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DEVELOPING AN AFFECTIVE ASSESSMENT MODEL OF ENGLISH COMPETENCE FOR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF NON-ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Doctoral Degree in Language Education

by
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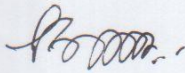
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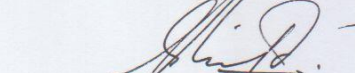
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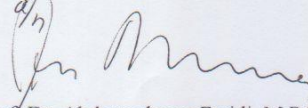NIP. 196612101991031003

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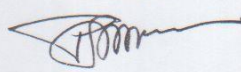Examiner I,

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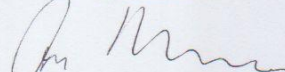NIP. 195208151983031003

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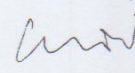
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CERTIFICATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby certify that this dissertation is definitely my own work. To the best of my knowledge and belief, this dissertation contains no material previously published or written by another person or material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institutes of higher learning, except where due to acknowledgment is made in the text of the dissertation.

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MOTTO AND DEDICATION

MOTTO :

The inclusion of affective assessments as part of the package of tools higher education can be better place students in English courses, better advice students on the journeys in learning process, and better help students make decisions based on a more holistic approach to improve and expand students' English learning and success.

DEDICATION:

Dedicated to academicians, English teachers, educators, assessment specialists, and EFL learners.

ABSTRACT

Siti Mariam, 2018.Developing an Affective Assessment Model of English Competence for University Students of Non-English Departments.Dissertation. Language Education Study Program, Post-Graduate. Semarang State University. Promotors: Prof. Mursid Saleh, MA, Ph.D, Prof. Dr. Warsono, M.A, Prof. Dr. Januarius Mujiyanto, M.Hum.

Keywords: affective, assessment, English competence, Rasch model

Affective assessment is one of the components in authentic assessment which is needed by an English teacher to assess students comprehensively.The purposes of this study are: (1) to analyze the ways an affective assessment is needed by English teachers and students of non English departments. (2) to analyze the dimensions or variables of affective assessment. (3) to analyze the indicators of each dimensions (4) to analyze the formulation of an affective assessment model (5) to analyze the validity and reliability of the developed affective assessment model of English competence.This study used a research and development design as a research aimed at developing product of instrument of rating scale model in which it was used to measure students' affective domain in EFL classroom. The research process was carried out through the stages of: (1) pre-development: theoretical review on affective factors in English language teaching and learning; (2) development process consisting of: (a) arrangement of test specification and instrument items; (b) the evaluation by English Language Teaching (ELT) experts and measurement by psychometric expert; (c) analysis of tryout data quantitatively; and (3) presentation, that is to rearrange the instruments after revision so that it was ready to use. The results of the study indicate that: (1) The affective assessment is needed by English teachers and EFL learners based on the need analysis to improve students' English competence and the quality of English language teaching (2) there are five affective dimensions or variables developed in this study. They are attitude, motivation, interest, self-concept, and personal value.(3) The 5 dimensions consist of 24 aspects or sub variables and 35 indicators.(4) The formulation of affective assessment model is constructed by 5 dimensions, 24 aspectsand 35 indicators of affective that become the basis of instrument item containing 120 items, and as inventory rating scale model covering the 4 language skills and the 3 language components(5) the instrument validity is significant as it shows, an infit mean square value for the affective measuring instrument was 0.97.The validity and reliability, in the small–scale field tryout were item reliability, 1.00 and person reliabilitynamely 0.93. Meanwhile item validity 0.90 and person validity 0.87.For that reason, it can be said that the affective measuring instrument with 120 items of statement has a model fit with the data. It means that the model is able to estimate population covariance matrix which is not different from the sample covariance matrix so that the estimation result becomes a basis to generalize.

ABSTRAK

Siti Mariam, 2018. Mengembangkan Model Penilaian Afektif Kompetensi Bahasa Inggris Bagi Mahasiswa Non- Jurusan Bahasa Inggris. Disertasi. Program Studi: Ilmu Pendidikan Bahasa. Pascasarjana Universitas Negeri Semarang. Promotor: Prof. Mursid Saleh, MA, Ph.D, Co-Promotor: Prof. Dr. Warsono, MA, Anggota: Prof. Dr. Januarius Mujiyanto, M.Hum.

Kata Kunci: afektif, kompetensi bahasa Inggris, model Rasch, penilaian

Penilaian afektif adalah salah satu komponen dalam penilaian otentik yang dibutuhkan oleh seorang dosen bahasa Inggris untuk menilai mahasiswa secara komprehensif. Tujuan penelitian ini adalah untuk (1) menganalisa berdasarkan analisa kebutuhan model penilaian afektif yang dibutuhkan oleh dosen dan mahasiswa untuk meningkatkan kompetensi dan memperbaiki kualitas pembelajaran bahasa Inggris (2) menganalisa dimensi atau variabel dalam penilaian afektif (3) menganalisa indikator yang tercakup dalam penilaian afektif (4) menganalisa formula model penilaian afektif (5) menganalisa validitas dan reliabilitas model pengembangan penilaian afektif kompetensi bahasa Inggris bagi mahasiswa non-jurusan bahasa Inggris. Disain penelitian ini menggunakan model penelitian pengembangan yang menghasilkan produk model instrumen skala afektif. Produk ini digunakan untuk mengukur aspek afektif mahasiswa di kelas bahasa Inggris. Proses penelitian dilaksanakan melalui tahapan (1) pra pengembangan yaitu kajian teoritis aspek afektif dalam pembelajaran bahasa Inggris; dan analisa kebutuhan penilaian afektif (2) proses pengembangan terdiri dari: a) penyusunan butir instrumen; b) evaluasi oleh ahli; c) analisis data tes uji coba; dan d) penyajian yaitu penyusunan kembali butir instrumen setelah revisi dan siap digunakan. Analisis data menggunakan model Rasch. Hasil penelitian adalah (1) Penilaian afektif dibutuhkan oleh dosen dan mahasiswa non-jurusan bahasa Inggris untuk meningkatkan kompetensi dan kualitas pembelajaran bahasa Inggris berdasarkan analisa kebutuhan (2) Ada 5 dimensi atau variabel yang dikembangkan dalam penelitian ini yaitu sikap, motivasi, konsep diri, minat, dan nilai kepribadian. (3) Lima dimensi ini terdiri dari 24 aspek dan 35 indikator; (4) Rumusan penilaian afektif dibangun dari 5 dimensi, 24 aspek dan 35 indikator sebagai dasar penyusunan butir instrumen yang terdiri dari 120 butir, sebagai model skala inventory;mencakup 4 ketrampilan berbahasa dan 3 komponen bahasa (5) validitas instrumen signifikan dan nilai uji kesesuaian instrumen adalah 0.97.Validitas dan reliabilitas pada uji coba terbatas adalah reliabilitas butir 1.00 dan reliabilitas person 0,93. Sedangkan validitas butir 0,90 dan validitas person 0,87. Jadi dapat dinyatakan bahwa skala pengukuran afektif sebanyak 120 butir pernyataan memiliki model cocok dengan data. Artinya, model yang diusulkan mampu mengestimasi matriks kovariansi populasi yang tidak berbeda dengan matriks kovariansi sampel. Hal ini berarti bahwa hasil estimasi yang diperoleh dari data sampel dapat dijadikan sebagai basis untuk membuat generalisasi.

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Praise be to Alloh SWT, the Almighty, the merciful, the compassionate for The Blessing so that I could finally accomplish this dissertation entitled **Developing an Affective Assessment Model of English Competence forUniversity Students of Non-English Departments.***Shalawat* and *Salam* for the Prophet Muhammad SAW who brings us from darkness to the brightness.

I realizethat there are many people who have already helped me arrange and write this dissertation. In this chance, I would like to express my deepest appreciation and gratitude.These are special greatly extended to Prof. Mursid Saleh, MA, Ph.D(Promoter),Prof.Dr. Warsono, MA(Co-promoter), and Prof. Dr. Januarius Mujiyanto, M.Hum (Member and the Head of Doctoral Program in English Education) who have given me continuous guidance, constructive criticism, moral support, advice, and suggestion, without which it is doubtful that this dissertation came into completion.

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Semarang, August 2018

Siti Mariam

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlightsbackground of the study,reasons for choosing the topic, identification of the problem, limitation of the study, statement of the problems, objectives of the study, significance of the study, product specifications, assumption of the development.

1.1 Background of the Study

Assessment and giving feedback to learners is one of the eight specified areas of activity, core knowledge and professional values articulated in the Education of National Standards framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education. Such recognition of the centrality of assessment to the learning process means all who teach and facilitate students learning need to reflect critically on assessment practices in higher education.

Affective assessment in higher education is a difficult area to write about since everyone has a view and many assumptions which are commonly expressed 'assessment drives the learning', students are more strategic and mark-oriented. Interestingly,though, assessment is sometimes the last thing that lecturers think about when designing their courses;we tend to think about the curriculum and what should be covered and only when that has been determined do we turn our attention to how we might assess what our students have learned.

Affective aspect plays an important role in man's life, mainly in making decision, perception, interaction, communication and intelligence. According to Airasia and Russell (2008):

> "A second behavior domain is the affective domain. The affective domain involves feelings, attitudes, interests, preferences, values, and emotions. Emotional stability, motivation, trustworthiness, self-control, and personality are all examples of affective characteristics".

Although affective behaviors are rarely assessed formally in schools and classrooms, teachers constantly assess affective behaviors informally, especially when sizing up students. Teachers need to know who can be trusted to work unsupervised and who cannot, who can maintain self-control when the teacher has to leave the classroom and who cannot, who needs to be encouraged to speak in class and who does not, who is interested in science but not in social studies, and who needs to be prodded to start class working and who does not. Most classroom teachers can describe their students' affective characteristics based on their informal observations and interactions with the students. For example, a teacher was relying mainly upon her assessment of students' affective behaviors when she selected a certain student, to deliver a note to the school principal; when she changed the class seating plan to separate some students who were unable to remain focused on the learning activities when seated together; when she switched instruction from discussion to seatwork to help avoid distractions; and when she selected students to work together on a cooperative assignment. There is no single, widely accepted taxonomy of affective behaviors, although the taxonomy prepared by Krathwol and associates (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 2013) is

the most commonly referred to and used. In general, affective taxonomies are all based upon the degree of a person's involvement in an activity or idea. The lower levels of affective taxonomies contain low-involvement behaviors such as paying attention, while the higher levels contain high- involvement behavior characterized by strong interest, commitment, and valuing.

Basically, students' learning achievement cannot be seen from cognitive and psychomotoric domain only as practiced today in our education, but also must be seen from affective achievement. Because the three domains have reciprocal relationship, although the power of relationships are varied from one case to other cases.

The various research results showed that effectiveness of cognitive achievement occurred in accordance with effectiveness of affective achievement. In general, students who have good academic achievement (cognitive), they also have high learning motivation and positive attitude towards the subject (affective). On the other hand, when they have low achievement, usually their motivations are low besides that their attitude towards the subject is also negative. According to the research results, around 25 percent of variant of learning cognitive achievement is contributed by affective characteristics owned by a student individually in the beginning of learning.

A taxonomy is a device for classifying things in terms of certain of their characteristics.Thus it can identify the relationship of one thing to another in terms of these characteristics. As it is generally known, taxonomies

exist for classifying plants and animals and for classifying chemical elements. What we are concerned about here are taxonomies of educational objectives, that is, of the goals of our educational system or parts of it. Bloom (2013) suggests that such taxonomies will help teachers:

> "Taxonomies will help teachersdefine nebulous terms such as 'understand' so that they can communicate curricular and evaluative information among themselves, identify goals that they may want to include in their own curriculums, identify directions in which they may want to extend their instructional activities, plan learning experiencesand prepare measuring devices".

While we are primarily concerned here with the last of Bloom's points, it is unwise to isolate the measurement aspects of taxonomies from the other features.Taxonomies are devices of human origin that not only to help teachers label objectives in terms of one or more of their properties, but also to get some idea of the sequences in which objectives may best occur, thus contributing to their validation. It is important to emphasize that taxonomies are the product of human beings, not necessarily of nature.

The second view was that affective concerns were natural outgrowth (ends) of learning cognitive content and need not be included as separate objectives (means) to be addressed during the learning process. Fortunately, during 1970s, affective objectives were recognized to be important as both ends and means in the overall school process and were no longer considered as merely acceptable outgrowths of an emphasis on the cognitive domain. As a result, state-level, as well as school and program level statements of goals and objectives included both cognitive and affective

objectives. While the cognitive domain receives increased attention, the affective area will remain firmly entrenched as an important aspect of the schooling process as well as an outcome of schooling. Bloom (1976) adapted model of school learning suggests clearly that during instruction learners approach any task with prior affective entry characteristics (e.g. attitudes, self esteem, interests, and values) as well as cognitive behaviors.

According to Tyler in Robert K. Gable (1986), there are two main reasons why affective aspect is not included in part of curriculum. First, most of educators or designers of curriculum state that affective aspect is not the main concern of school, but this is the duty of parents and society. They have a certain view that the main duty of school is just to promote cognitive aspect, not affective aspect. Second, there is a view that naturally, affective aspect will develop in accordance with affective development because it is assumed that the aspect will be influenced by cognitive development automatically. That is why schools specifically do not need to design the affective learning. Beside the reasons above, there are other reasons why affective domain technically gets lack of attentionproperly in formal education. They are a) affective domain is difficult to define and measure;b) there is limited of evaluation instrument to measure and assess; c)there is an unwillingness to give mark in affective domain because it is related to the validity and reliability aspects; d) it is difficult to determine behavior standard that reflects affective domain; and e) there are less direct consequences that reflect in affective behavior.

There are several definitions of affective domain. Aiken (1980: 2) states that the affective characteristics described in this bookare attitudes, self efficacy, self concept, values, and interest. Attitudes may be conceptualized as learned predispositions to respond positively or negatively to certain objects, situation, concepts, or persons. As such, they possess cognitive (belief or knowledge), affective (emotional, motivational, and performance-behavior or action tendencies) components.

According to Bloom, it is the dynamic interaction between those overlapping cognitive and affective domains during the instructional process that results in both cognitive learning outcomes and associated affective outcomes. These affective outcomes help guide future feelings about the course content and issues (attitudes), feelings of personal worth and success (self-esteem), desire to become involved in various activities (interests) and personal standard (values).

The use of the word 'affect' in the course of general conversation is rare, although the use of its derivatives (such as 'affectionate': a disposition to act from a kindly feeling or love towards one another) are more common. In psychology, the term is commonly used in conjunction with cognition (e.g. Clark and Fisk, 1982; Tomkins and Izard, 1996), but not so in educational discourse, where references to 'affective education' or 'affective learning' are infrequent.

For those of us who were trained to be teachers during the 1960s, our main or only- contact with this word was probably through the influential Taxonomy of Educational Objectives associated with the American psychologist and pedagogue, Benjamin Bloom (Krathwohl et al, 2013). In this analysis of the aims and objectives identified by American teachers, the affective domain was one of three domains of human experience and development, the other two being the cognitive and the psychomotor.

Teacher objectives falling within the affective domain were those which emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience. The authors found a large number of such objectives in the literature expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciation, values and emotional sets or biases (Krathwohl et al, 2013).

Within this taxonomy, the concept of 'affect' has been elaborated to relate feeling–based dispositions to action to a range of human characteristics, expressed in concepts which bear a 'family resemblance' to feelings– emotions, appreciation, and so on– to values, beliefs, etc. which seem to underpin them. The concept of affective education needs to be seen in this broad way. Thus the entry for 'Affective Learning of Adults' in the International Encyclopedia of Education defines affective learning as learning which allows the individual to understand and cope with his or her emotions in order to get more satisfaction from life. Learning which reduces anxiety

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associated with phobias such as fear of animals and insects or fear of heights is affective in nature. As an adult strives to manage his or her behavior under stressful working conditions or learns to love more openly and be more loveable, affective learning is taking place (Simpson, 1985: 224). The word 'assessment'often creates misconceptions among educators. Some think it is a kind of test at the end of a period of studying and some other might include students' daily performance. As assessment is the integral part of learning, then understanding details of assessing students becomes essential for teachers at any level. Therefore to achieve the integrated learning that involves the three domains of learning, assessment should use test and non-test. The main reference is integrated objective learning goals, not only materials. That's why appropriate assessment system employed by teachers develops the students' responsibility for their own learning.

1.2 Identification of the Problem

A comprehensive assessment is indispensable for effective guidance, appropriate placement of students and relevant educational development. Affective assessment as an integral part of general assessment is needed to provide holistic educational experience to students. It is obvious that affective education and assessment are necessary conditions for effective education. Although most educators recognize that affective assessment is essential in learning process, but in fact they neglect it because it needs more time and difficult to assess students' affective factors. If the necessary balance between the affective and the cognitive domains is well restored in

all colleges and universities and kept effectivelyrestored, there would be a dramatic difference in the quality of college and university graduates as their educational experience would be comprehensive. Among other things, it is suggested that students and educators be made to realize the value of affective atributes. To do this successfully, these atributes are to be clearly and specifically developed, taught and assessed in their own rights as opposed to their being simply integrated in cognitive tasks. Realizing the significance and the need for consistent affective assessment, the product of this study promotes the needed assessment of affective and cognitive domains which will be restored and educational experience will be complete and rewarding.

1.3 Coverage of the Problem

Affective domain is difficult to define and measure. There are limited evaluation instruments to measure and assess. There is an unwillingness to give mark in affective domain because it is related to the validity and reliability aspects. It is difficult to determine behavior standard that are reflected affective domain and there are less direct consequences that reflect in affective behavior.

The reality shows that not many teachers use affective assessment to measure students' English proficiency. There are many reasons why affective assessment should be used by English teachers to assess students' competence comprehensively. From the identification of the problem above, it seems that

teachers need a means that can facilitate them to assess their students comprehensively. Although educators and researchers recognize the value and importance of the affective domain to students' success (e.g. Furst, 1981; Martin & Reigeluth, 1992; Griffith & Nguyen, 2006), it is the least applied and least understood of the taxonomy trilogy. Knowledge and skills are easier to understand and apply in the educational process, the affective domain reflects the world of feelings, personal values, appreciation, self concept, interest, motivation and attitude – factors much more difficult to understand and assess. Up till now, there is no affective assessment model of English competence for EFL learners. Therefore, a model of affective assessment of English competence for EFL learners is needed to facilitate English teachers in higher education.

1.4 Research Problems

To develop a model of affective assessment of English competence, the researcher has employed Research and Development. Research and Development (R and D)is a research that is done to develop a valid product. Borg and Gall use 10 (ten) steps in their R and D cycle (1993: 775). According to Sugiyono (2012: 298), those ten steps are regrouped into three phases: (1) Exploration Phase (Preliminary Phase), (2) Prototype Development Phase, and (3) Testing Phase.The following are research questions of Exploration Phase, Development Phase, and Field Assessment Phase.

1.4.1 How is the affective assessment needed by English teachers and students of non-English departments ?

1.4.2 How are the dimensions or variables of affective assessment concept ?

1.4.3 How are the indicators of each dimension or variablewhich formaffective constructionsto assess students' affective factors ?

1.4.4 How is the formulation of affective assessment model for students of non-English department ?

1.4.5 How valid and reliable is the developed affective assessment model for students of non-English department ?

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The following are research objectives for the three phases of research and development.

1.5.1 To analyze the ways which an affective assessment model is needed by English teachers andstudents of non-English department.

1.5.2 To analyze the dimensions or variables of affective assessment concept.

1.5.3 Toanalyze the indicators of each dimension or variable in which form affective constructionsto assess students' affective factors.

1.5.4 To analyze the formulation of an affective assessment model for students of non-English department .

1.5.5 To analyze the validity and reliability of the developed affective assessment model of English competence for students of non-English department .

1.6 Significance of the Study

This research and development of students' affective assessment has twosignificancesnamely theoretical significance and practical significancefor a number of reasons as follows:

1.6.1   Theoretical Significance

This study makes English teachers realize that affective factors are important aspects in teaching and learning process so they should involve them in their teaching and learning. In order to their teaching and learning process will be comprehensive.

This study enriches the theory of how to develop an affectiveassessment model of English competence for students of non–English departments. To know the achievement of learning aims are needed evaluation or assessment and in implementation is needed some instruments. Thus, the arrangement or the development of English learning assessment instruments is also very important. It means that if the implementation of comprehensive evaluation or assessment is a must, so that arranging or developing comprehensive evaluation instruments are also a must.

