most students experienced anxiety. It is in line with Mak's (2011) claims that speaking in front of the class without preparation was an anxiety-provoking factor. Moreover, the researchers argued that the students' inability to communicate in English without preparation in advance is related to the lack of communicative practice; thus, they do not have alternative sources of speaking materials. Following this, 70.5% of the students agree that in a speaking class, they can get so nervous when they forget things they know: item 2. It may be derived from forgetting terms or vocabulary intent to express the ideas. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) draw parallels between anxious students and the vocabulary learning process. They emphasized that anxious students frequently forget the vocabulary of the target language in-class activities and in oral communications.

Furthermore, 58.7% of students agree that they get nervous and confused when they are speaking English, as in item 5. Lastly, 26.8% of students dislike using their voice and body expressively while speaking English, item 15. It demonstrates that while speaking English, students feel less confident about their voice and how they express their body language. Thus, as communication apprehension related to the fear of communication with others (Horwitz et al., 1986), it is not surprising that learners consider speaking in front of other people one of the most common sources of anxiety, especially if proficiency in the foreign language is perceived as limited (Young, 1999).

Fear of Negative Evaluation Factor

Table 5. Frequencies and percentages of Fear of Negative Evaluation (FNE) items

No.	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA	A+SA
9.	I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on.						
	F	0	0	5	13	17	30
	%	0	0	14.7	38.2	50	88.2
14	I feel anxious while I am waiting to speak English.						
	F	1	2	9	15	8	23
	%	2.9	5.9	26.5	44.1	23.5	67.6
6.	I am afraid that other students will laugh at me while I am speaking English.						
	F	5	6	4	12	8	20
	%	14.7	17.6	11.8	35.2	23.5	58.7
11.	It embarrasses me to volunteer to go out first to speak English						
	F	1	7	8	13	6	19
	%	2.9	20.5	23.5	38.2	17.6	55.8
13.	Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while I am speaking English.						
	F	1	3	12	14	5	19
	%	2.9	8.8	35.2	41.1	14.7	55.8
16.	I have trouble coordinating my movements while I am speaking English.						
	F	1	9	11	8	6	14
	%	2.9	26.5	32.3	23.5	17.6	41.1
Average of SA+A					20.83		

Table 5 displays that the average frequency of fear of negative evaluation (FNE) experienced among English department students is 20.83. By investigating the items included in this particular factor, the data shows that 88.2% of students experienced heart pounding when they are going to be called on, item 9. It is the highest percentage of an anxiety-provoking factor in FNE. Following this, 67.6 of students agree that they feel anxious while waiting to speak English, item 14. From these results, it can be withdrawn that the students suffer from rapid heartbeat when they are waiting for their turn to speak English in front of the class. Next, 58.7% of students respond that they are afraid if others will laugh at them while speaking English. It might be due to the fear of making mistakes while performing their speaking, such as mispronouncing and forgetting things so that they made too many spaces or unnecessary fillers. Additionally, students 55.8% of students feel that it embarrasses them to volunteer to go out first to speak English, item 11. It is following Gregersen and Horwitz (2002), who revealed that FNE affects the behavior of students during communication-oriented situations since they tend to limit their participation in any type of tasks that required them to peer or teacher evaluation. Furthermore, 55.8% of students experienced certain parts of their body feel very tense and rigid while speaking English. Gibson (1992), argued that public speaking anxiety is manifested in various ways such as blood pressure, trembled hands, weakness, anxiousness, forgetting the prepared material, and avoiding eye contact with the audience. Lastly, Table 5 shows that 41.1% of students have trouble in coordinating their movements while speaking English. It is because they fully concentrate on their term of speaking; hence, they might encounter

difficulty to move some part of their body expressively, for instance, head or hand movement (Kurniawanti, 2017).

Test Anxiety Factor

Table 6. Frequencies and percentages of Test Anxiety (TA) items

No.	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA	A+SA
7.	I get nervous when the English teacher asks me to speak English which I have prepared in advance.						
	F	3	5	8	11	8	19
	%	8.8	14.7	23.5	32.3	23.5	55.8
17.	Even if I am very well prepared, I feel anxious about speaking English.						
	F	1	4	12	11	7	18
	%	2.9	11.8	35.2	32.3	20.5	52.8
1.	I never feel quite sure of myself while I am speaking English.						
	F	0	6	13	13	3	16
	%	0	17.6	38.2	38.2	8.8	47
Average of SA+A					17.7		