The product of this study can be used mainly for English teachers to accomplish lack of instruments in evaluation system or assessment of English learning achievement in higher education. English teachers and stakeholders who concern in English language teaching (ELT) benefit the product of this

research. More specifically, English teachers can use the product of this research to assess their students comprehensively.

1.6.2   Practical Significance

1.6.2.1 By using the product, English teachers could prepare their students to enhance their English proficiency required by the curriculum. In turn, the quality of English Language Teaching can be increased. The product of this study becomes one of the important informations English teachers and stake holders related with thought foundation in performing improvement and learning innovation mainly in English as a foreign language.

1.6.2.2 By using the product of affective assessment English teachers also know and look for solutions to overcome students' difficulties in learning English. So that all of students can enhance their English competencies.

The product of affective assessment is designed as one part of authenticassessment which can not be ignored in teaching learning and assessment process.

1.7 Product Specifications

The research and development or R and Dis in the scope of the development affective assessment model of English subject. The affective assessment model can be used to help English teachers enhance students' English proficiency from affective point of view. This study is limited to the creation of a model of affective assessment was conducted precisely following

phase of scientific method. However, this product has several specifications as follows:

1.7.1. The affective scale which is developed in this study is self report rating scale model. Although this model scale has high reliability level, ideally it is important to develop another model so that it can be compared and obtained assessment product in which has higher its validity and reliability.

1.7.2 Indicators and statement items which were arranged also very limited, however, they have been represented dimensions of theoretical constructs which arranged as a basis of the research and development. So, the result of information has not fully described students' affective in detail, comprehensively and completely.

However in any case of accurated information which is obtained from this product also influenced by students' honest factor in giving response towards the statements in this product.

The affective English assessment model of English competence for students of non–English departments produced in this Research and Development has particular specifications to accomplish assessment in English Language Teaching. This product is an instrument which assess and produce valid information on students' affective aspects in learning English.The instruments are self report namely self expression through a list of questions or statements which have to be responded by testee.

The affective constructions in this study are seen from affective domain so that it describes students' condition related with attitude,

motivation, self concept, interest and personal values toward English learning. Therefor, the product is self report and aimed to assess students' psychological performance. The affective scale which was developed in this study, limited in summated rating scale model was developed by Likert (Likert, 1992) or known as Likert Type Scale, modified with varies of four alternative answers in accordance with statement contexts. In this scale, affective constructions were developed from five dimensions or variables namely 1) Attitude: students' attitude is an integral part of learning and it should therefore become an essential component of foreign language learning pedagogy. 2) Motivation: students should have high motivation because it becomes one of the key factors that influence the success of foreign language learning. 3) Self-concept in English language learning is related to how students view themselves, so it will influence in placing themselves or behavior. 4) Interest: students' interest to learn English, it means that students give much attention in learning English. 5) Personal Values: in English language learning, personal value that have to be developed is honesty and integrity.

1.9 Assumption and Limitation of the Development

This study assumes that potential users of this affective assessment model have sufficient knowledge of language learning evaluation to use this product.Several assumptions which as a basis for developing an affective assessment model are as follows.

1.9.1   The instruments of affective assessment which produced in this study was assumed that it can be used to enhance and assess students' English achievement from affective aspect.

1.9.2   The development of affective assessment instruments were derived from indicators of affective dimensions so that the product is assumed to be able to implement or useful widespread to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners.

1.9.3   The affective dimensions were developed based on theoretical constructions which developed through literature review of affective domain, so that the indicators are assumed to have strong theoretical framework.

1.9.4   The instruments of affective assessment model which developed in this study are assumed to cover the affective dimensions comprehensively in taxonomies perspective so that it can produce valid information for assessing students' English achievement. This is what 'abandoned' affective education and assessment should take care of and this is a serious weakness in the curriculum of colleges and universities.

1.9.5   These instruments of affective assessment are assumed to be able to accomplish test instruments in language assessment system of English achievement so that students' learning evaluation really carried out comprehensively covering test and non-test namely cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains. In addition to

changing the output of higher education, affective factors have also been added to the list of key inputs, or predictors of success in higher education.

In general, data processing of the test results uses statistical assistance and it applies four basic steps. They are a) Scoring is the obtaining of raw scores from the three types of instruments. They are key scoring, key answers, and conversion guidelines. b)Converting raw scores into standard scores. c)Converting standard score into value. d) Conducting analysis of the problem (if required) to determine the degree of validity and reliability of the problem, difficulty index, and distinguishing power.

Scoring guidelines are guidelines for determining scores on testee work or testee outcomes. With good scoring guidance, assessors/lecturers/teachers have a clear footing in scoring the answers of test participants or students. Scoring guidelines are required as guidelines to obtain a possible objective score. Therefore, it is important for the assessor to study with both scoring guidelines and develop them so that the results of the assessments obtained are more accurate and fair.

The development process of English affective scoring guidelines has taken account of the aspects and criteria used as the framework for determining the scores of affective outcomes. These aspects and criteria must be clearly defined and correct as a foundation in the formulation of further scoring guidelines. Aspects of developed affective have been aligned with the

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competence of non-English majors so that it can be used as a foothold for lecturers and other assessors in order to obtain an accurate assessment.

Accuracy and fairness of assessment is an absolute prerequisite for the achievement of objective and accountable judgments. A good guidance guide will help the assessors answer the needs of both of these principles.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDY, THEORETICAL

FRAMEWORK AND LOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The chapterhighlights the review ofprevious studies, review of literature and theoretical framework.

2.1 Review of the Previous Studies

The studies on affective learning and teaching domain were conducted by Ahmad, Ghazali, & Hassan(2011),Matovu (2012), Sanchez & Roda (2012),Srivastava &Shobhnajoshi (2014),Miller (2013). Their studiesare especially about one of affective aspects, namely Self Concept and the role in academic achievement point of view. There are some differences from my study, if their studies only concern one aspect of affective domain but my study has five aspects of affective domain. The research methods also differ from my study. If my study uses research and development design but their studies mainly use experimental studies and correlation research designs.

Abrantes, Scabra, & Lages (2006), Tin (2013), Sharma & Pooja (2016) conducted some studies related to students' interest and its affect with pedagogical competence, learning achievement in English classes. They explain how important of interest in students' learning English. Their studies only explored one aspect of affective domain namely interest. But interest as an object

of the research only becomes part of my study. That is the difference between my study and their studies.

Alleyne,McClean & Harper (2013), Kaushal &Janjhua (2011), have concerned on personal values as one aspect of affective domain. They investigated the role of personal values in ethical behavior also the relationship with academic achievement.

The studies on attitude and motivation and their influence towards English language learning have been conducted by Eshghinejad (2016),Gajalakshmi (2013),Ghazvini &Khajehpour (2011),Park (2003), Yin & Wang (2015), Sakui & Cowie (2012), Leighton, Tang & Guo (2017), and Celik (2016). The result of the studies show that there are significant influence of attitude and motivation in learning English.

The studies on affective learning that affect academic achievement have been conducted by Keegan(2017), McLeod (2017),Srivastava & Shobhnajoshi (2014), Ushida (2005), Harackiewicz &Hulleman (2010),Shavelson &Bolus (1981), Plucker &Stoking (2001),Newton (2015), Knauf (2015), Sadeghi &Khonbi (2014), Roper &Qualter (2012), Olatunji (2014), Smith, Mann &Shephard (2011), Shephard (2008), Midraj, Oneil &Selami (2008), Park (2012), Mamun, Rahman, Mahbuber &Hossain (2012), Nyamubi (2016). The similarity of the studies with my study is on affective learning. The differences of the studies with my study is that my study explores five dimensions of affective domain.They are attitude, motivation, self-concept, interest, and personal value. Whereas the studies above investigated only one dimension, for example

motivation or self-concept in English learning. The research methods also differed, my study used research and development design. The studies above used experimental study, qualitative method and also quantitative method.

Other research entitled Affective Education through Best Practices and Conflict Resolution. This study was conducted by Candace H.Lacey, Patrice R. LeBlanc, and Nancy L Maldonado in 2009. This study investigated whether implementation of the "Peace Works" conflict resolution program reduced angry and aggressive behavior and increased pro social behavior in students. Data were collected at four elementary schools and two middle schools, with equal numbers of treatment and control schools. Findings indicated that elementary treatment schools showed a significant decrease in hostile, irritable behaviors and a tendency to move in the appropriate directions to increase social competence. No significant changes were noted at middle school level except for increases in interpersonal skills at the control school, which may have been due to the effects of simultaneous participation in other social and emotional learning programs. Best practices for teaching effectiveness incorporated within the "Peace Works" program are identified.Affective education, or the processes of developing the social and emotional side of the learner, can be traced back to the Progressive Education Movement and John Dewey. Dewey's pedagogy focused on the development of skills extending from requisite knowledge and dispositions needed for effective participation in a democratic society, including solving problems in nonviolent ways and developing social and emotional growth in students (Cohen, 2006; Parkay & Hardcastle Stanford, 2007). Today, Social and

Emotional Learning (SEL) is a growing movement in education (Graczyk, Domitrovich, Small, & Zins, 2006). It is seen as a way "to improve social, emotional, and behavioral skills in children and youth, prevent risky behaviors, and promote engagement in learning and achievement" (Graczyk et al, p. 267). Early intervention to teach children the skills and dispositions for learning has become a policy focus (Fantuzzo et al, 2007) with social skills such as cooperation, (USDOHHS, 2000). SEL efforts in schools include character education and conflict resolution (Cohen, 2006). Interestingly, conflict resolution is viewed as a basic component of SEL programs, as well as bullying prevention (Cohen, Compton, & Deikman as cited in Cohen, 2006; McGrath, 2007). The differences between the research and the writer's are the method of investigation. This research used Experimental Study and the writer's used Educational Research and Development. Also the object of the study, the previous research discussed about Affective education but the writer's research discusses about Affective Assessment.

Meanwhile the studies on English language learning assessment and evaluation were conducted byWang (2007), Adachi, Tai & Dawson (2017), Carnell (2015), Huang (2015), Kearney, Perkins & Clark (2015),Lanli & Gao (2015),Micon & Medina (2015),Rosman, Mayer & Krampen (2014),Sunol,

Arbat, Pujol, Feliu, Fraguell & L'lado (2015),To &Liu (2017), Zheng, Cui, Li & Huang (2017).Wang (2007) for instance conducted a research on The Addition of an Affect Test and Self Assessment into ESL Writing Assessment. The finding of learning results after the actual application of a whole semester are analyzed

and compared to see whether such addition can improve or encourage ESL learner's writing performance. Participants are also interviewed to reflect on their attitude towards such addition. Results showed that both affect test and self assessment are welcomed by the majority of learners and play a relatively positive role in the whole ESL writing process. As reported by participants, affect test can promote and facilitate the process of English learning by stimulating learners to have a deeper thinking about their learning states and make favorable adjustments accordingly.

The studies above mainly about peer and self assessment in language skills for example for assessing writing skill, oral presentation, information literacy, learning vocabulary, project performance at different learning levels, summative and formative purposes. Actually peer and self-assessment are part of authentic assessment. But they have difference point of view toward my study.

Abedi, Hofstetter,Carol &Lord (2004),Bedore & Pena (2008),Panadero & Boud (2017),Deeley (2017),Figueiredo, Martins, Silva &Simoes (2015),Leung &Andrews (2012),Lin (2004,Lynam & Cachia (2017),Taylor (2006), Lam (2015), conducted the studies on assessment in language learning, bilingual children, comprehensive assessment of immigrant students, literary purpose and the role of assessment. But the studies only focused on cognitive assessment point of view.

The studies on classroom based language assessment, speaking assessment, and language testing were conducted by Figueras (2012), Stoynoff (2012),Bennett (2012), Rimmer (2006), Mandinach (2005),Kaur, Noman &Hashim (2017),Zamorano& Montanero (2017), Sadler(2015),Kardanova,

Loyalka, Chirikov, Liu, Li, Wang, Enchikova, Shi&Johnson (2016), Zlatkin,Tratschanskaia, Pant & Coates (2016), Lok, Mc Naught &Young (2015), Nash, Crimmins& Oprescu (2015), Holmes (2014).

Affective Assessment of Team Skills in Agile CS1 Labs: The Good, The Bad and The Ugly (2005). This study was conducted by Dawn McKinney and Leo F.Denton from School of Computer and Information Sciences, University of South Alabama, Mobile, AL 36688 (251) 460-6390 {dmckinney,Identon}@usouth.edu. The finding of the research is team experiences can be important learning experiences, and industry highly values team skills in graduates. The National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) includes team skills in top ten list of characteristics that industry most wants in college graduates: communication skills, honesty, integrity, teamwork skills, interpersonal skills, motivation, initiative, strong work ethic, analytical skills, flexibility,adaptability, computer skills, and organizational skills. The experimental use of teams in CS1 to assess the potential benefits of team experiences for students at the introductory level. Students at this level often have limited prior practice or instruction supporting team skills. Nonetheless, an early introduction to teams could help students develop these needed skills. Further reasons supporting this early use of teams include: a) Studies show that women and minorities benefit from quality team experiences; b) Their earlier work which has shown that the sense of belonging, along with other affective factors, is correlated with student achievement; c) Team activities provide a context that allows for efficient and effective assessment of affective objectives. Using the

NACE list as a springboard, this effort specifically identified, promoted, and assessed five affective team skills: communication, cooperation, work ethic, adaptability and commitment. The description of this experience includes elements of the good, the bad, and the ugly.The similarity of the study with the writer's in method of investigation, both of them use Research and Development approach, The differences are the study concerned with affective assessment of team skills in agile CS1 Labs CS1 at their School of Computer and Information Sciences was a two-semester sequence for majors focusing on problem-solving and programming concepts. However, the writer's study concerned with creating model of affective-based assessment that will enhance English competenceof Non-English Department students.

The studies on English Language Teaching and English as Foreign Language Learning were conducted byWen (2012), Pessoa & Freitos (2012), Baker (2012), Hunter & Smith (2012),Waters (2012), Hawkes (2012), Ahmadian (2012),Filmaz & Akcan (2012). Their study on foreign language aptitude, critical language teaching, exploring ELT methods, intercultural awareness culture in ELT. Their studies focused on English Language Teaching of EFL learners, but the writer's research focuses on affective assessment of EFL learners.

The studies on English as lingua franca from the Classroom to the classroom were conducted by Jenkins (2012), Sowden (2012),Cogo (2012).The studies on English teachers' competence were conducted by Gao & Chow (2012),entitled Primary SchoolEnglish Teachers' Research Engagement and Griffiths (2012) entitled Focus on the Teacher.

The studies on language skills were conducted by Chen & Su (2012), Blyth (2012),Paran (2012), Batstone (2012), Chou, Wu, Chen & Lughmani (2012),Mc Closkey & Thrush (2006), Hunter (2012), Moser, Harris, Carle (2012), Timmis (2012),Reis & Hazan (2012). Their studies on improving and enhancing the four language skills namely listening, reading, writing and speaking.

Illes (2012), Borg & Al Busaidi (2012) conducted research on learner autonomy of EFL learners. The studies on blended learning in ELT were conducted by Sowell (2017), Gonzalez(2005),Lau (2015). Meanwhile Georgiou (2012),Black & Yasukawa (2012), Roever (2012),Somers & Surmont (2012) conducted research on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English across curriculum.

The studies on reflective teaching in ELT were conducted by Ryder (2012), Reflective,Hall (2012). Meanwhile the studies onEnglish literature conducted by Strong (2012). As one of language component, namely grammar and sentence translation   also were conducted by Dudeney & Hockly (2012), Salem (2012).

The similarity of the studies above with my study is about English learning of foreign learners. The differences of the studies above with my study namely on the studies above investigated only one language skill for instance only reading or writing. Whereas my study investigated all aspects of English learning. After the researcher explained the previous studies, she has eagerness to conduct a study about affective assessment that is very important in English learning and also is

needed by English learners. The most likely way in which the assessment of affective factors can improve developmental education is by better understanding students likelihood for success. Using affective assessment, faculty member might understand their students' tendency to seek help and more proactively engage with those who do so less often. While educators have always recognized the importance of affective factors in the students' success, they have not always known how to assess students' affective point of view and practices to integrate these factors with what they know about the cognitive domain. This is why this study has significance to conduct using a more holistic view of students' skills which can help to frame conversation on those affective assessment factors that are most relevan to student success.

2.2 Theoretical Review

2.2.1 Affective Domain

A second behavior domain is the affective domain. The affective domain involves feelings, attitudes, interests, preferences, values, and emotions. Emotional stability, motivation, trustworthiness, self-control, and personality are examples of affective characteristics. Although affective behaviors are rarely assessed formally in schools and classrooms, teachers constantly asses affective behaviors informally, especially when sizing up students(Krathwohl et. al, 2013). Teachers need to know who can be trusted to work unsupervised and who cannot, who can maintain self-control when the teachers has to leave the classroom and who cannot, who needs to be encouraged to speak in class and who does not, who

interested in science but not in social studies, and who need to prodded to start class work and who does not. Most classroom teachers can describe their student's affective characteristics based on their informal observed taxonomy of affective behaviors although the taxonomy prepared by Krathwohl and associates (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 2013) is the most commonly referred to and used. In general, affective taxonomies are all based upon the degree of a person's involvement in an activity or idea. The lower levels of affective taxonomies contain low-involvement behaviors such as paying attention, while the higher levels contain high-involvement behavior characterized by strong interest, commitment and valuing.

The second view was that affective concerns were natural outgrowth (ends) of learning cognitive content and need not be included as separate objectives (means) to be addressed during the learning process. Fortunately, during 1970s, affective objectives were recognized to be important as both ends and means in the overall school process and were no longer considered as merely acceptable outgrowths of an emphasis on the cognitive domain. As a result, state-level, as well as school and program level statements of goals and objectives included both cognitive and affective objectives. While the cognitive domain receives increased attention, the affective area will remain firmly entrenched as an important aspect of the schooling process as well as an outcome of schooling. Bloom's (1976) adapted model of school learning clearly suggests that during instruction learners approach any task with prior affective entry characteristics (e.g. attitudes, self esteem, interest, and values) as well as cognitive behaviors.

2.2.2 Variety and Importance of Noncognitive Variables

The measurement of variables that emphasize the cognitive features of a pupil's personality such as general educational developments, general school aptitudes, and specific achievements, general school aptitudes and specific abilities have been discussed up to this point. However, a vast array of human characteristics remain which have relevance to education. One large group of these is often referred to as the noncognitive or affective domain. As Messick (1979) points out, " However, a comparison between cognitive and noncognitive is difficult because the distinction is essentially artificial: nearly all behavior is subject to influence by both the cognitive and the noncognitive aspects of person".

Thus, a sharp distinction between the two domains cannot be made to say that we are testing a cognitive capability does not imply that only cognition influences a pupil's performance; to say we are testing a noncognitive capability does not imply that cognition is absent from a pupil's response.

> These noncognitive variables are important to education in several ways a) some them, such as those in the areas of affect and motivation, can be used to predict a pupil's success in particular instructional environments; b) some seem to function as mediating variables, facilitating (or hampering) either the rate a pupil learns new material, the level of learning a pupil attains, or both; c)others appears to act as moderator variables, determining the differential effects which certain kinds of instructional procedures have on different students, and d) some are viewed as either desired outcomes of education or as valued individuals characteristic which, at minimum, education should not undermine. Note that in cases the exact influence of each of these variables on pupil learning is unknown.(Messick, 1979)
>
> Messick (1979) examines the potential roles that could be played by

measures of noncognitive variables in connection with these decisions: a)

Access.The essential concern here is with who is admissible to particular educational opportunities. Traditionally, cognitive variables have been used in these decisions, but broadening the domain of variables measured to include noncognitive types may offer expanded educational opportunities to nontraditional students;b) Objectives and standard. This class of decisions is concerned with what educators should address. Many noncognitive variable seem to fit into a broadened definition of educational goals. Some variables, such as curiosity, interest, and values have direct implication for the particular subject-matter objectives that should be taught; c) Guidance. This class of decisions involves the student choosing one educational program or alternative over another. Interests, values, and motivations are among the cognitive variables which play roles here along with cognitive variables such as aptitudes and achievements; d) Selection. These decisions focus on whether a particular person is permitted to enter a program and where the person may need to go in order to reach the desired program goals. Again, the tradition has been to use cognitive variables to make decisions, but certain noncognitive variables might be added: experiential learning, social sensitivity, creativity, interests, and motivations;e) Placement. These decisions refer to vertical grouping of students either for remediation or advanced placement. Interest, motivations, affects, experiential learning, and creative and talent accomplishment are among the noncognitive variables which have potential roles to play in placement decisions; f) Instructional approach. One of the decisions to be made in instruction concerns how the educator is to teach. Motivations and cognitive styles may be variables of

potential worth. Measuring cognitive variables is necessary, however, to identify the content to be learned;g) Evaluations of programs. This class of decisions concerns how well an educational program has accomplished its various espoused goals, and whether the program has had side effects. Outcome measures may need to include noncognitive as well as cognitive variables.

Note that while, on the one hand, educators generally agree about the value and desired emphasis of many cognitive variables, especially those associated with general educational development or with basic educational skills, on the other hand, educators agree much less on the value and emphasis to place on each of the non cognitive areas. Messick points to this lack of consensus as a potential invitation for misuse. Thus, for example, issues of *which* values to support arise. He recommends that persons make explicit values-those of the state school, parent, teacher, pupil-will be used to decide which noncognitive variables are to measure and use in decision-making. We need to know how various set of values are operating because these values influence: a) the particular noncognitive variables the school will emphasize;b) the consequences, to both society and the individual, which result when various educational decisions are made using measures of the variables as sources of information.

2.2.3An Illustrated Taxonomy of the Affective Domain

The implementation of affective education in college or university must be done through a special approach. It means that it can not be equated with an affective education approach for groups of primary and secondary education, because

adolescents who are considered 'immature' can still be fully controlled by parents and teachers which is the largest affective factor in their lives (Slavin, 2006), so the application of affective domains in the education process feels easier. Whereas for groups of students considered to be adults, the application of affective domains must go through a specific strategy in order to have a real impact on the next journey of life as a citizen. In practice, the impact of affective domains in education is often overlooked by researchers. This is because they assume that affective domains are very difficult to measure and have dependence on other factors such as economic, political, social and cultural factors as well as psychological or personal life factors (Lynch, Baker & Lyons, 2009). On the other hand, the affective domain actually has a very significant influence on the cognitive domain (Krathwohl, Bloom & Masia, 2013), so the outcome of the affective domain application is very much needed in the learning process.Affective learning domains related to feelings, emotions, or students' responses to their learning experiences. Affective behavior, among others, are shown by the attitude, interest, attention and awareness. However, to implement these three domains or skills in assessment is not easy because of the various factors, including (1) low commitment, (2) insufficient knowledge, (3) limited facilities and supporting funds, (4) political will either from central government, regional government, and (5) dissemination of less effective information. Affective problems are important to everyone, but their implementation is poor. This is because designing the achievement of affective learning goals is not as easy as cognitive and psychomotor learning. The educational unit should design

the right learning activities to achieve affective learning objectives. The success of educators in implementing affective domain of learning and the success of learners achieving affective competencies needs to be assessed. Therefore it is necessary to develop a reference for the development of affective domain appraisal tools and their measurement results.

Since the compilation of taxonomy by Benjamin Bloom in 1956, the goals of education are divided into three domains: (a) Cognitive domain contains behaviors that emphasize the intellectual aspects, such as knowledge, understanding, and thinking skills; (b) Affective domain contains behaviors that emphasize aspects of feelings and emotions, such as interests, attitudes, appreciations, and adjustments; and (c) Psychomotor domain contains behaviors that emphasize aspects of motor skills such as dancing, drawing, using computers, and operating machines. Affective domains according to Bloom's taxonomy have some attributes namely receiving (attending), responding, valuing, organizing, and characterization by a value or value complex (Krathwohl, Bloom & Masia, 1964: 176-185).

The diagram is as follows:
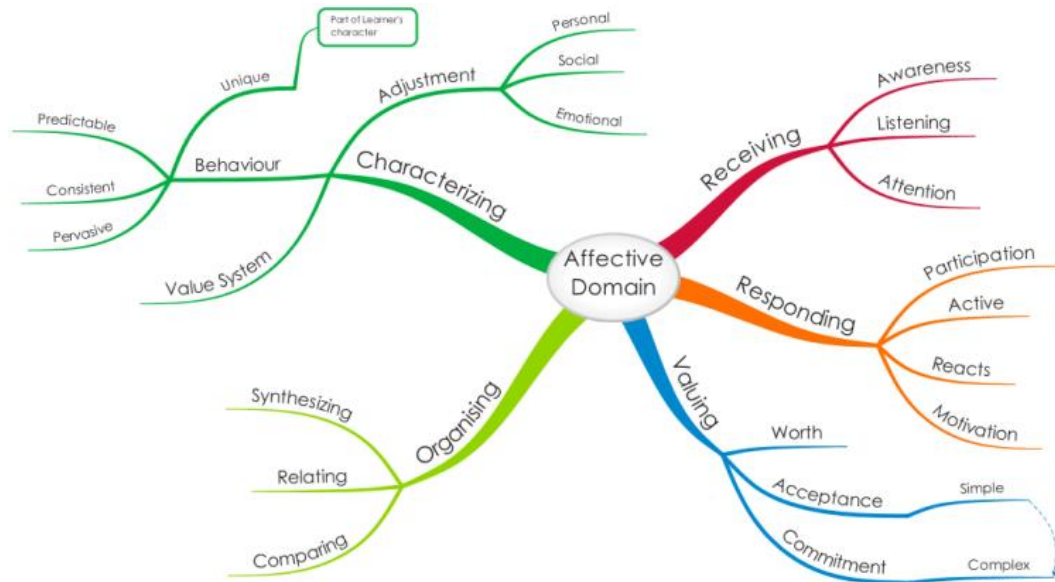
Figure 2.1 Affective Domain (Krathwohl, Bloom & Masia, 1964: 176-185)

At the receiving or attending   level, the focus of learning is on the assumption, it means that when the learner is given an explanation of a phenomenon or given a stimulus, the learning will accept the existence of the phenomenon or the stimulus. There are three sub levels, namely awareness, willingness to receive, and certain selected attention.Awareness is somewhat different from cognitive behavior, especially when responding to astimulus. In cognitive behavior, the learner may express a response to a stimulus, whereas in this sub-level the learner receives only the stimulus without any obligation to state a response. For example, the learner only concerns the environment as interesting as the classroom furniture, the school building without comment. At the sub-level of the willingness to accept, the learner has only the will to accept the stimulus

provided by the teacher, so that the learner is only in a passive state of receiving by paying attention to what given to him. This sub-level example is when the learner has been willing to pay attention to what the teacher is saying, though not necessarily able to understand what is being said, but there is a desire to focus on what is being said or being explained at the moment.At the third sub-level of particular attention or selected attention, the learner has been able to receive the stimulus consciously so as to better sort out the stimulus provided by the teacher outside the existing stimulus at the time. At the responding level, the focus of learning is on individual responses to a phenomenon, so it's more than just paying attention. At this level a learner can see firsthand the interest of the learner in the material beingtaught at the time. At this level, there are three sub levels, namely acquiescence in responding, willingness to response, and satisfaction in response. In the subset of agreements in responding, learners begin to demonstrate compliance with the rules applied or show reactions to the obligations conveyed by the instructor. Similarly, the willingness to respond of the learner has shown a voluntary fraction in performing the task given by the teacher. While in the sub-level of satisfaction in response, teachers can clearly see the satisfaction and excitement shown by the learners explicitly.At the valuing level, the learner will demonstrate his commitment based on his or her value which followed then guide learners' behavior. This condition is very different from the concept of external motivation that only leads to compliance. There are three sub levels of Valueing namely acceptance of value adopted, value preference, and commitment. At the sub-level of acceptance of value, the learner has a belief that it has certain values

in himself and has the will to be identified by others based on that belief. For example, a student has a belief that it can tolerate with many people from different regions of origin. In the sub level of the preference of value, the learner is not only sure of the value he already has, but also strives to maintain those values. While in sub-level of communication, a person not only believes in a value but also tries to commit to that value and ultimately becomes a motivation in doing an action.At the organizational level, the learner has come to the stage of believing in certain values, then he or she will be confronted with more than one value or several values that must be trusted.At this level, the learner begins to organize thesevalues and seeks the relationship between one value and another, and then attempts to find the value that he thinks is the most dominant. Organization has two sub-levels, namely conceptualization of a value and organization of a value system.As a continuation of the previous level, then on conceptualization of a value, a learner began to relate the values that he has and trying to find which value he should hold firm. Furthermore, after abstracting from the value that he belongs to the sub-level of the organization of a value system, the learner will attempt to organize the values.

At the last level of characterization by value set or value complex, the learner is considered to have a strong value within him, then he will try to generalize his behavior and integrate beliefs, ideas and behavior into a philosophy of life. There are two sub levels namely generalized set and characterization.In the sub-level of a generalized set, a learner has been able to behave consistently from within himself or internally based on the values he already has. While sub-level of

characterization is the peak of the internalization process. Therefore, at this sub-level the learners have been able to have a strong and consistent personal philosophy.

There are four issues that need attention and are very influential in implementing affective domain in lectures at the university level, namely: (i) convenience of learning environment, (ii) attitudinal, (iii) democratic classroom situation, and (iv) formation of community-based social interaction. What is meant by the comfort of the learning environment is the comfortable learning environment for the students is not the same as the definition of "comfortable" for the primary and secondary students. The campus environment is filled with the atmosphere with high tech impression, the lecture equipment is modern apart from the impression of ancient and "sad" and cleanly proved togreatly affect the emotional atmosphere of students, especially students classified rookie (Burgan, 2006: 28-29). Attitudinal within the college campus environment translated as environmental identity such as jackets, emblems, t-shirts and hats proved to help a student generate feelings that enter the affective domain. It is also evident that when aspects of the affective domain can be generated, the immediate aspect of the cognitive domain can be easily established in teaching and learning (Kamradt & Kamradt, 1999: 570).

The democratic atmosphere within the classroom can be realized by assuming that decision-making is done in conjunction with the aim of making the classroom atmosphere better and increasing responsibilities together, and assuming that the results of class decisions are the highest leaders (Lickona 1999:

603). The existence of a democratic classroom situation is expected to bring the participants' feelings of learning to be more comfortable because they feel more appreciated that can help them solve their own problems because they are considered more responsible and mature (Lickona, 1999: 604). In addition, with a democratic classroom situation will cause students "forced" to cooperate with each other or also commonly referred to as cooperative learning. This is supported by the assumption that one of the goals of cooperative learning is to increase self-esteem through feelings of respect and trust by others in an environment (Joyce, Weil & Calhoun, 2009: 302)

Community-based social interaction is an important factor in the application of affective frontiers. This is seen with the increasingly widespread social networking sites that drag students into the Y-generation super active is an empirical impact that social interaction-based community. The results of the study by Innes and Ally (2004) suggest that adult learners will be particularly helpful with their affective outcomes with social interactions based on reflection and providing feedback to each other.Based on the above theoretical study can be explained four special strategies that can be considered support the optimization of learning outcomes, especially in the affective areas are: (i) the application of asynchronous learning, (ii) the application of web-based learning or online learning, (iii) the application of lecturer-student collaboration which are competitive, and (iv) the application of education that makes the student a longlife learner.Implementing learning that is asynchronous or can be mutual without waiting for a response from either party. This means that in its application,

students can perform the learning process with an unspecified and customized time. In general, this strategy is usually applied in web-based learning and has been proven to significantly increase the affective domain's output. The output of affective domain achieved is an increased response level characterized by willingness and satisfaction in response to significant learning resources (Cleveland-Innes & Ally, 2004: 27).

This affective domain includes the manner in which we deal with things emotionally, such as feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes

The objects of affective domain in this study based on psychology and education study, usually the constructions of affective domain consist of five objects namely: attitude, motivation, self–concept, interest, and personal value.

Table 2.1Descriptors of the Major Categories

In the Affective Domain:	Illustrative Verb:
Receiving phenomena: Awareness, willingness to hear, selected attention.	Examples: Listen to others with respect. Listen for and remember the name of newly introduced people.
	Keywords: asks, chooses, describes, follows, gives, holds, identifies, locates, names, points to, selects, sits, erects, replies, uses.
Responding to phenomena: Active participation on the part of the learners. Attends and reacts to a particular phenomenon. Learning outcomes may emphasize compliance in responding, willingness to respond, or	Examples: Participates in class discussions. Gives a presentation. Questions new ideals, concepts, models, etc. in order to fully understand them. Know the safety rules and practices them.
	Keywords: answers, assists, aids, complies, conforms, discusses, greets, helps, labels, performs, practices, presents, reads, recites,

satisfaction in responding (motivation).

Valuing: The worth or value a person attaches to a particular object, phenomenon, or behaviour. This ranges from simple acceptance to the more complex state of commitment. Valuing is based on the internalization of a set of specified values, while clues to these values are expressed in the learner's overt behaviour and are often identifiable.

Organization: organizes values into priorities by contrasting different values, resolving conflicts between them, and creating an unique value system. The emphasis is on comparing, relating, and synthesizing values.

Internalizing values (characterization): Has a value system that controls their behaviour. The behaviour is pervasive, consistent, predictable, and most importantly, characteristic of the learner. Instructional objectives are concerned with the student's general patterns of adjustment

reports, selects, tells, writes.

Examples: Demonstrates belief in the democratic process. Is sensitive towards individual and cultural differences (value diversity). Shows the ability to solve problems. Proposes a plan to social improvement and follows through with commitment. Informs management on matters that one feels strongly about.

Keywords: completes, demonstrates, differentiates, explains, follows, forms, initiates, invites, joins, justifies, proposes, reads, reports, selects, shares, studies, works.

Examples: Recognizes the need for balance between freedom and responsible behaviour. Accepts responsibility for one's behaviour. Explains the role of systematic planning in solving problems. Accepts professional ethical standards. Creates a life plan in harmony with abilities, interests, and beliefs. Prioritizes time effectively to meet the needs of the organization, family, and self.

Keywords: adheres, alters, arranges, combines, compares, completes, defends, explains, formulates, generalizes, identifies, integrates, modifies, orders, organizes, prepares, relates, synthesizes.

Examples: Shows self-reliance when working independently. Cooperates in group activities (displays teamwork). Uses an objective approach in problem solving. Displays a professional commitment to ethical practice on a daily basis. Revises judgments and changes behaviour in light of new evidence. Values people for what they are, not how they look.

Keywords: acts, discriminates, displays,

| (personal, social, emotional). | influences, listens, modifies, performs, practices, proposes, qualifies, questions, revises, serves, solves, verifies. |

(Cleveland-Innes & Ally, 2004: 27)

2.2.2 Attitude

Education is the powerful tool which helps to modify the behavior of the child according to the needs and expectancy of the society. Student's attitude is an integral part of learning and that it shouldtherefore become an essential component of second language learning pedagogy. Attitudes toward learning are believed to influence behaviors such as selecting and reading books, speaking in a foreign language etc. Especially in Education, if the students have positive attitude towards any subject,they can achieve many things in that specific area. There is an interaction between language learning and the environmental components in which the students were grown up. Both negative and positive attitudes have a strong impact on the success of language learning. According to Gajalakshmi (2013), attitude is determined by the individual's beliefs about outcomes or attributes of performing the behavior (behavioral beliefs), weighted by evaluations of those outcomes or attributes. Thus,a person who holds strong beliefs that positively valued outcomes will result from performing the behavior will have a positive attitude toward the behavior. Conversely,a person who holds strong beliefs that negatively valued outcomes will result from the behavior will have a negative attitude. Attitude concept can be viewed from these three dimensions. Each one of these dimensions has different features to bring out

language attitude results. Accordingly, the attitude concept has three components i.e. behavioral,cognitive and affective. These three attitudal aspects are based on the three theoretical approaches of behaviorism, cognitivism, and humanism respectively.

It can be concluded that the behavioral aspect of attitude deals with the way one behaves and reacts in particular situations. In fact, the successful language learning enhances the learners to identify themselves with the native speakers of that language and acquire or adopt various aspects of behaviors which characterize the members of the target language community.

1. Cognitive Aspect of Attitude

This aspect of attitude involves the beliefs of the language learners about the knowledge that they receive and their understanding in the process of language learning. The cognitive attitude can be classified into four steps of connecting the previous knowledge and the new one, creating new knowledge, checking new knowledge, and applying the new knowledge in many situations.

It is because cognitive related with knowledge so the relationship cognitive and attitude means how students behave the knowledge after learning process.FengR. and Chen H. (2009) stated that"Learning process is an emotional process. It is affected by different emotional factors. The teacher and his students engage in various emotional activities in it and varied fruits of emotions are yield".

According to Choy S.C.& Troudi S. (2006),attitude can help the learners to express whether they like or dislike the objects or surrounding situations. It is

agreed that the inner feelings and emotions of learners influence their perspectives and their attitudes towards the target language.

An attitude is an expression of favor or disfavor toward a person, place, thing, or event (the attitude object). Prominent psychologist Gordon Allport once described attitudes "the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology.An attitude can be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, event, activities, ideas, or just about anything in your environment, but there is debate about precise definitions. Eagly and Chaiken, for example, define an attitude "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor." Though it is sometimes common to define an attitude as affect toward an object, affect (i.e. discrete emotions or overall arousal) is generally understood to be distinct from attitude as a measure of favorability.

This definition of attitude allows for one's evaluation of an attitude object to vary from extremely negative to extremely positive, but also admits that people can also be conflicted or ambivalent toward an object meaning that they might at different times express both positive and negative attitude toward the same object. This has led to some discussion of whether individual can hold multiple attitudes toward the same object.

Whether attitudes are explicit (i.e. deliberately formed) versus implicit (i.e. subconscious) has been a topic of considerable research. Research on implicit attitudes, which are generally unacknowledged or outside of awareness, uses sophisticated methods involving people's response times to stimuli to show that

implicit attitudes exist (perhaps in tandem with explicit attitudes of the same object). Implicit and explicit attitudes seem to affect people's behavior, though in different ways. They tend not to be strongly associated with each other, although in some cases they are. The relationship between them is poorly understood.

2.Attitude Structure

The classic, tripartite view offered by William J. McGuire (1983) is that "An attitude contains cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Empirical research, however, fails to support clear distinctions between thoughts, emotions, and behavioral intentions associated with a particular attitude. A criticism of the tripartite view of attitudes is that it requires cognitive, affective, and behavioral associations of an attitude to be consistent, but this may be implausible."Thus some views of attitude structure see the cognitive and behavioral components as derivative of affect or affect and behavior as derivative of underlying beliefs.

Despite debate about the particular structure of attitudes, there is considerable evidence that attitudes reflect more than evaluations of a particular object that vary from positive to negative. Attitudes also have other characteristics, such as importance, certainty, or accessibility (measures of attitude strength) and associated knowledge.

There is also considerable interest in inter-attitudinal structure, which connects different attitudes to one another and to more underlying psychological structures, such as values or ideology.Human behavior (and that of other organisms and mechanisms) can be common, unusual, acceptable, or unacceptable. Humans evaluate the acceptability of behavior using social norms

and regulate behavior by means of social control. In sociology, behavior is considered as having no meaning, being not directed at other people and thus is the most basic human action, although it can play a part in diagnosis of disorders such as the autism spectrum disorders. Animal behavior is studied in comparative psychology, ethology, behavioral ecology and sociobiology. According to moral values, human behavior may also depend upon the common, usual, unusual, acceptable or unacceptable behavior of others.

Behavior became an important construct in early 20th century psychology with the advent of the paradigm known subsequently as "behaviorism." Behaviorism was a reaction against "faculty" psychology which purported to see into or understand the mind without the benefit of scientific testing. Behaviorism insisted on working only with what can be seen or manipulated and in the early views of John B. Watson, a founder of the field, nothing was inferred as to the nature of the entity that produced the behavior. Subsequent modifications of Watson's perspective and that of "classical conditioning" (see under Ivan Pavlov) led to the rise of operant conditioning or "radical behaviorism", a theory advocated by B.F. Skinner, which took over the academic establishment up through the 1950s and was synonymous with "behaviorism" for many.

For studies on behavior, ethograms are used attitude function. Another classic view of attitudes is that attitudes serve particular functions for individuals. That is, researchers have tried to understand why individuals hold particular attitudes or why they hold attitudes in general by considering how attitudes affect the individuals who hold them. Daniel Katz, for example, writes that attitudes can

serve "instrumental, adjustive or utilitarian", "ego-defensive", "value-expressive", or "knowledge" functions. The functional view of attitudes suggests that in order for attitudes to change (e.g., via persuasion), appeals must be made to the function(s) that a particular attitude serves for the individual. As an example, the "ego-defensive" function might be used to influence the racially prejudicial attitudes of an individual who sees themselves as open-minded and tolerant. By appealing to that individual's image of themselves as tolerant and open-minded, it may be possible to change their prejudicial attitudes to be more consistent with their self-concept. Similarly, a persuasive message that threatens self-image is much more likely to be rejected.