In test anxiety factor, Table 6 demonstrates that 17.7% of students experienced test anxiety in public speaking class, and they agree that the most causes of anxiety are derived when the teacher asks them to speak English although they have prepared in advance, see item 7. Closely related to this, the response on item 17 shows that 52.8% of students feel anxious about speaking English, even if they are well prepared. Moreover, the table shows that 47% of students never feel quite sure of themselves while speaking English. Considering these results, it can be said that those factors are linked to their self-confidence. Item 7 and 17 show that even though they have prepared in advance or well prepared before speaking English, they still experience a considerable level of anxiety. Toubot et al., (2018) uttered that self-confidence is one of the personal factors that exceedingly associate with anxiety. Students who lack self-confidence will break down on practicing their target language since they would be afraid of making mistakes and feeling humiliated (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). Students who feel less confident will affect their performances; they will not be sure of themselves because of afraid of making mistakes and expect to receive unpleasant evaluations from their audience. Therefore, personal perceptions play an essential role in building their self-confidence. It is in line with Park and Lee’s (2005) suggestion that judgments and self-evaluation on personal value and worth are some of the traits of self-confidence. Moreover, Zia and Norrihan (2015) mentioned that teachers’ teaching methods and classroom atmosphere are determined as the primary factors for diminishing students’ speaking anxiety. Therefore, creating a supportive and encouraging environment inside the classroom among the students and their teachers is needed to elevate students’ self-confidence, alleviating their anxiety, and then leads them to better in learning and enables students to improve their speaking performance.

Comfort in Speaking English Factor

Table 7. Frequencies and percentages of Comfort in Speaking English (CNE) items

No.	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA	A+SA
12.	I face the prospect of speaking English with confidence.						
	F	1	2	9	15	8	23
	%	2.9	5.9	26.5	44.1	23.5	67.6
8.	I have no fear of speaking English.						
	F	4	10	11	6	4	10
	%	11.8	29.4	32.3	17.6	11.8	29.4
4.	I feel confident while I am speaking English.						
	F	0	9	16	7	3	10
	%	0	26.5	47	20.5	8.8	29.3
10.	I feel relaxed while I am speaking English.						
	F	0	13	16	5	1	6
	%	0	38.2	47	14.7	2.9	17.6
Average of SA+A					49		

The last factor is related to students’ perspectives toward English public speaking class activity. Table 7 shows that the average frequency percentage of the comfort in speaking English is 49 among students who agree with items in this factor: item 12, 4, 8, and 10. This frequency demonstrates that almost half of the number of students’ experience comfort in speaking English. It can be viewed from the data on item 4 that only 29.4% have no fear of speaking English; 29.3% of students feel confident while speaking English, item 4; and only 17.6% of students feel relaxed while speaking English, item 10. However, the data on item 12 appears that 67.6% of students face the prospect of speaking English with confidence. It represents students who still believe that they

can perform English public speaking confidently. Hence, to increase student's oral achievement in English and decrease the negative feelings, teachers should create a natural classroom atmosphere, as the sources of language anxiety are involved in and be a part of the impacts of unnatural classrooms (Young, 1991). Furthermore, Boonkit (2010) conducted a study on the factors promoting the development of students' speaking skills. The results showed that the implementation of relevant activities for speaking skills can be an effective strategy to alleviate speakers' anxiety. His finding also mentioned that the freedom of topic choice urged the participants to feel comfortable, convinced to speak English, and elevated EFL students speaking confidence.

CONCLUSION

From the overall finding and discussion presented, this current study concluded that the third-semester students of the English Department at Universitas Tidar experienced a medium level of public speaking anxiety. The level of anxiety among students surveyed in this research is 58.8%. Furthermore, the data regarding factors of anxiety experienced by students are further analyzed from the PSCAS questionnaire proposed by Yaikhong and Usaha in which is initially used to examine students' level of anxiety. From the four components of factor analysis, the researchers viewed the three components as the anxiety-provoking factors while the rest as students' perspectives on English speaking. The finding shows that from the three components of anxiety factors, fear of negative evaluation (FNE) ranked in the highest level of the causes of anxiety. It is calculated that the average percentage of FNE is 20.83 of students who agree with the items on this factor. Following this, the communication apprehension (CA) was placed in the second rank with an average percentage of 20.25 students who responded of agreement with the items. Besides, test anxiety (TA) is positioned in the third rank of anxiety-provoking factor, with an average percentage of 17.7 of students agreeing with the items. Lastly, in the component of comfort in speaking English (CNE), only 49% of students agree that they feel comfortable in speaking English. From this study, the researchers expected that there are effective strategies designed to help students alleviate their anxiety so that they can perform better in public speaking skills both in and outside the classroom.