3. Attitude Formation

According to Doob (1947), learning can account for most of the attitudes we hold. Theories of classical conditioning, instrumental conditioning, and social learning are mainly responsible for formation of attitude. Unlike personality, attitudes are expected to change as a function of experience. Tesser (1993) has argued that hereditary variables may affect attitudes but believes that they may do so indirectly.The effects of attitudes on behaviors represents a significant research enterprise within psychology. Two theoretical approaches have dominated this research: the theory of reasoned action and, its theoretical descendant, the theory of planned behavior, both of which are associated with Icek Ajzen(1980). Both of these theories describe the link between attitude and behavior as a deliberative process, with an individual actively choosing to engage in an attitude-related

behavior. An alternative model, called MODE for "Motivation and Opportunity as DEterminants" was proposed by Russell H. Fazio, which focuses on motivations and opportunities for deliberative attitude-related behavior to occur. MODE is a dual process theory that expects deliberative attitude-behavior linkages- like those modelled by the theory of planned behavior -only occur when individuals have motivation to reflect upon their own attitudes.

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) is a model for the prediction of behavioral intention, spanning predictions of attitude, and predictions of behavior. The subsequent separation of behavioral intention from behavior allows for explanation of limiting factors on attitudinal influence (Ajzen, 1980). The Theory of Reasoned Action was developed by Martin Fishbein (1975) and Icek Ajzen, (1980), derived from previous research that started out as the theory of attitude, which led to the study of attitude and behavior. The theory was "born largely out of frustration with traditional attitude–behavior research, much of which found weak correlations between attitude measures and performance of volitional behaviors" (Hale, Householder & Greene, 2003: 259).

The theory of planned behavior was proposed by Icek Ajzen in 1985 through his article "From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior." The theory was developed from the theory of reasoned action, which was proposed by Martin Fishbein together with Icek Ajzen in 1975. The theory of reasoned action was in turn grounded in various theories of attitude such as learning theories, expectancy-value theories, consistency theories, and attribution theory. According to the theory of reasoned action, if people evaluate the

suggested behavior as positive (attitude), and if they think their significant others want them to perform the behavior (subjective norm), this results in a higher intention (motivation) and they are more likely to do so. A high correlation of attitudes and subjective norms to behavioral intention, and subsequently to behavior, has been confirmed in many studies.

A counter-argument against the high relationship between behavioral intention and actual behavior has also been proposed, as the results of some studies show that, because of circumstantial limitations, behavioral intention does not always lead to actual behavior. Namely, since behavioral intention cannot be the exclusive determinant of behavior where an individual's control over the behavior is incomplete, Ajzen introduced the theory of planned behavior by adding a new component, "perceived behavioral control." By this, he extended the theory of reasoned action to cover non-volitional behaviors for predicting behavioral intention and actual behavior.

4. Attitudes and Their Characteristics

Attitudes are characteristics of persons which describe their positive and negative feelings toward particular objects, situations, institutions, persons or ideas. Although attitudes are frequently considered noncognitive or affective aspects of a person, they can also be considered as having cognitive and behavioral component as well (Wagner, 1969; Zimbardo, &Ebbeson, 1970). The affective component relates to a person's liking of or emotional response toward to object. The cognitive component of an attitude relates to a person's belief or perceptions

about the fact concerning the object. The behavioral component concerns the person's actions or overt behavior toward the particular object in the question. Most attitude instruments have focused on the affective component of attitude.

Even focusing on the affective aspect, attitude allows considerable leeway in the characteristics of a person's attitudes that can be measured. A person's attitudes toward something or someone can be described in terms of (Scott, 1968). They are: a)Direction: whether the attitude is positive or negative; b)Magnitude: the degree to which the positive or negative feeling is held; c)Intensity: the importance or strength of feeling the person holds with respect to the object; d)Ambivalence: the extent to which a person holds conflicting attitudes toward different aspects of the same object; e)Salience or centrality: whether this particular attitude is central to explaine a wide variety of person's attitude; f)Affective salience: the degree to which a person becomes highly emotional expressing attitudes toward a particular object; g)Flexibility: the extent to which the person will change or modify his or her attitude toward an object; h)Imbeddedness: the extent to which an attitude is imbedded as part of a person's network of attitudes.Scott (1968) points out that most attitude measurement has focused on the magnitude or intensity characteristics.

2.2.3   Motivation

Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. Motivation is what causes us to act, whether it is getting a

glass of water to reduce thirsty or reading a book to gain knowledge (Feather, 1982).

It involves the biological, emotional, social, and cognitive forces that activate behavior. In everyday usage, the term motivation is frequently used to describe why a person does something. For example, you might say that a student is so motivated to get into a clinical psychology program that she spends every night studying.

Some theories have been developed in an attempt to help our understanding ofmotivation. One such theory is called an expectancy x value theory. Feather(1982) developed this theory in which he advocates effort investment.Expectancy x value theory describes the value people put on goals and whateffort and behavior they use to achieve those goals. This explains that toachieve something successfully depends on exerting effort on doing the taskand valuing it (Barry & King, 1998). For example, a student who valueslearning will put energy into the necessary tasks to achieve it.

Psychologists have proposed a number of different theories of motivation, including drive theory, instinct theory, and humanistic theory.The study of motivation has been a prominent area for research in psychology and education for many years (Dornyei, 2001a). This interest may reflect the wide spread perception of classroom teachers who tend to regard student motivation as the most important factor in educational success in general (Dornyei, 2001b).

The literature on L2 motivation has two main streams. One stream consists of a series of studies based on Gardner's socioeducational model in which the role

of integrative motivation –comprised of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation– was experimentally investigated as a determinant of L2 attainment. The other stream calls for the implementation of a new "agenda" (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) for L2 motivation research, proposing a number of alternative models with an attempt to gain a more in-depth understanding of L2 learning motivation within mainstream education. While the former studies investigate causal relationships among possible individual-difference variables with various L2 achievement measures, the latter attempts to identify possible variables that could influence learners' motivations within the immediate L2 learning context.

1. **Gardner's Socioeducational Model of SLA**

The role of L2 learning motivation has been intensively studied by social psychologists in Canada, where French and English are the two official languages. Gardner (1985) hypothesized that L2 learners with positive attitudes toward the target culture and people will learn the target language more effectively than those who do not have such positive attitudes. In their earlier studies, Gardner and Lambert (1959) found that aptitude and motivation were the two factors most strongly associated with learners' L2 achievement. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) drew together the findings from many studies over several decades and developed Gardner's "socioeducational model of SLA".

Proponents of this model of SLA (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, 1993) claim that individual-difference variables (e.g. cognitive variables and affective variables), influenced by antecedent factors (i.e. biological factors such as age and

experiential factors such as previous language training experience), interact with both formal and informal language acquisition contexts and influence both linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes (i.e. students' reactions to the learning experience). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 9) argue that this model shows the importance of what takes place in the learning contexts: "Teachers, instructional aids, curricula, and the like clearly have an effect on what is learned and how students react to the experience". The model also predicts that students' degree of success (i.e. linguistic outcomes) affects their feelings (i.e. nonlinguistic outcomes and that both types of outcomes will have an influence on individual-difference variables including language attitudes and motivation.

A major concern to second or foreign language (L2) reserchers has been the role played by attitudinal or motivational factors in L2 learning. These factors are deep within the students' minds. Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researcher as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second or foreign language learning. The original impetus in second or foreign language (L2) motivation research comes from the social psychology since learning the language of another community simply cannot be separated from the learners' social dispositions towards the speech community in question.

Lambert (1963b) has proposeda 'social psychological model' in which he has emphasized cognitive factors such as language aptitudes and intelligence as well as affective factors such as attitudes and motivation. In his model, he proposes that the extent to which an individual successfully acquires a second language will depend upon ethnocentric tendencies, attitudes towards the other

community, orientation towards language learning and motivation. Another pioneer in this field, Gardner (1985), defines L2 motivation as "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity (1985: 10); more specifically, motivation is conceptualized to subsum three components, motivational intensity, deside to learn the language,and an attitude towards the act of learning the language. Motivation in Gardner's theory does not contain any integrative or instrumental elements. There exists an integrative or instrumental dichotomy in Gardner's model but this is at the orientation (i.e. goal) level,and as such,is not part of the core motivation component; rather, the two orientation function merely as motivational antecedents that help to arouse motivation and direct it towards a set of goals,either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative) or a strong practical quality (instrumental).

The level of the relationship between students'own cultural background and the background projected by the L2 culture often influences their attitudes toward L2 in particular and toward their motivation to learn it in general. In this respect, researchers such as (Lambert, 1990) distinguished between two major types of bilingualism: 'additive' and 'substractive'. In additive bilingualism, the learners feel that they are adding something new to their skills and experience by learning a new language, without taking anything away from what they already know.

In substractive bilingualism, on the other hand, they feel that learning a new language threatens what they already gain for themselves. Successful L2

learning takes place in additive situations; learners who see the second language as diminishing themselves will not succeed. However, learners show a strong identification with bilingual or trilingual identity.

The work of Gardner and Lambert seems to have laid the foundation stone for a large body of research. They distinguished between two major kinds of motivation that could be related to L2 learning: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation,on the other hand, reflects the learner's willingness or desire to be like a representative member of the other language community (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). It also reflects the learner's high level of effort to learn the language of a valued L2 community in order to communicate with the group. Moreover, integrative motivation reflects an interest in L2, a desire to learn the target language and an attitude toward the learning situation,and the target language community (Gardner, 1982).

Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is characterized by a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowing an L2 (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). It is also characterized by an interest in learning L2 for pragmatic and utilitarian benefits such as high salary, power, or career (Johnson, 2001). L2 motivation does not necessitate choosing either integrative or instrumental motivation. Both types are important. A learner might learn an L2 well with an integrative motivation or with an instrumental one, or indeed with both (Cook, 1991). Gardner (1985) hypothesized that L2 learners with positive attitudes toward the target culture and people will learn the target language more effectively than those who do not have such positive attitudes. In their earlier

studies, Gardner and Lambert (1959) found that aptitude and motivation were the two factors more strongly associated with learners L2 achievement. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) drew together the findings from many studies over several decades and developed Gardner's "socioeducational model of SLA" (see Figure).

Sociocultural Milieu

| Antecedent factors | Individual differences variables | Language acquisition context | Outcomes |

Intelligence

Language aptitude

Strategies

Formal

Biological
Experiential

Language attitudes

Linguist -ics

Motivation

Informal

Nonling uistics

Language anxiety
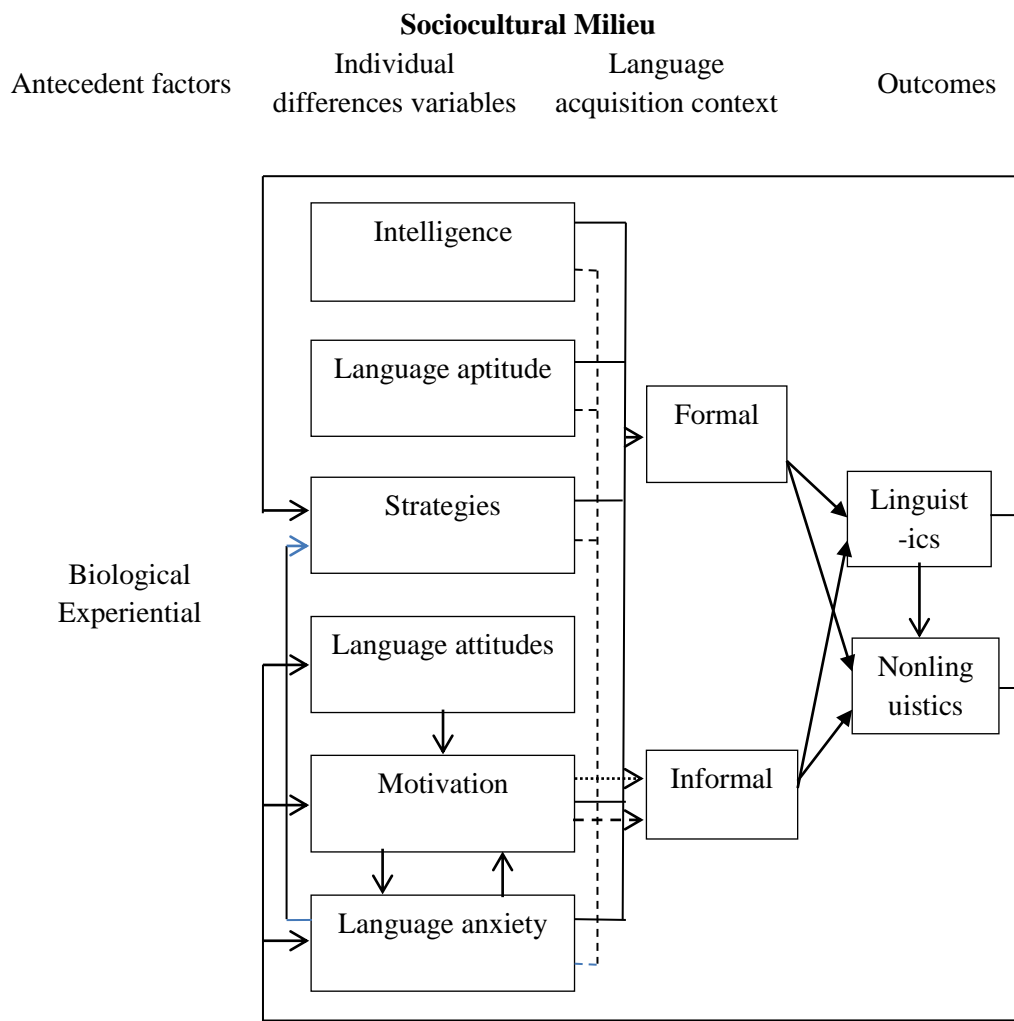
Figure 2.2Representation of Socioeducational Model of SLA(Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993)

Motivation in this model is defined as the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to learn the language

55

and the satisfaction experienced in this activity. A "motivated learner" is, therefore, defined as one who is: a) eager to learn the language, b) willing to expend effort on the learning activity, and c) willing to sustain the learning activity (Gardner, 1985: 10). Motivation plays a significant role in this model in three ways. First, it mediates any relation between language attitudes and language achievement. Second,it has a causal relationship with language anxiety. Third, it has a direct role in the informal learning context, showing the voluntary nature of the motivated learners' participation in informal L2 learning contexts. In his current model, Gardner (2000) focuses on motivation and language aptitude as the two most influential determinants of language achievement and shows how integrative motivation affects language achievement (see Figure 2.4). Moreover, this model predicts that the L2 learning situation could affect learners' attitudes and motivation.
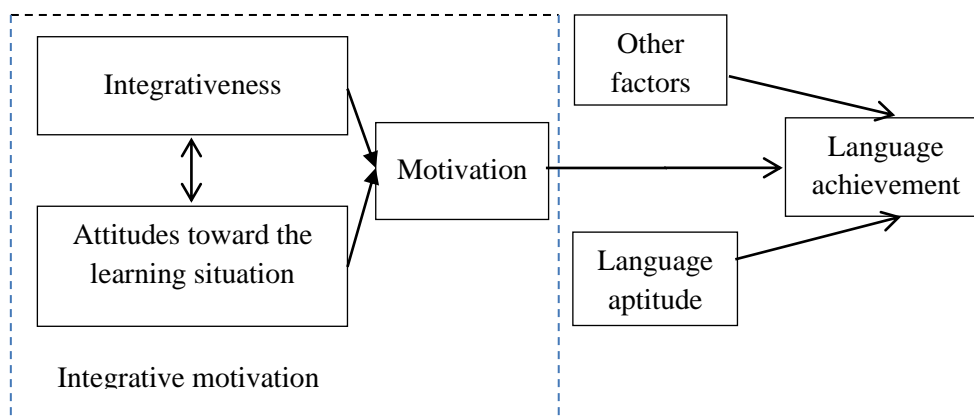
Figure 2.3 The Role of Aptitude and Motivation in L2 Learning (Gardner, 2000)

Studies of motivation and attitudes have also shown the connection of the factors listed above to persistence in language study (Bartley, 1970; Clement, Smythe, & Gardner, 1978; Ramage, 1990) and also to learners' behavior in the language classroom (Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe, 1982). Based on these empirical reports, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) argue for the importance of the sociocultural context in studies of motivation. As Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) mention, it seems reasonable to conclude that motivation plays a primary role in L2 learning, while other attributes such as the context of L2 acquisition play supporting roles on various levels.

Crookes and Schmidt claim that motivation is more complex and cannot be measured by a one-shot questionnaire because motivation changes due to a number of environmental factors in addition to integrativeness. Dornyei (2001a: 105) claims that a more "educational orientation in L2 motivation research" is needed. The common belief underlying such an educational movement seems to be a focus on motivational sources closely related to the learner's immediate learning situation rather than their overall attitudes toward the target culture (i.e. integrativeness). In contrast to Gardner's (1985: 169) claim that 'the sources of the motivating impetus is relatively unimportant provided that motivation is aroused," these reformists value the importance of identifying motivational factors within the learning situation to find ways to motivate students (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Dornyei (1994) claims that L2 motivation is an eclectic, multifaceted construct; thus,it needs to include different levels to integrate the various components. Adopting Crookes and Schmidt's approach (1991), Dornyei found it

useful to separate L2 motivation into three motivational components (i.e. motives and motivational conditions): a) language level, b) learner level, and c) learning situation level. Language level consists of Integrative Motivational Subsystem and Instrumental Motivational Subsystem.The components of Learner Level are Need for Achievement and Self–Confidence. Self-Confidence consists of Language Use Anxiety, Perceived L2 Competence,Causal Attributions, and Self-Efficacy. Meanwhile Learning Situation Level is a) Course-specific Motivational Components that consists of Interest, Relevance,Expectancy,and Satisfaction.b)Teacher-specific Motivational Components consists of Affiliative Motive, Authority Type and Direct Socialization of Motivation. The components of Direct Socialization of Motivation are Modelling,Task Presentation and Feedback. The last is Group-specific Motivational Components consists of Goal Orientedness, Norm and Reward System, Group Cohesion and Classroom Goal Structure.

Language level focuses on orientations and motives related to various aspects of the L2 such as the target culture and the potential usefulness of L2 proficieny. Learner level concerns affects and cognitions underlying the motivational processes. Learning situation level consists of intrinsic and extrinsic motives, plus motivational conditions concerning three areas: a) course-specific components, b) teacher-specific components,and c) group –specific components. This model can be a useful framework not only for researchers and teachers to identify motivational sources but also to develop motivational strategies.

2.Components of Motivation

There are three major components to motivation: activation, persistence, and intensity. Activation involves the decision to initiate a behavior, such as enrolling in a psychology class. Persistence is the continued effort toward a goal even though obstacles may exist, such as taking more psychology courses in order to earn a degree although it requires a significant investment of time, energy and resources. Finally, intensity can be seen in the concentration and vigor that goes into pursuing a goal. For example, one student might coast by without much effort, while another student will study regularly, participate in discussions and take advantage of research opportunities outside of class.

3.Types of Motivation

There are two types of motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic. Banks (2005: 270)explains that extrinsic motivation is the idea that all behaviour is the result ofsome type of external reinforcement. For this, students work hard and learn inclass because there is a reward in store. A reward can be a prize, higher marks,a commendationfrom the teacher, recognition from other students and so on(Cohen & Marion, 1983). Some students are motivated to learn in this way.This implies that if there is no reward, students who are less motivation to expandeffort and learning will take place at a superficial level.The other type is intrinsic motivation. With intrinsic motivation, students aremotivated to learn simply because they 'love' the intellectual activity involvedin gaining new knowledge and skills. Something inside them makes them havea strong desire to learn. External factors

are not the reason for their learning.Students who are motivated this way are willing to spend enormous amounts oftime and effort on a task and go through deep learning.Extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors also apply to adult learners. Withextrinsic motivation, adults are motivated to learn because of getting apromotion, receiving a higher salary, acquiring a higher qualification, ortransferring out of a current job and venturing into a new domain that isanticipated to give greater rewards or better conditions. For example, an adultlearner, who intends to leave a salaried position to pursue self-employment,might be motivated to engage in studies that provide the necessary knowledgeand skills to run a successful and profitable business.

On the other hand, intrinsic motivation applies to adult where they develophigh 'self-esteem' (Biech, 2004). For adults who have an intrinsic motivationto learn, the task of learning becomes a joyful and exciting experience. Peoplewith intrinsic motivation are more likely to be independent learners and lessreliant on the teacher for further help than people who are motivated to learn byextrinsic factors.

Motivation is a key force in understanding adult learning. Motivation is inherent in humans and is thedriving force for people to behave in certain ways to achieve objectives. Theexpectancy x value theory (Feather 1982) proposed that adult learners aremotivated when they see value in doing something which drives them to exertthe effort to achieve the expected outcome. Two types of motivation areextrinsic and intrinsic. With extrinsic motivation, learners are motivated tolearn to achieve rewards or avoid punitive actions. With intrinsic

motivation,learners are motivated to learn because of the personal satisfaction gained fromacquiring new knowledge or skill. Knowles (1984) identified five factors that distinguish andragogy (adultlearning) from pedagogy (children's learning). These factors were, as peoplemature, they a) become self-directed learners, b) bring a wealth of experienceto learning, c) have a readiness to learn according to their roles in society, d)like to engage in a problem-based learning, and e) become more internallymotivated to learn. Two models of adult learning were presented: theexpectancy-valence model (Vroom, 1964) and the force-field-analysis model(Lewin, 1951). The assumption of the expectancy-valence model was thatlearners' motivation would increase if they felt that their expectations andvalues were being met. The basis of the force-field-analysis model was thatpositive and negative forces exist in the mind-set of learners and the push andpull effect of the forces will affect a learner's motivation to learn about thingsthat require changes in their thinking or practices.In some contexts, it was suggested (Brookfield, 1983) that adults are morefocused on learning in non-credit, non-academic, vocational or recreationalfields. However, it was also argued that both male and female adults activelyparticipate in professional upgrading programs when they have the opportunityor are sufficiently motivated, and can afford the fees or be sponsored.

Different types of motivation are frequently described as being either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivations are those that arise from outside of the individual and often involve rewards such as trophies, money, social recognition or praise. Intrinsic motivations are those that arise from within the individual,

such as doing a complicated cross-word puzzle purely for the personal gratification of solving a problem.Motivation is the push or pull that stimulates people to act and excel. It unlocks the door to quality performance in any situation: on the job, in a leisure activity, as well as in personal and social life.

4.Motivation and Adult Learning

To understand other issues related to motivation, you cannot go past knowingwhat it is. Motivation is an influence or a stimulus. This stimulus, whatever itmight be, drives people towards the achievement of something in their lives.People's efforts are expanded on a given task in which their behaviorsimultaneously changes towards reaching the goal.Motivation is hard to understand (Arends, 1994). The fact is that people aremotivated to learn in varied ways (Vallance & Mansfield, 2004). Some peopleare motivated by extrinsic factors while others are motivated by intrinsicfactors. No two humans are motivated in identical ways. Nevertheless, thisconcern can be demystified to some degree.Learning without understanding the effect of motivation is a recipe for disaster.McKeachie (1978: 221) points out that teachers need to understandmotivation first before they engage students in learning in order to facilitateeffective learning. For example, if teachers are aware of factors that influencestudents' learning, this will help them to prepare their lessons and delivery in amanner that brings out maximum output or learning.

2.2.4   Self–Concept

Self-concept, as the perception each person has of himself or herself, is a component of personality development.One position, held by Lecky (2000), is

that self-consistency is so necessary as to be the prime motivator of all behaviour. Thus, a child who comes to school with a preconceived notion of himself as a dumbbell, a bully or a brain, will resist any attempts to change his self–perception and tend to deny facts which contradict it.

Another position, commonly assumed by school people, is that children have varying levels of self-concept, which in turn affect their performance in school. This self-concept is seen in more general terms, and we frequently hear such a comment as "If only we can help him to achieve a better self-concept, then this or that problem will be solved."

These two positions are not entirely consistent. Both imply a view which a person holds of himself, in terms of his adequacies and inadequacies; in terms of his values; and in terms of his desires. The first position also implies that some sort of balance has been achieved which can only be upset at the cost of extreme anxiety, and therefore which tends to remain relatively constant. This resistance to change further implies that the person, looking at himself, accepts what he sees, at least well enough to be able to live with himself.

The concern with levels of self-concept, on the other hand, implies a dissatisfaction with the self-picture which does not, however, motivate an attempt to change because of fear of failure. There is evidence to support both of these positions, and it seems likely that a more comprehensive and inclusive theoretical statement is needed to account for the empirical data collected thus far. Be that as it may, what relationship do we see between a student's self-picture and his performance in school?

Self–concept can be defined as "a person's sense of self shaped through interaction with the environment and other people (Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton, 1976). A positive self-concept is regarded as important for good mental health, improving academic achievement (Chapman, Tunmer, Prochnow, 2000; Guay, Marsh, Boivin, 2003), protecting against becoming a victim of bullying (Marsh, Parada, Craven, Finger, 2004), and is seen as a key aim of education. According to Belmore & Cillessen, 2006, self-concept is the perception that individuals have of their own worth. This includes a composite of their feelings, a generalized view of their social acceptance, and their personal feelings about themselves. Self–concept develops as a result of ones experiences with the environment and ones evaluations of these experiences. Additionally, opinions of significant others, casual attributions, and concrete feedback play a crusial role in the process of self-concept development (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). The formative middle-school years of a child's life are an important time for the child to develop a positive self-concept. Self-concept is important because it contributes to many different facets of a person's life, from childhood to adulthood.While Eccles, O' Neill, & Wigfield(2005) state that

> Self-concept is an individual's general composite or collective view of him or herself across multidimensional sets of domain specific perceptions, based on self-knowledge and evalution of value or worth of one's own capabilities formed through experiences with and interpretations of the environment. People's self-concept will address a more factual side of their life, such as knowing what they enjoy or how they tend to think.

The importance for researchers to clearly define self-concepts cannot be overemphasized. As seen with Elbaum and Vaughn (2001), the convenience of conglomerating the many facets of the self is tempting. Doing so makes

explanations easier, but also invalidates some results. When studying self-concept, it is important to acknowledge different facets of the construct. By narrowing the focus to a more concise topic, such as academic self-concept, a researcher has a better chance of measuring what is intended to be measured. A positive self-concept can lead to a fulfilling adulthood. Many different conditions can affect how students develop their self-concept. He describes this as the big-fish-little-pond effect (BFLPE). If the average ability of classmate is high, equally able students most likely will have a more negative academicself-concept. However, if the average in a given student's class is low, then he or she is more likely to have a positive academic self-concept. This academic self-concept is very important during a child's middle school years because much of a child's daily interaction is related to school. Once these academic self-concepts have been established, it can be difficult to alter them. Chapman, Tunmer, and Prochnow (2000) showed in a longitudinal study that when students develop a negative academic self-concept, their academic skills suffer. Specifically, they found that students with a negative academic self-concept had poorer phonological sensitivity skills and read at lower reading levels than children with typical academic self-concept. Long-term, these negative self-concept inhibit students' learning capacity by setting artificial academic seilings. Negative experiences during these influential years can potentially set a student back for the rest of his or her life. When adolescents have a strong self-concept, they are able to better position themselves for learning, and this in turn can facilitate a strong academic self-concept (Shavelson et al,1976) (Trautwein et al, 2006).

Academic self-concept is referred to as a person's self-evaluation regarding specific academic domains or abilities (Trautwein, et al, 2006). In other words, academic self-concept is how students do school work or feel about themselves as learners (Guay, 2003; Harter, 1998). Academic self-concept studies were pioneered when Shavelson, et al (1976) developed a multifaceted hierarchical model of self-concept in which they divided the self-concept into academic and non-cademic self-concepts (Marsh & Parker, 1984; Shavelson, et al, 1976). The construct of self-concept is derived from the self-worth theory (Peixoto, 2003). Self-concept is associated with a range of performance indicators (Peixoto, 2003; Jackson, et al, 2001). These include sets of characteristics, attributes, qualities and deficiencies, capacities and limits, or values and relationships that the subject knows to be descriptive of himselfor herself and which he or she perceives as data concerning his or her identity (Marchargo, 1991). Self-concept is also composed of the academic, social, emotional, and (academic, physical, and social) are organized in a hierarchical structure with the general self-concept at the field self-concept have also been directed towards academic self-concept and its development (Trautwein, et al, 2006; Marsh, et al, 2001; Tymms, 2001; Cheng, & Watkins, 2000). According to that research, it has been noted that as students grow older their academic self-concept becomes more stable (Guay, et al, 2003). In a study by Liu and Wang (2005), it was noted that academic self-concept tends to decline from early to mid adolescence and also extends to adulthood. Marsh (1989) explained that academic self-concepts reaches its lowest point in middle adolescence,but also, he found out through grades in

which their academic self-concept tends to rise in the direction of their academic achievement (Liu & Wang, 2005; Jacob, et al, 2002), whereas other studies highlight that it tends to become weaker (Marsh et al, 2002; Marsh & Yeung, 1997). It has been discovered that academic self-concept has a relationship with academic achievement (Awad, 2007; Tan & Yates, 2007; Marsh, 2004; Cokley, 2000). However, although various researchers concur with the academic self-concept's correlation with academic achievement, only a few studies have been done to highlight whether there is a difference in the subscales of academic self-concept on academic acheievement across gender, levels of study, and facilities in which the students study in the universities.

In several studies on gender differences in academic self-concept, it has been reported that males and females possess different beliefs about their academic competencies (Ireson, et al, 2001; Wigfield, et al, 2001; Marsh, 1989), with males showing higher academic self-concept than females (Kling, et al, 1999). Different studies have also posited that males tend to have higher academic self-perceptions in science courses while females have higher academic self-perceptions in non-science courses (Harter, 1999; Marsh, 1989). Jacob, et al (2002) highlighted that gender differences in academic self-perceptions start as early as elementary school and remain stable through adolescence to adulthood. In reference to this situation, most of the university students are adults whose academic self-concept can be highlighted in the same way. In a paper by Marsh (2006), he highlighted that small stereotype gender differences linearly decline in mean levels of academic self-concept with age and modest differentiation between

academic competencies. Also, this is the same situation in other groups defined by academic self-concept on academic achievement (Worrell, et al, 1999).

1.Self-Concept and Academic Achievement Theories

According to the theories of the development and models that explain academic self-concept and academic achievement, there has been no much proof of whether prior academic self-concept influences academic achievement or prior academic achievement causes subsequent academic self-concept. In the self-enhancement model, academic achievement is due to the consequence of academic self-concept. The skill-development model highlights that academic achievement influences academic self-concept (Marsh, 2006; Marsh, et al, 2002; Marsh, et al, 1999). Lastly, according to Guay, et al (2003) both academic self-concept and academic achievement directly influence each other, that is, they are reciprocal. The debate among researchers concerning whether prior academic self-concept influences academic achievementorprior academic achievement results into subsequent academic self-concept has been considered an egg-chicken question (Marsh, et al, 2002).

The study of self-concept has awakened growing interest in psychological research of recent years. Despite the profusion of studies devoted to it, it is difficult to find an unanimous, accepted definition of the term self-concept, given that it has been approached from different theoretical perspectives. Nonetheless, there does exist agreement among the different authors in that the term self-concept has a multi-dimensional nature. Self-concept is considered to comprise various dimensions, areas or facets, some of which are more related to certain

personality aspects (physical, social, emotional), while the others appear to be more linked to academic achievement (in different areas and subjects).

Self-concept "is the set of perceptions or reference points that the subject has about himself; the set of characteristics, attributes, qualities and deficiencies, capacities and limits, values and relationships that the subjects know to be descriptive of himself and which he perceives as data concerning his identity' (Hamachek, 1981, quoted by Machargo, 1991: 24). It is the set of knowledge and attitudes that we have about ourselves, the perceptions that the individual assigns to himself and characteristics or attributes that we use to describe ourselves. It is understood to be fundamentally a descriptive assessment and has a cognitive nuance.

The importance of self-concept stems from its notable contribution to personality formation. In order to reach a common definition of self-concept, I opted to take the theoretical model and definition proposed by Shavelson, Hubner and Stanton (1976) as my reference. These authors define the term self-concept as the perception that each one has about himself, formed from experiences and relationships with the environment, where significant people play an important role.

Self-concept, as a component of human personality development, has its own nature and peculiarity. Several authors (Shavelson et al, 1976;quoted by Garma and Elexpuru, 1999) have tried to specify the nature of the term self-concept. To the end, they look at it as a compendium of seven characteristics or fundamental aspects: self-concept constitutes a pyschological dimension; it is

multidimensional; it has a hierarchical organization (a general self-concept and specific self-concept); it is stable, but as we go lower on the hierarchy, self-concept becomes more specific and more susceptible to change; the different facets of self-concept includes both descriptive as well as evaluative aspects; self-concept can be differentiated from other constructs which is related to, such as academic performance.

Some authors, like Harter (1986), make interesting contributions, such as the general or global self-concept will be determined by the degree of importance that we assign toeach of its specific components.If, when describing ourselves, our value judgments are satisfactory, then we obtain a positive global self-concept; in the opposite case we generate negative feelings and thus produce a negative global self-concept.

2.Does Self-Concept Relate to Learning Achievement?

Several studies examined how self-concept relates to school achievement. Reader found, for example, that children achieve lower in terms of their potential if they have a low self-concept.

Coopersmith found a similar resultunder certain circumstances. Walsh reported that bright boys who are low achievers perceive themselves as defensive and limited in communication with their environment. Chickering, however, found no stable relationship between self discrepancy and school effort. Since this study involves actual ideal self discrepancy, it is interesting to note that achievement appears more closely related to the actual self than to the ideal,

whereas Coopersmith in Paul B. Campbell (1967) found that low self-concept is associated with high achievement when high achievement need (ideal self) is present. Berger found support for the hypothesis that college students who are willing to accept their limitations perform better academically than those who have a lower willingness. This finding lends support to the position on self-actualization taken by Rogers and by Maslow.

Four relatively recent (1958 to 1962) studies concerning elementary school children are those of Smock, Hamachek, Eubank and Peppin. Three of these four deals at some points with the relationship between self-concept and school achievement. The remaining one, that of Smock, is more general. His findings relating to the present considerations are those themselves are more rigid and more constricted in their environmental perceptions.

Hamachek identified whathe calls "high status" children on the basis of measures of reading age, mental age, and education age. These children were above the mean on each of the previously mentioned measures. Using techniques devised by Rogers, he inferred self-concept levels for them, and found these levels to be higher in achievement and intellectual categories than those of children not so classified.

Eubank, however, reported a study with fourth and sixth grade children in which no significant differences were found between the means of intelligence and achievement score for high and low self-concept groups. She used the Bills-Lipsitt Self-Concept Scale and nationally standardized achievement and intelligence tests. The children in this study were those whose inferred self-

concept differed markedly from that predicted by their teachers. She also reported that parents tend to agree with the teacher's prediction when the child's inferred self-concept is low, and to disagree when the inferred self-concept is high.

Peppin in Paul (1967) studied over–and-under-achievers in relation to three aspects: self-concept, parental understanding, and parental acceptance. He used the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale. Each student rated himself and was rated by his peers. Self-concept level was inferred from the direction of discrepancy between the subject's self-rating and his rating by peers. Peppin reported that over-achievers tend to rate themselves more highly than under-achievers.

Another major study, undertaken by Brookover et al, explored the relationship between school achievement and self-concept of ability for junior high school students.Self-concept of ability is defined by Brookover as the perception a student has of his ability to achieve generally in school, and in specific school subjects. As such, it is a specialized conceptualization of the more general term.

Although there is conflict, the weight of the evidence suggests that self-concept, as measured by these several independent researchers, does make a difference. It appears that, as we might reasonably expert, there are many facets of self-concept. Very probably, there are varying levels of each facet. Unless the teacher is interested in self-concept as a theoretical construct, and in a general experimental sense, he would probably be more effective in dealing with students

by confining himself to the facet of self-concept which is specific to the problem at hand.

One must recognize, for example, that there are many stages in the development of any subject matter competency as well as in the development of a particular skill, such as reading or computation. To be able to show a student that he has successfully mastered even the first steps of a developmental task is likely to be much more effective than a verbal habit of saying a vague "that's good" about everything he does.

Walsh further recommends encouraging, exploration, recognizing defences, and encouraging emotional expression in socially acceptable and unharmful ways. Gowan also suggests several procedures for altering an undesirable self-concept. He emphasizes especially the necessity of picking the right time and place for the counsellor teacher to lay on the line his trust in the student, and thereby inspire the student to effort which, without this help, he would not attempt.

It is particularly important, according to Gowan, that such a move be attempted only when the chance of success is very good. Finally, there is need to continue to redefine and refine our understanding of the role of a person's self-picture in his behaviour. It cannot reasonably be ignored, nor can dealing with it be left to outside "experts". Teachers and counsellors must continue to use their own good judgement in dealing with students' feelings about themselves, realizing that a specific approach may possibly be harmful, but also that no approach at all, from anyone, will probably be more so.

3.Self-Concept and Performance

Educational psychology has been concerned with analyzing different types of relationship, both associative and predictive, that exist between self-concept and academic performance (Gonzalez-Pienda, et al, 2000). Despite the abundance of studies, however, there are no conclusive studies that clearly identify the direction of the link which joins these two variables. In results obtained, one perceives different extraneous variables that can alter the results to differing degrees (Nunes & Gonzales-Pienda, 1994). These authors indicate the need to differentiate four possible patterns or causal models between self-concept and academic performance.

a. Academic performance determines self-concept

Academic experiences of success or failure significantly affect the pupil's self-concept and self-image more than vice-versa, this being explained by the role of evaluation by significant others,or by the theory of social comparison (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Given that the influencing variable is academic performance, psycho-pedagogic interventions should give priority to modifying the students' level of achievement, since this will contribute to change the level of self-concept.

b. Levels of self-concept determine the degree of academic achievement.

Likewise for this causal relationship model, there are implications for applying important educational decisions. Given that self-concept is what determines levels of academic achievement, and self-concept in turn can be strongly influenced by contingencies provided by the pupil's significant others, among whom we must not underestimate teachers (Pygmalion principle), we can infer that it would be possible to increase levels of school performance by previously optimizing levels of self-concept and very specifically levels of perceived competence.

c.   The third model of causal relationship postulates that self-concept and academic performance mutually influence and determine each other.

d.   Other authors who support this model postulate the existence of additional variables that may be the cause of both self-concept and of academic performance among which we might find personal and environmental variables, academic, and non-academic variables.

In addition, the beneficial effects produced by a good level of self-concept have been substantiated. In studies (Hay, Ashman and Van-Kraayenoord, 1998) where subjects with a high self-concept were compared with other subjects with low self-concept, teacher reports show that they consider the high self-concept students as more popular, cooperative, persistent in classwork, with lower anxiety levels, more supportive families, and higher expectations of future success.

Although originally it used to be considered as a unidimensional construct, Shavelson, Hubner, and self-concept at the apex and then split into two broader domain: academic self-concept (e.g. verbal, science) and non-academic (e.g.

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social, emotional). Marsh and Shavelson (1985) further developed this model by splitting the academic portion into two specific domains: verbal self-concept and mathematic self-concept. Research has since documented the multidimensional nature and the domain specificity of self–concept in academic (Marsh, Yeung, 1997; Byrne, Gavin, 1996), art (Vispoel, 1995), and sport (Marsh, Hey, Roche, Perry, 1997) settings.

Academic self-concept refers to an individual knowledge and perception of his or her level of competence or ability within the academic realm (Bong, Shaalvik, 2003). Research has shown that one's level of academic self–concept can influence factors such as course selection, long term educational aspirations, educational attainment, academic attainment, and academic achievement (Marsh & Hau 2003, Guay, Marsh & Boivin 2003, Marsh, & Craven, 2006). For example, Phillips (1984) showed that among equally able students, those with a low academic self-concept were portrayed by their teachers as lacking in persistence. In addition, Marsh (1994) showed that the higher a student's academic self-concept, the more likely it was that a positive academic self-concept was associated with better educational outcomes. Interestingly, Marsh and colleagues (1995, 2004) have demonstrated that when highly successful students leave their regular academic settings and enter high ability settings, their self-concept declines. Self-concept refers to student perceptions of competence or adequacy in academic and nonacademic domains. According to Hattie (1992), self-concept or self knowledge contains effective, descriptive components and answer the question who am I. Mwamwenda (1995) added to the definition when he says that

self-concept is a person's way of perceiving himself or herself, which may be either positive or negative as a result or self-evaluation. According to Dembo (1994) as well as Biehler and Snowman (1997) the academic self-concept is how I see myself. It can be concluded tht self-concept is a broad construct that includes cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects.