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APPENDIX

The Final Version of PSCAS Questionnaire

No Item	Statements	Opinion				
		(5) Strongly Agree	(4) Agree	(3) Undecided	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
1	I never feel quite sure of myself while I am speaking English.					
2	I start to panic when I have to speak English without a preparation in advance.					
3	In a speaking class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.					
4	I feel confident while I am speaking English.					
5	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English.					
6	I am afraid that other students will laugh at me while I am speaking English.					
7	I get nervous when the English teacher asks me to speak English which I have prepared in advance.					
8	I have no fear of speaking English.					
9	I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on.					
10	I feel relaxed while I am speaking English.					
11	It embarrasses me to volunteer to go out first to speak English					
12	I face the prospect of speaking English with confidence.					
13	Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while I am speaking English.					
14	I feel anxious while I am waiting to speak English.					
15	I dislike using my voice and body expressively while I am speaking English.					
16	I have trouble to coordinate my movements while I am speaking English					
17	Even if I am very well prepared, I feel anxious about speaking English.					

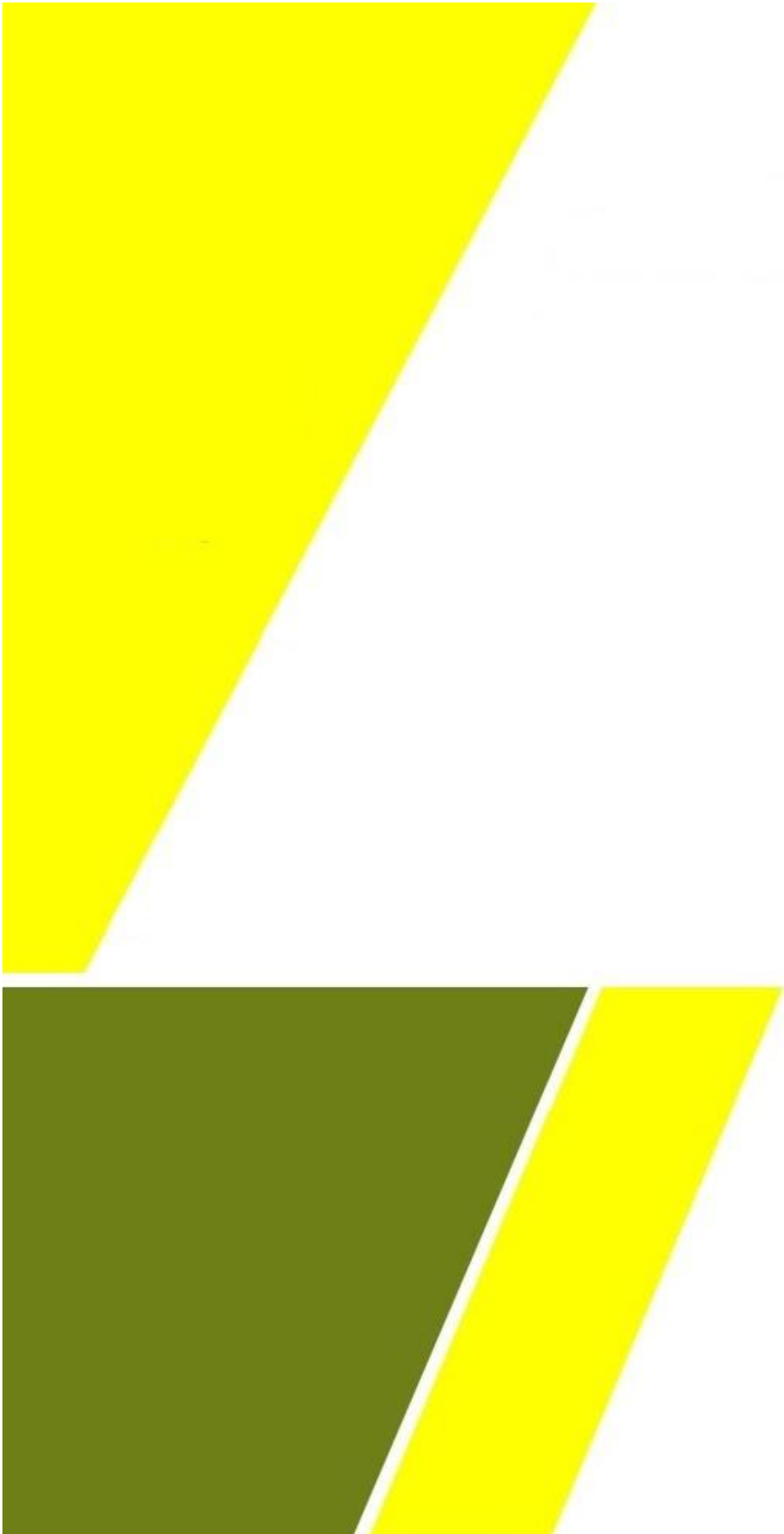
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