Self-concept (also called self-construction, self-identity, or self-perspective) is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of"self" in relation to any number of characteristics, such as academics (and nonacademics), gender roles and sexuality, racial identity, and many others. Each of these characteristics is a research domain (i.e. Academic Self-Concept) within the larger spectrum of self-concept although no characteristic exist in isolation as one's self-concept is a collection of beliefs about oneself. While closely related to self-concept clarity (which "refers to the extent to which self-knowledge is clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable),it presupposes but it is distinguishable from self-awareness, which is simply an individual's awareness of themselves. It is also more general than self-esteem, which has a function of the purely evaluative element of the self-concept.

The self-concept is an internal model which comprises self-assessments. Features assessed include but are not limited to: personality, skills and abilities, occupation(s) and hobbies, physical characteristics, etc. For example, the statement "I am lazy" is a self-assessment that contributes to the self-concept. However, the statement "I am tired" would not be part of someone's self-concept,

since being tired is a temporary state and a more objective judgment. A person's self-concept may change with time as reassessment occurs, which in extreme cases can lead to identity crises.

Another model of self-concept contains three parts: self-esteem, stability, and self-efficacy. Self-esteem is the "evaluative" component—it is where one makes judgments about his or her self-worth. Stability refers to the organization and continuity of one's self-concept. Is it constantly in flux? Can singular, relatively trivial events drastically affect your self-esteem? The third element, self-efficacy, is best explained as self-confidence. It is specifically connected with one's abilities, unlike self-esteem.

Researchers debate when self-concept development begins but agree on the importance of person's life. Tiedemann (2000) indicates that parents' gender stereotypes and expectations for their children impact children's understandings of themselves by approximately age 3. Others suggest that self-concept develops later, around age 7 or 8, as children are developed mentally prepared to begin interpreting their own feelings, abilities, and interpretations of feedback they receive from parents, teachers, and peers about themselves. Despite differing opinions about the onset of self-concept development, researchers agree on the importance of one's self-concept, influencing people's behaviours and cognitive and emotional outcomes including (but not limited to) academic achievement, levels of happiness, anxiety, social integration, self-esteem, and life-satisfaction.

Furthermore, the self-concept is not restricted to the present. It includes past selves and future selves. Future or possible selves represent individuals' ideas

of what they might become, what they would like to become, or what they are afraid of becoming. They correspond to hopes, fears, standards, goals, and threats. Possible selves may function as incentives for future behavior and they also provide an evaluative and interpretive context for the current view of self.

The perception that people have about their past or future selves is related to the perception of their current self. Temporal self-appraisal theory argues that people have a tendency to maintain a positive evaluation of the current self by distancing negative selves and bringing close positive selves. In addition, people have a tendency to perceive the past self less favourably (e.g., I'm better than I used to be) and the future self more positively (e.g. I will be better than I am now).

Global self-concept refers to the overall extent to which one values oneself; however, individuals may also hold more differentiated beliefs in specific domains of functioning (Harter, 1996). For example is a student's self-evaluation in the social domain. Whereas global conceptions of self remain fairly stable (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982), domain-specific conceptions can be influenced by contextual experiences and by significant others. In general, sociability is a preference for being in the company of others versus being alone (Cheek & Buss, 1981) and is based on the extent to which a student prefers to have many social relationships (Mounts, Valentine, Anderson & Boswell, 2009). Even within the context of adolescence, when peer relations become increasingly important, sociability self-concept appears to vary across individuals (Bokhorst, Sumter, & Westenberg, 2010). In this study, sociability self-concept refers to a student's

social predisposition. Thus, a student low in sociability self-concept would prefer more social distance, while a student high in sociability self-concept would tend to seek and encourage many close social interactions.There are various points of view about self-concept and how it relates to a student's performance in school.

2.2.5 Interest

Interest is the feeling of a person whose attention, concern, or curiosity is particularly engaged by something.According to Oxford dictionary, interest is a noun (n). The meanings of interest are:1) "Desire to learn or know about somebody or something, 2) Quality that attracts attention curiousity, 3) Activity or subjects with you enjoy doing or learning about."

According to those meaning above, it can be concluded that student's interest to acquiring grammar lesson is how much student's desire and curiosity in following English grammar lesson, and is the student feels enjoy enough when he or she is taught the lesson.Interest is a centralization of attention not intentionally that is born with fully will, interest taste, willing, and delight. Slameto**,** declares that *interest* is a feeling to like and interested at one particular matter or activity without somebody orders. According to him, interest intrinsically is acceptance of relation between someone, him or her self, with something outside him or her self. Stronger or closer to those relation, so greater is the interest.Then, researcher gets conclusion from several definitions above, that interest is a special attention towards a certain matter that is created fully will and depending on talent and the

environment. Interest can be said as strong push for somebody to do everything to realize aim achievement that be the willing.

Interest and motivation theorist said that interest can appear from individual interaction with the environment. According to this reference situation of the environment, it is pleasant or not, has a strong effect to build a person's willing to do an activity. Of course, with the joyful and comfortable environment will be able to make some one's interest higher to do an activity than in the contrary. Then Schiefele (1991) said that interest researches had distinguished with two concepts, individual interest and situational interest.

1.Concepts of Interest

Colloquially, being interested in something can mean that we care about it, that it is important to us, and that we have (mostly) positive feelings towards it. We often say things like "I'm interested in the well-being of my child," "I'm interested in playing football this fall," and "I have a research interest in social psychology." However, interest can also be more fleeting,such as when we see an interesting TV program, or an unexpected noise arouses our curiosity. John Dewey once described interest as "being engaged, engrossed, or entirely taken up with an activity, object, or topic (Dewey, 1913: 17). More contemporary interest theorists have divided interest into two components: individual interest and situational interest (Hidi & Baird, 1988; Renninger, 2000). Individual interest is more enduring, and trait–like, and endures over time. It can be considered a disposition that individuals take with them from one context to the next. In the

opening example, Sandy's interests with them from place to place. In contrast, situational interest is more momentary and situationally bound; in other words, it can be a specific reaction to something in a situation such as a funny video clip, humorous conversation, or colorful objects.

2. Types of Interest

a. Individual Interest

Individual interest is defined as an evaluative orientation that relatively stable at the certain areas, or more exactly at the specific classes of an object, event or idea. It is said stable, because this interest has a principal characteristic inside of somebody, or event it is the exclusive interest owned by every body. Individual interest has a personal meaning and sometimes it's associated with the high level of knowledge and value, positive emotion, and increase esteem value.

This interest that makes each person instinctively wants to develop and always advance to the highest level achievement of the life. Individual interest appear stable more in the children, although children also always in the process of consolidating, merging, and developing new interests.

b. Situational Interest

Different from individual interest that has a stable feature inside of the person; situational interest is more influenced from external factors. Because this interest itself is defined as an emotional situation brought by a situation stimuli. This interest sometimes appear in the attitude of a person when he or she is responding to a specific idea, object or event as a visual form expressed from internal locus of

the individual interest. This interest is inclined shorter and shallow than individual interest, and sometimes it is pushed with the specific features of an activity or task.

3.Indicators of Interest

In order to know how far is the students' interest will be improved, it's better to identify the indicator of interest itself. Students' interest can be observed from students' attitudes/behaviours to follow learning process in the class. If the students are interested in a course given from the teacher, they will show good/appropriate attitude as their responses to express what they feel. For example, listening to the teacher explanation seriously, follow teacher instructions and rules appropriately, rising hand to express his/her ideas, or order attitudes that supporting the class situation to conducive. Then researcher includes these as *Positive Responses.* While, if the students aren't interested with the class, they will show inappropriate attitude *(Negative Responses).*

There are some indicators of students' interest in learning a course as follows: a) Learning Experience is about experiences students have in a course we mean. It can be a students' learning achivements relating to the course.b) Having high emotional interest means a student who is interested in learning a course has high emotional attitude. For example; he is favourable to follow the lesson, always do his home work well. c)Topic of Conversation means what is a student talking about (discussing about) with adult or the same age people able give clues about his interest how strong is the interest. It means in the certain topic of discussion a student will show his interest and enthusiastic.d) Reading Book

means generally if a student is given delidecary to choose certain reading books, the student will choose an interesting reading book according to his talentand interest.e) Asking for questions means when in the teaching-learning process going on, a student is always active in asking for questions, and the questions are related to the course materialshave been teaching, it shows that the student has a high interest on the course/lesson.

While according to Slameto (2002), students who are interested in learning a course have characteristics as follows: a)Having a stable tendency to paying attention and memorizing object of study they have learned continuousl; b) Having glad feeling on something they are interested in; c)Getting a satisfaction and credit to on something they are interested in; d) Attracting on the activities they are interested in; e). Prefer on something they are interested in than the other things; f) Something that they are interested in will be manifested in activities and/or actions.

Those characteristics above are about the reason why students are interested in the lesson. But, in the other side researcher thinks that it's needed also to investigate students' bad feeling when they are facing the course, that might be will be showed from their attitudes or behaviours in the class. These are some troublesome students' behaviours which teacher often finds in the class that shows they are not interested in the lesson has been teaching namely: a) Talking and inattention, b)Unpreparedness, missed dead and tests, and fraudulent excuse making,c) Lateness and in attendance, d) Disturbing other students,e) Sleeping or other careless forms of the class conductivity.

Those negative behavior can be caused by some factors, such as the contingent or individual student situation and the structural of the course.

    1.   Contingent on individual student situation

Students can use some problematic attitudes in the class because of any situational issues, such as *health problem, personal or family problems, adjustment or developmental issues* (eg. immaturity or self-esteem issues), or *general academic difficulties.*

    2.   Structural to the course

Some of the unwanted students' behaviours can be caused by the teacher's policies or course structure. If we want *our*students act the appropriate attitudes, it's important for us as the teacher to acts more appropriate than them. It's the better way to give examples of good attitudes according to our each positions/capacity. The teachers must practice the active learning methods and make the class more fun to be followed, so that our students never feel boredom. Those criterions are the form of various students' interest indicators in acquiring the course. From those theories, researcher concludes indicator of students' interest in English class are as follows: a) Students get good mark (score) in English learning; b) Students are enthusiastic to follow English classes; c) Student's curiosity in learning English. This point can be applied by students to do activities that make their English skills developed. For example making use to read articles in magazine about English grammar, practicing his/her English language skills in his/her daily activities, watching English programs on TV, etc.; d) Student's responsibility in the class. This point can be seen from his/her

attitudes when he/she is taught in the class. Does he/she always attending class, paying attention, active to asking questions to the teacher when he/she doesn't know the material, active in discussion, informing his/her knowledge about English materials to his/her friends, doing home work, etc.; e)Student's intensity to show his/her troublesome behaviours in English class. When the student is not interested in the course, he/she will show troublesome behaviours/attitudes in the class more often than other students who are interested in the course.

4. The Importance of Interest

Interest is often thought of as a process that contributes to learning and achievement. That is, being interested in a topic is a mental resource that enhances learning, which then leads to better performance and achievement (Hidi, 1990). Indeed, research has demonstrated that both situational and individual interest promote attention, recall, task persistence, and effort (Ainley, Hidi, & Berndorff, 2002; Hidi, 1990; Hidi & Renninger, 2006). From this perspective, then, interest appears to play a very important role in learning and academic achievement.As important as interest is for performance and achievement, however, we believe that interest is critically important in its own right. Indeed, one of the primary goal of college education is to help students discover their true interests and chart a life course based on interests developed and nurtured in college. Thus interest may be viewed as essential with respect to adjustment and happiness in life. Relegating interest to the role of a mediator (i.e. a motivational process that is important only because it influences performance) misses the central importance of interest in our

lives. Researchers in positive and health psychology have demonstrated that happiness life satisfactions are important components of well-being (Lucas, 2007; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2007). Pursuing activities and topics that we find interesting play an important part in determining how fulfilled we are with our lives, and not doing so leaves us with a feeling of unease and discontent (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). We therefore endorse the perspective that interest is an important outcome, and we believe that it is a crucial component of success in academics, sports, or other areas of our lives (Harackiewicz, Durik, & Barron, 2005; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Maehr, 1989; Nicholls, 1979).

In our research, for example, we have found that both situational and individual interest can play a powerful role in predicting future choices and career paths. In two longitudinal studies, we followed college students from their first semester of their freshmen year through graduation (Harackiewicz, Durik, Barron, Linnenbrink, & Tauer, 2008; Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, & Elliot, 2002). We measured students' interest during an introductory psychology course taken during the first semester of their freshmen year. After 7 (seven) years, we measured the subsequent interest in psychology in two ways. We analyzed students' academic transcripts and counted the number of additional psychology courses that they took, and coded whether or not students chose to major in psychology. We found that the interest that students reported at the end of their first semester of introductory psychology predicted the number of additional psychology courses taken over the course of their academic career, as well aswhether or not they decided to major in psychology. Other researchers have

found similar results with middleand high-school students (Meece, Wigfield, & Eccles, 1990; Updegraff, Uccles, Barber, & O' Brien, 1996; Wigfield, 1994; Xiang, Chen, & Bruene, 2005). For example, Xiang et al. (2005) found that fourth-graders who were more interested in a school-based running program (i.e. "Road Runners") were more likely to spend their free-time engaged in running. Thus, interest in a topic or activity can have a powerful influence on people's lives, by impacting how they choose to spend their free time, and by influencing college course selections and major, as well as the trajectory of students' careers after college. When students enter into a classroom setting, they often adopt goals that are specific to that situation. They may want to get a good grade, impress their friends, meet new people, or learn something interesting. Achievement goal researchers have focused on two types of competence-related goals that individuals often adopt: mastery and performance goals (Ames, 1984; Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984). Mastery goals focus on doing better than others in the situation. These achievement goals have been further subdivided in terms of how individuals pursue mastery and normative excellence. Researchers (Elliot &McGregor, 2001; Pintrich, 2000) have found that individuals can pursue these two types of goals in one of two ways: by trying to attain the desired outcomes, such as learning as much as possible (mastery-approach) and doing better than others (performance-approach), or trying to avoid negative outcomes such as not learning the material (mastery-avoidance) or doing worse than others (performance-avoidance). As mentioned earlier, the goals that individuals choose to pursue in achievement settings provide purposes or reasons, for task

engagement, and serve to orient their attention and effort while engaged in the activity. Of particular relevance to interest development, a focus on task mastery and skill development may encourage the individual to explore all aspects of the task, master it and develop skills, and experience positive affect (Flum & Kaplan, 2006; Renninger, 2000).

5.How Does Interest Develop

A primary question in interesting research is how situational interest, such as that prompted by watching a movie about the Civil War, can develop into an enduring interest in a topic or activity, such as American History. Hidi & Renninger (2006) have recently outlined a model of interest development detailing the conditions under which situational interest can be transformed over time into individual interest. Their approach contains an element of classic Lewian social psychology in that interest develops as a function of both the person and the situation. In their model, it is the interaction between the person and the object that determines the extent of interest development. Thus, personal characteristics and social contexts both contribute to the experience of interest when engaging in an activity.

According to Hidi and Renninger, three factors contribute to the development of interest: knowledge, positive emotion, and personal value. As individuals learn more about a topic, they become more skilled and knowledgeable. An increase in knowledge can bring about positive affect as individuals feel more competent and skilled through task engagement. In addition, as they spend more time with the activity, they may find personal meaning and

relevance in the activity, such as when a high school student discovers that an understanding of biology can help her pursue her dream of becoming doctor. An individual's goals can also contribute to the development of interest by leading him or her to become more engaged in his or her learning, develop competence, and to further explore the topic. For example, Sandy's goals for basketball include becoming a starter on her high school team and playing in college. These goals encourage her to practice on her own, seek out coaches to help her improve her game, and try her best during practices and games. As she develops her competence, her knowledge increases and the positive affect she gets from playing volleyball also increases.The writer concludes there are several factors that influence students' interest.

Curran, J. M. and Rosen, D. E. tested some factors that according to them can influence students' attitude, which show students' interestand they found that there are four factors that have 77 percent attitude variations toward the course. Those are teacher, room, course topic, and the execution.

a. Teacher/Instructor

Teacher is the main factor that determines students' interest. Because the teacher is the person who rules the class situation, determines what the course topic is, and regulate how the course execution of the class that he/she will take.

b. The Room (Physical Environment)

The teacher/instructor is not the only factor that influences the students' interest and/or attitude in the class. There are some significant factors in addition to the instructor, also determining students' interest in the class that he/she may take.

One of them is the class (room) situation, or called as the physical environment. Of course, students will feel more comfortable put in the clean, neat, and not a stuffy room. Even, it doesn't close the possibility to take the class in open-air nature to create a fresh class, if it's needed. But this is not the main factor that will be involved in this research.

c. Course Topic

Different from classroom, course topic together with the instructor and course execution is one of the main factors that may be involved more in this research. It is happened, because the research will focus on the game (that is part of topic course and the execution), as a teaching-media to influence students interest. Only required course is included in the study. That is past tense grammar course. Researcher covers topics about which students will have a range of interests, from not being interested at all to the course topic being introductory to a major. The researcher points out that is the subject matter of a course influences students' interest relate to a course, then their level of interest must be acknowledged as a contributing factor on course evaluations.

d. Course Execution

Course execution is the very important factor to improve students' interest in our lesson we teach. This factor can't be separated from teacher/instructor factor, because teacher/instructor is the person who execute the course, and who determine the success of the course. The teachers have to plan their teaching strategy very well, and as certain that there is no technical mistakes will happen. Lesson planning is very important to make our course execution work

successfully. It is better for teacher to use some creative teaching methods to make students always interested in our lesson.

2.2.6   Personal Value

Personel values have been proposed to have a significant influence on decision-making (e.g. Rokeach, 1973). Specifically,it may be argued that an individual's values may propel him or her to behave in an ethical or unethical manner (Baird & Zelin, 2007). Personal values,although individualistic in nature, are largely influenced by societal and cultural factors and tend to vary across nations (Lan et al., 2009). Research indicates that personal values influence an individual's behavior and attitude, and this can at times conflict with the values held by collegues or organisations within which they work (e.g., Lan et al., 2009).

Personal values may be regarded as deep–seated, pervasive, core–beliefs or guiding principles that transcend specific situations to direct or propel human behavior in decision-making. This belief coincides with Rokeach's (1973: 5) definition of a value described as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence." Rokeach (1973) purported that values are central to an individual's thought processes,and therefore instrumental in the formation of attitudes and the execution of purposive behaviors in many circumstances or issues. It was further suggested that an individual's values are arranged or classified according to a value system which subsequently influences acceptable behavior responses.

Rokeach (1973) regarded values as abstract fundamental coordinators of behavior, and brought consensus to the field of social science research by showing the linkage between values and behavior (Cheng & Fleischmann, 2010).

In contrast, Scott's (1965) Personal Values Scale measured an individual's concept of ideal personal traits and investigated ideal relations among people. The personal values scale consists of 12 moral ideals of kindness, social skills, intellectualism, loyalty, academic achievement,physical development, status, honesty, religiousness, self- control, creativity, and independence. This current study used Scott's (1965) four subscales to measure personal values such as intellectualism, honesty, self-control and religiousness. Intellectualism may be defined as individuals having the capacity for understanding, thinking, and reasoning. Honesty can be defined as the condition of being trustworthy,genuine and, sincere. Self-control may be defined as the ability to exercise restraint or control over one's feelings, emotions and reactions. Religiousness is defined as the belief in worship of, or obedience to, a supernatural power or powers considered to be divine or to have control over human destiny. The Personal Values Scale is considered as an empirically-based inventory which suggests that value items are directly extracted from empirical data based on interviews, survey, or content analysis (Cheng & Fleischmann, 2010).

A personal value is absolute or relative ethical value, the assumption of which can be the basis for ethical action. A *value system* is a set of consistent values and measures. A *principle value* is a foundation upon which other values and measures of integrity are based. Those values which are not physiologically

determined and normally considered objective, such as a desire to avoid physical pain, seek pleasure, etc., are considered subjective, vary across individuals and cultures and are in many ways aligned with belief and belief systems. Types of values include ethical/moral value, doctrinal/ideological (religious, political) values, social values, and aesthetic values. It is debated whether some values which are not clearly physiologically determined are intrinsic such as altruism and whether some such as acquisitiveness should be valued as vices or virtues. Values have typically been studied in sociology, anthropology, social psychology, moral philosophy, and business ethics.

Values can be defined as broad preferences concerning appropriate courses of action or outcomes. As such, values reflect a person's sense of right and wrong or what "ought" to be. "Equal rights for all", "Excellence deserves admiration", and "People should be treated with respect and dignity" are representative of values. Values tend to influence attitudes and behavior. For example, if you value equal rights for all and you go to work for an organization that treats its managers much better than it does its workers, you may form the attitude that the company is an unfair place to work; consequently, you may not produce well or may perhaps leave the company. It is likely that if the company had a more egalitarian policy, your attitude and behaviors would have been more positive.

According to Morris Massey, values are formed during three significant periods: 1) Imprint period from birth to 7 years; 2) Modeling period from 8–13 years; 3) Socialization period from 13–21 years.

Personal Values provide an internal reference for what is good, beneficial, important, useful, beautiful, desirable, constructive, etc. Values generate behaviorand help solve common human problems for survival by comparative rankings of value, the results of which provide answers to questions of why people do what they do and in what order they choose to do them.

Over time the public expression of personal values, that groups of people find important in their day-to-day lives, lay the foundations of law, custom and tradition. Personal Values in this way exist in relation to cultural values, either in agreement with or divergent from prevailing norms.A culture is a social system that shares a set of common values, in which such values permit social expectations and collective understandings of the good, beautiful, constructive, etc. Without normative personal values, there would be no cultural reference against which to measure the virtue of individual values and so culture identity would disintegrate.

Wyatt Woodsmall points out that "'Criteria are used to refer to 'the standards on which an evaluation is based'." Values relate then to what one wants and in what order one wants them, criteria can only refer to the evidences for achieving values and act as a comparative standard that one applies in order to evaluate whether goals have been met/values satisfied.

Values are obtained in many different ways. The most important place for building values is a person's family. The family is responsible for teaching children what is right and wrong long before there are other influences. It is said that a child is a reflection of the parents. As a child starts school, school helps

some to shape the values of children. Then there is religion that the family introduces to a child that plays a role in teaching the right and wrong behaviors.

2.2.7 Current Understanding of Adult Learning(Andragogy)

Andragogy is about adult learning as opposed to pedagogy which focuses onchildren's learning. The theory of adult learning was developed by MalcolmKnowles (1984). For Knowles, andragogy was premised on at least four crucialassumptions, with a fifth one being added later, about the characteristics ofadult learners that are different from the assumptions about child learners, onwhich traditional pedagogy is premised.

    a. Self-concept: As people mature their self concept moves from one ofbeing a dependent personality toward one of being a self-directedhuman being.

    b. Experience: As people mature they accumulate a growing reservoir ofexperience that becomes an increasing resource for learning.

    c. Readiness to learn :As people mature their readiness to learn becomesoriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of their social roles.

    d. Orientation to learning :As people mature, their time perspectivechanges from one of postponed application of knowledge toimmediacy of application, and, accordingly their orientation, towardlearning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of problemcentredness.

    e. Motivation to learn: As people mature the motivation to learn is internal(Knowles 1984:12).

1.What Adults Learn

Research has shown that adults in many countries take up educational activities (Wolfgang & Dowling, 1981; Blair et al., 1995; Kasworm, 1993). Coker(2003) reported that adult black women, especially African Americans, wereundertaking study and learning at higher education levels. This is also true forwomen in Papua New Guinea who, although outnumbered by males,participate in both full-time and part-time studies in higher educationinstitutions.Brookfield (1983) found that the subjects adults take often differ from those informal schooling and were non-credit, non-academic, vocational, andrecreational courses. This is not a generalisation that applies to adult learnersaround the globe. Coker (2003) stated that adult African American women arenow taking degree programs, which are academic programs, at universities.This is also true for Papua New Guineans, where both male and female adultsactively participate in professional upgrading programs when they have theopportunity or are sufficiently motivated and can afford the fees or besponsored. What adults learn and their motivation for learning are impactedupon by different reasons and various influencing factors.Ramburuth and McCormick (2001:346) found that there is diversity in adultlearning styles after undertaking a study of international and Australianstudents. Smith (1992) points out that adults go through various methods oflearning such as group discussion, public lecture, correspondences, privateinstruction, and on-the-job learning.

The theory of adult learning is typically based on four assumptions (Jarvis,1987). One of which is adult is self-concept. This means adults need to

knowwhy they need to learn something (McKeachie, 1978). Second, adults bringwith them a wealth of experience which they utilize during learning process.For them, by sharing an experience relative to a subject lesson, this motivatesthem and other learners to learn. Galbraith & Fouch (2007:37) highlight thatadults benefit from reflecting and sharing insights with other students. Third,adult are ready to learn. This is in situation where they are most interested inlearning subjects that have immediate relevance to their job or personal life.

Fourth, adult learning is problem-centered rather than content-oriented(orientation to learning). Adults need to be given tasks or problems for whichthey could work around to solve. This motivates them to work through therebylearning takes place. The fifth assumption that was added later is that as aperson matures their motivation to learn is intrinsic rather than extrinsic.

2.Patterns of Adult Learning

There are patterns of adult learning. Adults tend to slow down physically inlearning. For example, after leaving school many people cease to take an activepart in formal learning. Their intelligence quotient (IQ) remains the same for along time. Foley (1995:21) confirms that intelligence does not decline withchronological age, but relatively late in life the learning styles of older adultschange. Brookfield (1986:31) points out that during their life-span, adultlearners learn in different ways, at different times and for different purposes.They go into deep learning as opposed to surface learning. They move through the life-cycle where their personality matures along the different phases.

3.Models of Adult Learning

The literature reveals various models of adult learning of which two will bediscussed here namely the expectancy–valence model and the force-field analysismodel.Expectancy–valence is one model that applies to adult learning. This theorywas proposed by Victor Vroom (1964) and has two elements, expectancy andvalence. Expectancy relates to different expectations and levels of confidenceadults have about what they are capable of doing. The challenge for teachers isto discern the needs of the adult learners in order to provide appropriateresources and training to meet expectations. Valence refers to the emotionalorientations people hold with respect to rewards. The depth of the want of anadult for extrinsic (qualification, promotion) or intrinsic (satisfaction) rewards.The challenge for teachers is to discover what the adult learners value andprovide for this in their course delivery. The assumption is that learners'motivation will increase if they feel their expectations and values are beingmet.

Force-field-analysis is another model. This model was developed by KurtLewin (1951) who is often called the 'grandfather of behavioral sciences' forhis research on, and insights about, how people make changes in their lives.Lewin suggested that if learning was directed at bringing change to learners'lives or ways of thinking, teachers need to first concentrate on what thelearners were most comfortable with. He visualised adult learners functioningwithin a force field that was full of both positive and negative forces. Some ofthe forces would be supportive of change and some would be to leave

thingsjust the way they were. For example, as teachers in Indonesia are being taught aboutchanging to an outcomes based approach to education, there will be bothdriving forces and restraining forces affecting theirmotivation to adopt the ideas for changing. The person who is trying to facilitatechange can conduct a force-field-analysis to determine what positive andnegative forces are pressing on the adult learners. Positive forces need tooutweigh negative forces for learners to be sufficiently motivated to considerthe ideas for change. If negative forces outweigh positive forces, learners willnot be motivated to consider the ideas for change.

4.Application of Adult Learning in Indonesia

One of Knowles' assumptions (1984) is that adults know what they need tolearn. They select to learn what is relevant and applicable to their situation. Inthis process, they go about collecting, analysing, and matching the course totheir requirements before deciding to attend the training program. Boulton-Lewis et al. (1996:90) argue that this is not always the case.In Indonesia, choice is often affected by whether the adult learners are selfsponsoring their studies or whether they are being sponsored. If adult learnerscan pay for their own learning (self-sponsored) they will obviously have theliberty to decide what course they will apply for, where they will study andwhether to be full-time or part-time students. However, if the adult learners aresponsored by their employer to undertake a training program, they do not get tochoose what course they will take or where they will study training, but therelevant authority in their organization

makes that decision for them. Anotheralternative is where adult learners apply for a scholarship from a sponsoringagency. In that case they may be able to choose what program they want totake (for example, at diploma, bachelor, masters or doctoral level) and theinstitution they would like to attend.It is argued that adult learners who self-sponsor their studies are highlymotivated to successfully complete their studies; otherwise the money theyspend on fees would be wasted. This is not to imply that sponsored students arenot also highly motivated. However, the degree of motivation could varysignificantly depending on whether the sponsored adult learners are driven byextrinsic or intrinsic factors.

Examples of extrinsic influences could be if anemployer indicated that a promotion or higher salary might result fromsponsored studies or whether there would be punitive measures such asrefunding the cost of fees should the sponsored employee withdraw. Examplesof intrinsic influences could be if the sponsored student truly valued theopportunity and felt it was a privilege to be selected for further study. Thatcould prove to be sufficient incentive for the adult learner to be highlymotivated. On the other hand, sponsored adult learners may have lowmotivation if the training was not one they would choose and they were simplyparticipating because the opportunity was there.

   − **Adults are responsible for own learning**

An assumption of Knowles (1984) is that adults are responsible for their ownlearning. While parents often feel accountable for learning success of failure ofchildren, this is not so for adult learners.

   − **Adults bring experiences for learning**

Adults do bring a wealth of life and workplace experiences to the classroom.Adult learners who share their experiences freely with other students in thelearning situation enrich discussions by contributing real-life examples.However, some students are reticent or reluctant to share, despite encouragement from the lecturer. Whether or not adult learners verbalize their experiences in a learning context,they undoubtedly have life or workplace experiences to which the learningmatter can be related. For example, in another class I facilitated for a budgeting topic, although only a minority of the students had budgeting roles in theirworkplaces, they could all appreciate concepts of income, expenditure, savings,needs, wants and priorities from managing their personal incomes.

– **Adults learn what they need to know**

It is quite true that adults are strongly motivated to learn what they need tolearn. One can easily imagine that if an adult needed to use a mobile telephone,a computer or internet services, they would be motivated to exert the time andeffort needed to gain the necessary knowledge to master the skills. If someone needed to learn how to drive a vehicle or change a flat tyre, the motivation would be there to learn what they needed to become competent.Obviously some topics in a formal program of study will be more relevant thanothers to individual students in a group and consequently the motivation and participation could vary according to the relevance of topics to learners' needs.As a case on point, a group of students recently participated in learning aboutperformance appraisal and time management. There was active participation bythe adult learners during the time spent on the time management topic as thishad relevance to both workplace and

everyday activities. However, with the same group of students, there was less active participation during the time spent on performance appraisal as not all of them were supervisors and thetopic had minimal relevance to everyday activities outside of work.

5.The Learner–Centered Approach for Adult Learners

Beginning in 1990, the American Psychological Association (APA) appointted a Task Force on Psychology in Education, one of whose purposes was to integrate research and theory from psychology and education in order to surface general principles that have stood the test of time and can provide a framework for school redesign and reform. The result was a document (Learner–Centered Psychological Principles) that originally specified 12 fundamental principles about learners and learning that, taken together, provide an integrated perspective on factors influencing learning for all learners (APA Task Force on Psychology in Education, 1993). This document, as revised in 1997 (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997), now includes 14 principles, with attention focused on those principles dealing with diversity and standards. The purpose of these learner–centered psychological principles is to provide a framework to guide educational reform and school redesign efforts (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997).

The 14 learner–centered principles are categorized into four research–validated domains shown in table 1 below. Domains important to learning represent metacognitive and cognitive, affective and motivational, developmental

and social, and individual–differences factors. These domains and the principles within them provide a framework for designing learner–centered practices at all levels of schooling, including distance learning. They also define what it means to be "learner–centered" from a research validated perspective.

The four research–validated domains and the associated principles provide a framework for practices that are learner–centered. From an integrated and holistic look at the Principles.The following definition emerges:

"Learner centered" is the perspective that couples a focus on individual learner–their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs–with a focus on learning–the best available knowledge about learning and how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners. This dual focus then informs and drives educational decision making. Learner–centered is a reflection in practice of the Learner–Centered Psychological Principles–in the programs, practices, policies, and people that support learning for all (McCombs & Whisler, 1997: 9).

This definition confirms that the Principles apply to all learners, in and outside of school, young and old. Research with learner–centered self–assessment tools based on the Principles for teachers and students from K–12 and college classroom confirms that what defines "learner–centeredness" is not solely a function of particular instructional practices or programs (McCombs & Lauer, 1997; McCombs & Whisler, 1997). Learner–centeredness is a complex interaction of the programs, practices, policies, and peoples as perceived by the individual

learners (McCombs, 2000b). The learner–centered principles become foundation in determining methods for using and evaluating programs and practices that provide instruction, curricula, and personnel to enhance the teaching and learning process.

6. Learner–Centered Psychological Principles

a. Cognitive and Metacognitive Factors

Principle 1: Nature of learning process. The learning of complex subject matter is most effective when it is an intentional process of constructing meaning from information and experience.

Principle 2: Goals of the learning process. The successful learner, over time and with support and instructional guidance, can create meaningful, coherent representations of knowledge.

Principle 3: Construction of knowledge. The successful learner can link new information with existing knowledge in meaningful ways.

Principle 4: Strategic thinking. The successful learner can create and use a repertoire of thinking and reasoning strategies to achieve complex learning goals.

Principle 5: Thinking about thinking. Higher order strategies for selecting and monitoring mental operations facilitate creative and critical thinking.

Principle 6: Context of learning. Learning is influenced by environmental factors, including culture, technology, and instructional practices.

b. Motivational and Affective Factors

Principle 7: Motivational and emotional influences on learning. What and how much is learned is influenced by the learner's motivation. Motivation to learn, in

turn, is influenced by the individual's emotional states, beliefs, interests and goals, and habits of thinking.

Principle 8: Intrinsic motivation to learn. The learner's creativity, higher order thinking, and natural curiosity all contribute to motivation to learn. Intrinsic motivation is stimulated by tasks of optimal novelty and difficulty, relevant to personal interests, and providing for personal choice and control.

Principle 9: Effects of motivation on effort. Acquisition of complex knowledge and skills requires extended learner effort and guided practice. Without learners' motivation to learn, the willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion.

- Support exploration of meaning in a context where learner feels accepted, safe, challenged but not threatened, and encouraged to take risks (Combs, 1976).

- Use Socratic questioning to probe learning that occurs, as well as ongoing feedback and guided practice that helps learners become self–directed and motivated (Vakili, 2001).

- Provide opportunities that personal control and choice in areas such as types of learning activities, criteria for evaluating learning progress and outcomes, and specific technologies to use for learning activities (Christensen, Anakwe, & Kessler, 2001; Harper, 2002; McCombs, 2001b).

- Provide interactivity that is directly related to student perceptions about quality of the learning experience (Wagner, 1997).

- Encourage motivation through opportunities for role taking, debate, and outside mentoring (Bonk & Dennen, 1999).

- Allow students to create electronic portfolios and other authentic assessments such as student self–evaluations and rubrics (Palloff & Pratt, 1999).

- Incorporate initial and ongoing needs assessments that provide choice of activities and create optimally challenging environments; let learners make choices and see results in a simulated environment (Bransford et al, 1999; Egan & Gibb, 1997).

- Provide ways for students to globally access and evaluate class discussions and share feedback with peers and instructor, increasing motivation with work displayed (Bonk & Dennen, 1999).

Furthermore, in keeping with these specific implications, the characteristics of a developmentally appropriate framework to support ongoing, lifelong learning will:

- Move from more structured to less structured supports and protocols for interacting as learners gain in experience and sophistication.

- Provide various level of learner choice and control to match the needs, experience, and interests of different types of learner, young and old.

- Enlist various levels of mentoring and guidance as well as limits to the boundaries of the learning community based on learner needs, experience, and interests.

- Provide various levels of direction and structure for academically related inquiries that match the interests, experiences, and skill levels of learners.

- Allow for a range of individual and group approaches and topics that are matched with both required academic standards and individual needs interests, and skill levels.

- Support an ongoing process of learning and change, allowing for exploration and various levels of learning depending on interests, experiences, and skill levels.

Support an ongoing process of learning and change, allowing for exploration and various levels of learning depending on interests, experiences, and skill levels.

c. Developmental and Social Factors

Principle 10 : Developmental influences on learning. As individuals develop, they encounter different opportunities for and experience different constraints on learning. Learning is most effective when differential development within and across physical, intellectual, emotional, and social domains are taken into account. Principle 11: Social influences on learning. Learning is influenced by social interactions, interpersonal relations, and communication with others.

d. Individual–Differences Factors

Principle 12: Individual differences in learning. Learners have different strategies, approaches, and capabilities for learning that are a function of prior experience and heredity.

Principle 13: Learning and diversity. Learning is most effective when differences in learners' linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds are taken into account.

Principle 14: Standards and assessment. Setting appropriately high and challenging standards and assessing the learner and learning process–including diagnostic, process, and outcome assessment–are integral parts of the learning process. (Note: Summarized from APA Work Group of the Board of Educational (1997).

7.General Implication of the Learner–Centered Perspective

Research underlying the learner–centered principles confirms that learning is nonlinear, recursive, continuous, complex, relational, and natural in humans. Research also shows that learning is enhanced in contexts where learners have supportive relationships, have a sense of ownership and control over the learning process, and can learn with and from each other in safe and trusting learning environments (McCombs, 2003; McCombs & Whisler, 1997).

All learners have opportunities to connect with each other at personal and academic levels. Additional positive features include the following:

−   Practices integrate learning and motivational strategies to help students become self-directed learners.

−   Instruction includes preassessment and ongoing assessment of students' interests, goals, background knowledge, and needs to better tailor practices to each individual.

- Mechanism are in place to better connect other learners in learning communities and / or communities of practices.

- Students are involved in co-creating instruction and all instructional experiences with their "teachers" and others in their learning communities.

- Practices address both community and individual personel needs; community is not defined geographically, but by shared interest in the subject matter and adaptability.

- Concepts of "emergent" curricula are at the heart of the system ; each learner or community of learners can, at any period of time and based on their needs / purposes, create curricula that include dynamic and up-to-date information.

- Curriculum is customized based on preassessment and ongoing assessment data to allow learners the opportunity to see the progress they are making.

- Curriculum is flexible and dynamic, with a minimum of structure based on student needs and / or developmental considerations.

- Feedback is available for student review "on call" so that it can be used for self–evaluation of progress; it is available for others to see when students are "ready" to submit work; feedback provides ways for students to remediate and enrich their knowledge and skills in areas of choice as appropriate.

8. The Gen Y Example of Learner–Centered Principles in Practice

One example that integrates the learner–centered principles into practices consistent with the foregoing list is the Generation Y (Gen Y) program developed by Dennis Harper (1998, 2002) in the Olympia, Washington, School District. Gen

Y students in Grades 3 – 12 are involved in collaboration with teachers, the local community, higher education students, and corporate sponsors to assist in the restructuring of education through emerging technologies. These students are seen as partners and leaders in integrating technology into lesson plan and units. Results of this program show that students can greatly contribute to transform practices and in so doing, improve their motivation for learning and relationships with adults. This approach has led to reach greater student engagement in learning and also to increase school attendance and to reduce discipline problems (Coe and Ault, 2001). New positive relationships have been formed between youth and teachers, and new school cultures of mutual respect and caring have emerged. How is this program an example of learner–centered principles in practice? The primary ways in which Gen Y applies these principles are as follows:

- Gen Y students and teachers are partners in co–creating curricula and lesson plans that integrate technology in personally meaningful and relevant ways to students.

- Gen Y students and teachers select curricula for enhancement with technology based on difficulty and/or interest level, thereby representing dynamic, negotiated, and emergent curricula defined by local school communities and based on learning needs.

- Teachers empower Gen Y students to "teach" the lesson with them in ways that are engaging to other students in the class.

- Technology–enhanced curricula that are co–created by Gen Y students and teachers become part of a national database that other teachers and students

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can access, enabling them to adapt these lessons to their own teaching and learning needs.

- The technology–enhanced curricula in the Gen Y student–teacher partnership model accommodate roles of teachers as learners and learners as teachers, thus strengthening the relationship between teachers and students.

- Gen Y students and their teachers define the assessment and feedback strategies in ways that establish appropriate levels of choice and development of student responsibility for learning outcomes.

Table 2.2 The Gen Y Example of Learner–Centered Principles in Practice

Program Features	Learner–centered factors	Learner–centered principles
Student creates relevant learning activities with technology in partnership with teachers.	Cognitive and Metacognitive	Principle 1: Nature of the learning process. Principle 3: Construction of knowledge. Principle 4: Strategic thinking. Principle 6: Context of learning.
Student and teacher have a new learning and social relationship defined in part by their partnership roles in co–creating lessons.	Motivational and affective. Developmental and social individual differences	Principle 7: Motivational and emotional influences on learning. Principle 11: Social influences on learning. Principle 13: Learning and diversity.
Students learns about creating lesssons that	Cognitive and	Principle 2: Goals of the

| facilitate learning; teachers learn about student interests, learning needs and technology applications.

Students "teach" lesson to other students in the class in partnership with teacher; they are coached in reaching students of diverse backgrounds. | metacognitive

Individual differences

Cognitive and metacognitive

Motivational and affective

Developmental and social | learning process.

Principle 12: Individual differences in learning.

Principles 5: Thinking about thinking.

Principle 8: Intrinsic motivation to learn.

Principle 10: Developmental influences on learning.

Principle 11: Social influences on learning. |
|---|---|---|
| Students are empowered to be more engaged and take responsibility for their own learning, leading to increased school attendance and fewer discipline problems; become models for other students. | Motivational and affective

Individual differences | Principle 9: Effects of motivation on effort.

Principle 14: Standards and assessment. |

2.3 English Teaching and Learning for Adults Learners

The use of two headings for this section, foreign language teaching (FLT) and foreign language learning (FLL), reflects an important development in the modern study of the subject. FLT was at one time thought to be exclusively a matter of teaching techniques; it was felt that, if teaching was above a certain minimum level of efficiency, learning would automatically follow. Teaching was the active skill; learning, the passive one. Today, the active role of the learner is an established principle. It is recognized that there are important individual

differences among learners, speciality in personality and motivation, that can directly influence the teaching outcome. In this view, people are seen to be largely responsible for their own progress. Research is therefore now directed not only at the way teachers teach, but also at the way learners learn.

The term 'acquisition' is sometimes used to replace 'learning' in this context, when the emphasis is the natural, unconscious way in which a learner can assimilate a foreign language (as in bilingual contexts, or when using one of the 'natural' approaches), to FLT. In several approaches, however 'acquisition' and 'learning' are carefully distinguished: the former is then restricted to what takes place in 'natural' learning situations; the later to what takes place in classrooms when following a structured course with a teacher.

Several terminological distinctions are drawn within this field. A person's 'mother tongue' or 'first language' (L1) is distinguished from any further languages that may be acquired (L2, L3, etc.). The term 'foreign language' is popularly used to refer to any language that is not a native language in a country; and 'second language' is also commonly used in this way. But many linguists distinguish between 'foreign' and 'second' language use, recognizing major differences in the learning aims, teaching methods, and achievement levels involved.

A foreign language (FL), in this more restricted sense, is a non–native language taught in school that has no status as a routine medium of communication in the country. A second language (SL) is a non–native language that is widely used for purposed of communication, usually as a medium of

education, government, or business. English, for example, has foreign language status in Indonesia, but second language status in Malaysia. The later term is also used with reference to immigrants and indigenous groups whose L1 is a minority language: in the USA, for example, English is second language for millions of immigrants from a wide range of language backgrounds as well as for speakers of American Indian languages.

The FLT world has not been slow to meet the challenge of the critics. An enormous outpouring of intellectual and practical effort has been devoted to overhauling the traditional machinery of language teaching. At the same time, the rationale for FLL has come to be publicly defended(Crystal, 1999)

- FLL is no longer a luxury, in an international world. It is necessity, if a country is to exercise a role in world affairs. Especially in Europe, it is seen as a criterion of responsible international citizenship. It is a strength to be able to meet people from other countries on equal linguistic terms.

- FLL has an essential role in preparing children to cope with the new perspectives brought about by a rapidly changing society –not only abroad, but within their own community. It can help overcome their insecurity and develop their confidence as they face up to the demands of social and personal relationship not usually encountered in a mother–tongue context.

- There is no doubt that language is prerequisite for full mutual understanding and cooperation between nations. FLL promotes understanding, tolerance, and respect for the cultural identity, rights, and

values of others, whether abroad, or at home in minority groups. People become less ethnocentric, as they come to see themselves and their society in the eyes of the rest of the world, and encounter other ways of thinking about things. Language learning, as well as travel, broadens the mind.

− Success in the international world of commerce and industry is becoming more and more dependent on FLL. Young people now find they have more career opportunities when they know a foreign language and are increasingly moving to localities where some degree of FL competence is required on them. This mobility is no longer something that affects only executives but is found with all grades and categories of personnel, such as marketing staff, legal specialists, secretaries, and technicians.

− FLL is becoming increasingly important as unemployment and reduced working hours add to people's leisure time. Tourist travel is a major motivation but many have come to find FLL a satisfying leisure activity in its own right, enabling them to have direct access to the world of foreign cinema, radio, television, vocal music, literature, and the history of ideas.

− FLL provides a valuable perspective whose interest is primarily in the mother tongue. Ultimately, the only way to appreciate the unique identity and power of a language is by contrasting it with others.

2.4 Successful English Language Learning

There is as yet no single theory that can account for the diversity of English as Foreign Language Learning behaviour, and explain why some learners succeed in

their task, whereas others fail. A hint of the complexity of the task facing researcher can be obtained from the resume of relevan factors as follows.

- It is unclear how far there maybe a genuine aptitude for English as Foreign Language Learning. Given sufficient motivation, intelligence, and opportunity, anyone can learn English; but the task is likely to be less onerous if certain general personal qualities are present. Among these, it has been suggested, are empathy and adaptability, assertiveness and independence, with good drive and powers of application. People need to be capable of assimilating knowledge in difficult conditions. They should have a good memory, and be good at finding patterns in samples of data (nonlinguistic as well as linguistic). Of particular importance is an ability to detect phonetic differences (e.g. of stress, melody, vowel quality) something which can manifest itself in other domains, such as drama or music.

- Students can benefit from being taught to "learn how to learn" English as foreign language –useful strategies, such as silent rehearsal, techniques of memorization, and alternative ways of expressing what they want to say (paraphrase). They may also benefit from training in the kinds of basic skills involved in English as Foreign Language Learning, such as those identified above.

- Exposure to the English as foreign language needs to be regular –a problem which particularly affects English Language Teaching in schools, where timetable pressure, examinations, and holidays may lead to

discontinuities. Whenever possible, the aim should be to teach "little and often". Too much exposure at any one time can be as ineffective as too little, readily leading to fatigue and superficial assimilation ("quickly;earn is quickly forgotten").

− Exposure to native users of the English as a foreign language is a real benefit, through the use of authentic materials (e.g. audio tape, video tape, newspaper library) and in English as a foreign language teaching assistants. An important dimension is the use of educational visits abroad but these need to be properly prepared and followed up in class, and the experience should enable children to be genuinely integrated within the English as a Foreign Language environment. Out–of–school activities should be encouraged, such as pen friends, private exchanges, and weekend culture simulation courses.

− Teaching objectives need to be carefully selected and graded, to permit realistic progress with underachievers, as well as with the gifted. Different kinds of objectives should be explored. Are all four linguistic modes to be introduced (speaking, listening, reading, writing), and if so, in which order? Might limited competence in two languages be better than an excellent command of one? Should the learners be exposed to only certain varieties of the foreign language? Should the focus be on formal techniques (such as translation).

− Teaching methods need to be flexible to suit the needs of individual children (e.g. their interest and cognitive skills) and to make best use of

classroom design and resources (e.g. the availability of audio–visual aids). There is no single 'formula' for successful English as a foreign language. There should be opportunities for teachers to interact with children in group, pairs, and individually. If classes are too big, it will be impossible to obtain genuine participation and practice.

− There should be an opportunity to take more than one foreign language in school, to follow them to an advanced level, and to continue with them after school. Special arrangements may need to be made, involving interschool and local goverment cooperation. New combinations of subjects, more suited to the needs of modern society, should be introduced, such as EFL + science, EFL + economics.

− Motivation is a central factor. Students need to see that English as a foreign language is taken seriously by those whom they respect, especially in the community at large (encouragement from local employers, civic interest in town twinning, etc.). It is critical to take the language out of the classroom, so that students see its use in a native community. Moreover, motivation applies to teacher as well as student: it is difficult to teach enthusiastically if it is known that most of the class are going to drop their language at the earliest opportunity, or that society places little store by it.

− Teacher training needs to continue at in–service as well as initial levels. Teachers need to be technically competent, that is they are able to teach in the foreign language, if required. They need to keep themselves up–to–

date with the latest research into their language and society, as well as in English as a Foreign Language techniques.

2.5 Beyond Tests: Alternatives in Assessment

In the public eye, tests have acquired an aura of infallibility in our culture of mass producing everything, including the education of school children. Everyone wants a test for everything, especially if the test is cheap, quickly administered, and scored instantaneously. But we realize that while the standardized test industry has become a powerful juggernaut of influence on decisions about people's lives, it also has come under severe criticism from the public (Kohn, 2000). A more balanced viewpoint is offered by Bailey (1998: 204): "One of the disturbing things about tests is the extent to which many people accept the results uncritically, while others believe that all testing is individious. But tests are simply measurement tools: It is the use to which we put their results that can be appropriate or inappropriate".

− It is clear by now that tests are one of a number of possible types of assessment. An important distinction was made between testing and assessing. Test are formal procedure, usually administered within strict time limitations, to sample the performance of a test–taker in a specified domain. Assessment connotes a much broader concept in that most of the time when teachers are teaching, they are also assessing. Assessment includes all occasions from informal impromptu observations and comments up to and including tests.

- Early in the decade of the 1990s, in a culture of rebellion against the notion that all people and all skills could be measured by traditional tests, a novel concept emerged that began to be labeled "alternative" assessment. As teachers and students were becoming aware of the shortcomings of standardized tests, "an alternative to standardized testing and all the problems found with such testing" (Huerta–Macias, 1995: 8) was proposed. That proposal was to assemble additional measures of students–portfolios, journals, observations, self–assessment, peer–assessment, and the like– in an effort to triangulate data about students. For some, such alternatives held "ethical potential" (Lynch, 2001: 228) in their promotion of fairness and the balance of power relationships in the classroom.

- Why, then, should we even refer to the notion of "alternative" when assessment already encompasses such a range of possibilities? This was the question to which Brown and Hudson noted that to speak of alternative assessment is counterproductive because the term implies something new and different that may be "exempt from the requirements of responsible test construction" (1998: 657). So they proposed to refer to "alternatives" in assessment instead. Their term is a perfect fit within a model that considers tests as a subset of assessment. All tests are assessment but, more important, that not all assessments are tests.

- The defining characteristics of the various alternatives in assessment that have been commonly used across the profession were apply summed up

by Brown and Hudson (1998: 654–655). Alternatives in assessment with specific: Require students to perform, create, produce, or do something;Use real world contexts or simulations;Are nonintrusive in that they extend the day–to–day classroom activities;Allow students to be assessed on what they normally do in class every day;Use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities;Focus on processes as well as products;Tap into higher–level thinking and problem–solving skills;Provide information about both the strengths and weaknesses of students;Are multiculturally sensitive when properly administered;Ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgment;Encourage open disclosure of standards and rating criteria; andcall upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles.Provide opportunities for intergenerational learning around topics of interest and relevance across the age span.

2.6 The Benefit of Affective Assessment and Evaluation

Evaluation should be seen as a technique to collect information or prove about quality of performance or group of student to make learning decision. The result of affective aspect can be used to diagnose students' learning difficulties.In reality, often students' learning difficulties are not from their intellectual factor but from affective factors. For example the failure of English learning generally from students low interest or negative attitude towards English language education and low self confidence as well.

Affective evaluation that is related to the variables are needed to enhance students motivation and learning interest, self confidence through situation creating affective learning that is appropriate to students' condition. Affective aspect has important role to success either education or future life.

2.7 Logical Framework

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        │   English as Foreign Language Learning   │
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             ┌──────────────────────────────┐
             │      Authentic Assessment     │
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        ┌──────────────┐      ┌──────────────┐
        │     Test     │      │   Non Test    │
        └──────────────┘      └──────────────┘
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                            │  Affective Assessment │
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                            ┌──────────────────────┐
                            │  Affective Students   │
                            │  Behavior in English  │
                            │       Learning        │
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                            ┌──────────────────────┐
                            │  Results of English   │
                            │       Learning        │
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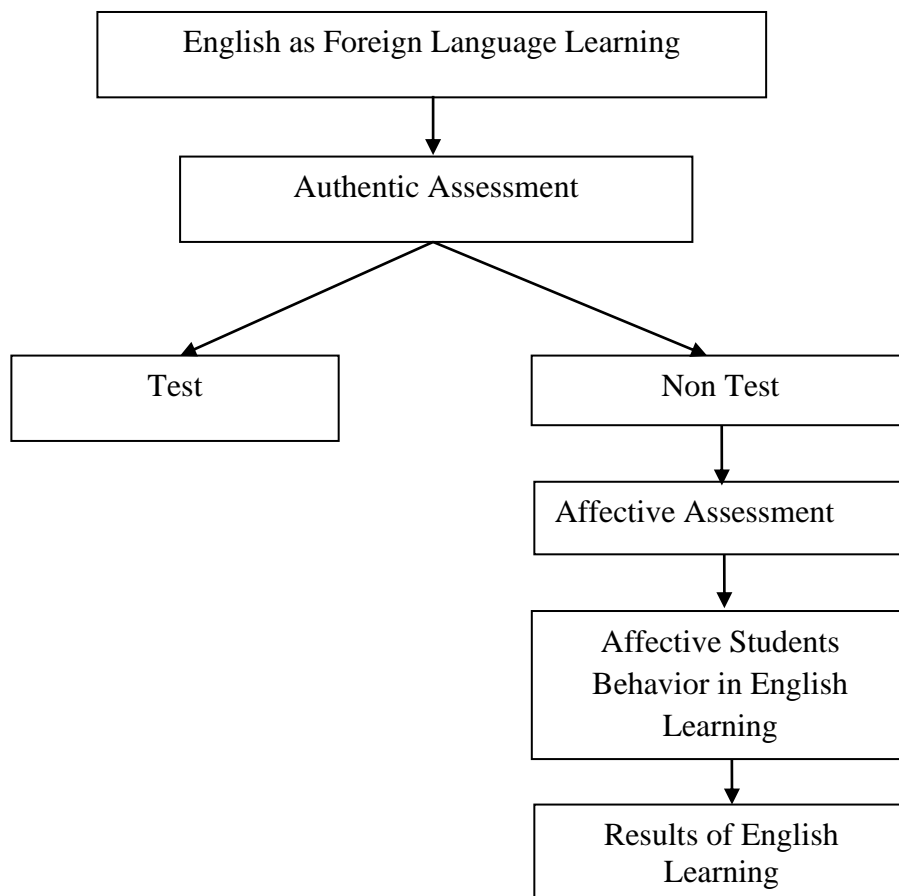
Figure 2.4 Logical Framework

Doing assessment and evaluation activities can not be separated from teaching and learning process. It is because, teachers has to implement authentic assessment that involving the three domains of learning. It covers cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. The purpose of affective English assessment is specifically to measure the affective domain for students of non English departments. For this affective judgment, it means that affective domain can not be separated in doing students assessment and evaluation.There are five affective dimensions or variables developed in this study. They are attitude, motivation, interest, self-concept, and personal value. The five dimensions consist of 24 aspects or sub variables and 35 indicators. Thus, 35 indicators from 5 dimensions of affective that become the basis of instrument item containing 120 items, and as inventory rating scale model of the instrument. It proves that affective assessment has an important role in the success of a person in various fields, especially in English as a foreign language (EFL) learners.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter discusses the conclusions and suggestions. The conclusions are drawn referring to the findings of this study presented in the previous chapter. The suggestions deal with several recommendations relating to affective model for students of non- English department developed in this study.

5.1 Conclusions

Based on data analysis and discussion in the previous chapters, it can be concluded as follows.

1. The affective aspect is thought of as a process that contributes to learning and achievement. It is a great method that utilizes learning skills which are predominantly related to emotional processes. It utilizes behaviors of awareness, interest, attention, concern, and responsibility to listen and respond in interactions with others. Affective domain will develop well rounded students with broad abilities but they may not be immediately be visible in the form of test scores. There should be better mechanism for school evaluation instead of just student scores. In this study, the researcher considers how

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affective domain should be developed and why affective is so important in students' daily lives. As important as affective is for performance and achievement, however, the researcher believes that affective is critically important in its own right. Indeed, one of the primary goals of higher education is to help students discover their true affective and chart a life course based on affective developed and nurtured in university. Thus affective may be viewed as essential with respect to adjustment and happiness in life. That's why the researcher is interested to conduct the study based on the need analysis using focus group discussion and interview to 5 English teachers from 2 universities also towards the students of non- English departments.

2. There are five (5) affective dimensions developed in this study. They are attitude, motivation, interest, self-concept, and personal value. Attitude dimension has four aspects, namely attitude towards English subject, attitude towards learning English, attitude towards student's self, and attitude towards who are different from the student. Attitude aspects have five indicators, namely attitude of curiosity, attitude of critical thinking, attitude of honesty, attitude of carefulness, and attitude of flexibility. Motivation dimension has six aspects, namely desire and eagerness to succeed, urging and need of learning, expectation and aspiration in the future, appreciation in learning English, interesting activities in learning English, and conducive learning environment so that it makes a student enable to learn English well. Motivation aspects have nine indicators. They are strong willing to learn

English, preserving against difficulties in English learning, the amount of time available to learn English, prefer to work autonomously, high willingness to follow English lessons, be able to defend his or her opinions, working hard on English assignment, participating to be the best in learning English, and like to look for and solve problems in learning. Interest dimension has four aspects: having glad feeling in learning English, students' involvement in English learning, attracting on learning English activities, and having a stable tendency to pay attention in learning English. Interest aspects have seven indicators: receiving English lessons happily, learning English continuously, not to be forced to learn English, students' activeness in learning English, content of English lessons in accordance with students' need, following teacher's explanation, and doing homework and assignment. Self-concept dimension has two aspects, namely students' knowledge on English language and students' expectation on ideal English learning. While self-concept aspects have three (3) indicators, namely students' point of view related to their English competence, student point of view related to the advantages of English competence and student active role in English learning. Personal value dimension has eight (8) aspects, namelyself-expectation, orientation towards life, working ability, self-actualization, self-integrity, self-confidence, self-direction, and intellectual thinking. Meanwhile personal value aspects have ten (10) indicators, namely having English competence, the meaning of

life, hard-working, having competence in working, wisdom, a wide perspective, honesty, helpful, brave to try, and being responsible.

3. Thus, 35 indicators from 5 dimensions of affective become the basis of intruments item arrangement. Learning evaluation should be integrated covering the three domain of learning, using test and non test. Affective assessment is included non test. It is authentic assessment. Authentic assessments have several advantages over conventional tests. They are likely to be more valid than conventional tests, particularly for learning outcomes that require higher-order thinking skills.Because they involve real-world tasks, they are also likely to be more interesting for students, and thus more motivation. Finally, they can provide more specific and usable information about what students have succeded in learning as well as they have not learned. However, authentic assessments may require more time and efforts on a teacher's part to develop, and may be more difficult to grade. To address the difficulty of grading authentic assessments, it is often useful to create a grading rubric that specifies the traits that will be evaluated and the criteria by which they will be judged.

4. The formulation of affective instruments as the result of this research and development is in the shape of inventory or self-report rating scale model or Affective Scale. This affective scale consists of 120 statement items that covering the five of affective dimensions, namely attitude, motivation,

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interest, self-concept, and personal value. The affective assessment model also covers the four language skills and the three language components.

5. The affective scale has the validity and reliability, in the small–scale field tryout were item reliability 1.00 and person reliability 0.93. Meanwhile item validity 0.90 and person validity 0.87. The instrument validity is significant as it shows, an infit mean square value for the affective measuring instrument was 0.97. For that reason, it can be said that the affective measuring instruments with 120 items of statement has a model fit with the data. The affective scale has the result that shows overall measurement model fit or the model is suitable with the data. It means the model that hypothesized or proposed can estimate covariant matrix of population that is not different from covariant matrix of sample. It means the estimation result that is obtained from the sample data can be the basis for making generalization.

5.2 Suggestions of the Product Benefits

Based on the research conclusions above, it can be put forward several suggestions related to product benefit:

1. The affective scale that becomes the research product is designed to be able to be used for measuring students affective aspects in learning English. This affective scale has two benefits, either for enhancing students English achievement or

overcoming students' difficulties in learning English. So that is the reason why English teachers should design authentic assessment that involves the three domain of learning, namely cognitive, psychomotoric, and affective point of view.

2. Although this affective scale produced in this study had been tried out to non–English department students of Walisongo State Islamic University of Semarang, but indeed, the affective scale can be applied to all of non English department students to others university. Because this instruments are arranged based on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) that is implemented by all over higher education in Indonesia.

5.3 Dissemination and Product Development

Based on the conclusions and suggestions above, it can be put forward several things related to the product development, as follow:

1. The theoretical constructions of affective in this study were arranged based on the result of English as a Foreign Language and is not based on particular curriculum. Therefore, in order to obtain wide empirical validity proof, it is appropriate this instruments are tried out to other general university students.

2. For increasing the effective implementation and accuracy of test result, it is better this affective scale is developed further into computer based affective instruments.

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